

GLOBAL CONFERENCE ON
BUSINESS AND FINANCE
PROCEEDINGS

VOLUME 7, NUMBER 1
2012

ISSN 1931-0285 CD

ISSN 1941-9589 ONLINE

The Institute for Business and Finance Research

*Honolulu, Hawaii, US
January 3-6, 2012*

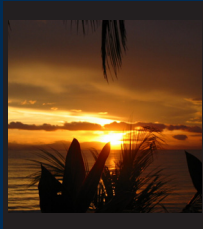
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Letter from the Editor

Welcome to Hawaii

Welcome
Bienvenidos



On behalf of the Staff and the IBFR, I welcome you to Honolulu, Hawaii and the 2012 Global Conference on Business and Finance. We hope you have a productive conference and enjoy your time in Hawaii. If we can be of any assistance to you during your time in Hawaii please do not hesitate to contact us.

We all know that college professors must balance their teaching, research, and service obligations. Finding the right forum to share and obtain feedback on our research, new teaching techniques, and innovative administrative processes can be challenging at times. The Institute for Business and Finance Research was created to facilitate your work by providing an environment conducive to knowledge and experience sharing. We encourage the academic community to come and share their work at our conferences and Journals. We welcome articles which are of interest to scholars and practitioners in all fields of business, economics and related fields.

The 2012 Hawaii GCBF represents a long term commitment to bring individuals from around the world together to share their ideas and promote research on business and finance. The response to the conference has been outstanding. We wish to thank you for selecting the GCBF as your research outlet. We also wish to thank the many people that have contributed to making the conference a success. We are delighted to report that the conference is truly a global conference. We have participants from all corners of the globe at this event. These individuals come from a variety of high quality institutions and will present work on a broad mix of academic issues.

We are proud to announce two upcoming conferences. Our 13th conference will be held in San Jose, Costa Rica, May 22-25, 2012 at the Ramada Plaza Herradura Hotel and Conference Center. Our 14th conference will be held in Las Vegas, Nevada, USA at the Flamingo, Las Vegas Hotel from January 2-5, 2013. We hope that you are able to join us at these events.

We hope you take the time to enjoy the hotel facilities as well as to take in Honolulu and the surrounding countryside. Hawaii is a wonderful destination with much to offer. We recognize that in addition to presenting research and participating in the conference activities, it is also important to relax and rejuvenate yourself. Have some fun! You deserve it! We hope that you will go home refreshed and with a sense of accomplishment.

Warmest Regards,

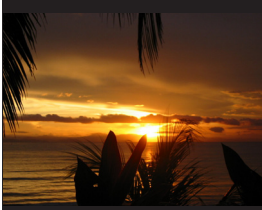
Mercedes Jalbert
Conference Chair



Carta del Editor

Bienvenidos a Hawaii

Welcome
Bienvenidos



El Instituto y su personal les da la bienvenida a Honolulu, Hawaii y al 2012 Global Conference on Business and Finance. Esperamos que su participación sea productiva y que disfruten Hawaii.

Todo profesor de educación superior debe encontrar un balance entre su rol como educador, investigador y como servidor a su comunidad y su universidad. Encontrar un foro donde podamos compartir y obtener retroalimentación sobre nuestra investigación, nuevas técnicas de educación, procesos administrativos innovadores es retador. El Institute for Business and Finance Research (IBFR) fue creado para facilitar el trabajo del profesional en educación superior, profesional del sector públicos y profesional del sector privado al crear una plataforma global conducente al enriquecimiento de nuestro conocimiento a través de:

1. La exposición de trabajos investigativos en todas las áreas académicas de las ciencias administrativas, ciencias económicas, financieras, etc.;
2. La exploración de nuevos avances tecnológicos, teóricos, pedagógicos;
3. El intercambio de conocimiento en una plataforma verdaderamente global.

Los Congresos GCBF representa un compromiso a largo plazo para unir a nuestros colegas de todos los continentes en nuestros congresos y compartir nuestras ideas, investigación y cultura en una plataforma bilingüe. Deseamos agradecer su participación, la cual hace realidad nuestro objetivo; el realizar un Congreso realmente Global con participación de educadores y profesionales de todas partes del mundo.

Con gran alegría anunciamos nuestros próximos Congresos. Nuestro congreso de invierno se realizará en San Jose, Costa Rica del 22 al 25 de mayo y en Las Vegas Nevada del 2 al 5 de enero de 2013. Será un placer el contar con su participación nuevamente.

Deseamos que disfruten su estancia en el Hotel y que tengan la oportunidad de explorar Las Islas de Hawaii. Sabemos que además de exponer sus trabajos, es también importante tomar tiempo para relajarse, rejuvenecerse y conocer sobre otras culturas, tradiciones, etc. Esperamos que al regresar a sus hogares e instituciones se sientan rejuvenecidos y satisfechos con sus alcances y aprendizaje durante el Congreso.

Estamos para asistirles durante el congreso y el futuro.

Saludos Cordiales,
Mercedes Jalbert
Conference Chair

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ENGLISH PROCEEDINGS



RISK ANALYSIS VIA REGRESSION QUANTILES - EVIDENCE FROM INTERNATIONAL EQUITY MARKETS

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ABSTRACT

In this paper we study risk management based on a robust method via quantile regression. Unlike the traditional VaR estimation methods, the quantile regression approach allows for a general treatment on the error distribution and is robust to distributions with heavy tails. The empirical application to five international equity indexes confirms this.

JEL: G110; G150; C18

KEYWORDS: Value at risk, international equities, risk analysis

INTRODUCTION

The Value-at-Risk (VaR) is the loss in market value over a given time horizon that is exceeded with probability p , where p is often set at 0.01 or 0.05. In recent years, VaR has become a popular tool in the measurement and management of financial risk. This popularity is spurred both by the need of various institutions for managing risk and by government regulations [see Dowd (1998), Saunders (1999)].

Although VaR is a relatively simple concept, its measurement is in fact a challenging task. In particular, there is little research on how good these VaR estimates are. Currently there are two broad classes of methods in estimating VaR [see Beder (1995) and Duffie and Pan (1997) for surveys on this topic]. The first approach is based on the assumption of a conditionally normal stock return distribution. The estimation of VaR is equivalent to estimating conditional volatility of returns. Since there is a large and growing literature on volatility modeling itself, this class is indeed a large and expanding world. There has been accumulated evidence that portfolio returns are usually not normally distributed. In particular, it is frequently found that market returns display negative skewness and excess kurtosis in the distribution of the time series. These findings suggest that VaR estimation by a more robust method is needed. The second class of VaR estimators is based on computing the empirical quantile nonparametrically; for example, using rolling historical quantiles. Other approaches in estimating VaR include the hybrid method by Boudoukh, Richardson and Whitelaw (1998), and the method based on the extreme value theory [see, for example, Boos (1984), McNeil (1998), and Nefci (2000)].

We believe that the quantile regression method is well suited for estimating VaRs. Quantile regression was introduced by Koenker and Bassett (1978) and has now become a popular robust approach for statistical analysis. Just as classical linear regression methods based on minimizing sums of squared residuals enable one to estimate models for conditional mean functions, quantile regression methods offer a mechanism for estimating models for the conditional median function and the full range of other

conditional quantile functions. In recent years, quantile regression has been extended to time series models. In particular, Koul and Saleh (1992) studied quantile regression methods for autoregressive processes and Koul and Mukherjee (1994) studied quantile regression in long-memory models. Koenker and Zhao (1996) extended quantile regression to ARCH models. Engle and Manganelli (1999) propose a CaVaR model based on the regression quantiles.

In this paper, we estimate VaR via quantile regression ARCH models. This model has the advantage that its statistical property and computation methods are well developed and are very efficient. The estimation procedure can be easily implemented on a regular personal computer. The estimation programs are available in standard statistical packages such as S-Plus, and can also be easily written in other programming languages. In addition, since GARCH models can be asymptotically represented by ARCH processes, an ARCH model with an appropriate chosen number of lags can practically provide a good approximation.

The SEC requires that for each category for which VaR disclosures are required, an institution must provide not only information about the level of estimated VaRs, but also the distribution of the value at risk amounts [see Blankley, Lamb and Schroeder (2000) for more detailed description of the SEC disclosure requirements]. Current VaR estimation methods generally do not provide a systematic way to measure how good the VaR estimates are. Mostly they assume that the estimated parameters have asymptotically normal distribution and symmetric confidence bands are constructed around the VaR point estimate. Pioneering work in this area includes Kupiec (1995), Hendricks (1996), Lopez (1998) and Dowd (2000). In a limited sample, however, this method may not be appropriate. Beder (1995), for example, applied different VaR estimation methods to three hypothetical portfolios and found huge variations in estimated VaR for the same portfolios. Accurate estimation of the conditional probability distribution of portfolio returns is very important in risk management. Obviously, a robust method for estimating VaR and the associated confidence bands are necessary if these estimates are to be useful for risk management purposes.

The remainder of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 motivates and describes the quantile regression approach to VaR, estimation. Section 3 provides data descriptions and conducts the estimation. Empirical results regarding estimated VaR and model performance are reported and discussed. Finally, Section 4 contains the concluding remarks.

ESTIMATING VAR BY REGRESSION QUANTILES

In this paper, we consider a return process $\{r_t\}$ generated by the following regression model with conditional heteroscedasticity

$$r_t = \alpha\alpha'x_t + u_t \quad (1)$$

where the error term satisfies

$$u_t = (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 |u_{t-1}| + \dots + \gamma_q |u_{t-q}|) \varepsilon_t, \quad (2)$$

with $\gamma_0 > 0, (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_q)' \in \mathbb{R}_+^q$ then this is a time series with ARCH effect. Here we assume that the innovations $\{\varepsilon_t\}$ have a general distribution F . In model (1), x_t is the vector of regressors which may include lag values of the dependent variable r_t

. By definition, the conditional value at risk (VaR) at p -percent level is

$$-VaR_t(p) = \alpha\alpha'x_t + (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 |u_{t-1}| + \dots + \gamma_q |u_{t-q}|)F^{-1}(p) = \alpha\alpha'x_t + \gamma(p)'Z_t, \quad (3)$$

Where

$$Z_t = (1, |u_{t-1}|, \dots, |u_{t-q}|)'$$

and

$$\gamma(p)' = (\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_q)F^{-1}(p).$$

Quantile regression provides a direct approach of estimating the $\gamma(p)$ and other parameters, thus delivering an estimator of $VaR_t(p)$. In particular, the ARCH parameters, $\gamma(p)$ can be estimated by the following problem

$$\hat{\gamma}(p) = \arg \min_{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}^k} \left[\sum_{t \in \{t: u_t \geq z_t' \gamma\}} p |u_t - z_t' \gamma| + \sum_{t \in \{t: u_t < z_t' \gamma\}} (1-p) |u_t - z_t' \gamma| \right] \quad (4)$$

In practice, we can replace u_t and Z_t by their (say, OLS) estimators and, under mild regularity conditions, the resulting $\hat{\gamma}(p)$ is still a root- n consistent estimator of $\gamma(p)$.

Given the models (1) and (2), if the lags are correctly selected we should have $\Pr \{r_t < VaR_t(p)\} = p$ at the true parameter. As a result, $\{e_t : e_t = I[r_t < VaR_t(p)] - p\}$ should be i.i.d. In contrast, when the lags are incorrectly chosen, $\{e_t\}$ will be serially dependent. Therefore, to test the adequacy of lag choice, it suffices to check whether $\{e_t\}$ is i.i.d.

There have been several statistical procedures for testing the i.i.d. assumption. In the case of Gaussian time series, the standardized spectral density captures all serial dependencies. Consequently, any deviation of the spectral density from uniformity is an evidence of serial dependence and thus we can test serial dependence in $\{e_t\}$ using the standardized spectral density approach (Hong 1996). More generally, for non-Gaussian time series, the higher order spectral method or the generalized spectral method may be used in testing serial dependence (Hong 1999). [see also Cowles and Jones (1937), Ljung and Box (1978), etc., for related topics.]

Another popular method that is frequently used in selecting lag length is to conduct sequential tests for the significance of the coefficients on lags. Such an approach also provides a model selection strategy which chooses between a model with, say, k lags and a model with $q=k+1$ lags. Koenker and Zhao (1996) show that a χ^2 test can be constructed for hypothesis of the type $H_0: R_\gamma = 0$. Under H_0 , the following Wald statistic converges to a centered chi-square distribution with s degrees of freedom (where s is the number of restrictions)

$$T_n = n\hat{\omega}^{-2}(R\hat{\gamma}(p))'[R\hat{D}_1^{-1}\hat{D}_0\hat{D}_1^{-1}R']^{-1}R\hat{\gamma}(p), \quad (5)$$

where $\omega^2 = p(1-p)/f(F^{-1}(p))^2$, $D_0 = EZZ'$ and $D_1 = EZZ'/\sigma$. This procedure can be applied to testing the significance of lag coefficients. If we are choosing between k lags and $q = k+1$ lags, let R be a diagonal matrix with the $k+1$ to q -th diagonal elements equal to ones and others equal to zeros,

$$R = \text{diag}[0, \dots, 0, 1, \dots, 1], \quad (6)$$

then the corresponding statistic T_n in (5) can be used in testing the significance of coefficients $\gamma_{k+1}, \dots, \gamma_q$. In practice, we generally select a priori a big enough number q_{max} , then we choose the lag length from possible values $\{1, \dots, q_{max}\}$. The procedure starts with the most general model which has q_{max} lags and tests whether the last lag coefficient is significant. If it is, then q_{max} is chosen. Otherwise, we estimate the model with $q_{max}-1$ lags. This is a sequential procedure which is repeated until a rejection occurs.

EMPIRICAL ESTIMATION AND RESULTS

Data and Estimation Procedure

The data used in the following empirical analysis are the weekly return series, from September 1976 to August 1999, of five major world equity market indexes: the U.S. S&P 500 Composite Index, the Japanese Nikkei 225 Index, the U.K. FTSE 100 Index, the Hong Kong Hang Seng Index, and the Singapore Strait Times Index. The FTSE 100 Index data are from January 1983 to September 1999. Table 1 reports some summary statistics of the data.

Table 1: Summary Statistics of the Data

	S&P 500	Nikkei 225	FTSE 100	Hang Seng	SingaporeST
Mean	0.0016	0.0011	0.0023	0.0029	0.0015
Std. Dev	0.0211	0.0242	0.0218	0.0393	0.0326
Max	0.0818	0.1214	0.0982	0.1542	0.1096
Min	-0.1666	-0.1089	-0.1782	-0.3497	-0.4747
Skewness	-0.5343	-0.2873	-1.0405	-1.1830	-2.6771
Excess Kurtosis	3.3987	3.1968	8.4345	7.0583	37.9887
AC(1)	0.0045	-0.0366	0.0534	0.1162	0.0685
AC(2)	0.0005	0.0971	0.0523	0.0922	0.0072
AC(3)	0.0084	0.0247	-0.0181	-0.0016	0.0324
AC(4)	-0.0082	-0.0417	-0.0190	-0.0677	0.0101
AC(5)	-0.0215	-0.0057	-0.0084	-0.0470	0.0448
AC (10)	-0.0256	-0.0167	0.0125	-0.0241	-0.0213

This table shows the summary statistics for the weekly returns of five major equity indexes of the world. AC(k) denotes autocorrelation of order k. The sample period is from September 1976 to August 1999, except for FTSE 100 which starts in January 1983. The source of the data is the online data service Datastream.

The mean weekly returns of the five indexes are all over 0.1% per week, with the Hang Seng Index producing an average return of 0.29% per week, an astonishing 32-fold increase in the index level over

the 24-year sample period. In comparison, the Nikkei 225 index only increased by 3-fold. The Hang Seng's phenomenal rise does not come without risk. The weekly sample standard deviation of the index is 3.93%, the highest of the five indexes. In addition, over the sample period the Hang Seng suffered four larger than 15% drop in weekly index level, with maximum loss reaching 35%, and there were 23 weekly returns below -10%! As has been documented extensively in the literature, all five indexes display negative skewness and excess kurtosis. The excess kurtosis of Singapore Strait Times Index reached 37.99, to a large extent driven by the huge one week loss of 47.47% during the 1987 market crash. The autocorrelation coefficients for all five indexes are fairly small. The Hang Seng Index seems to display the strongest autocorrelation with the AR(1) coefficient equal to 0.116 and AR (2) coefficient equal to 0.092.

For each time series, we first conduct model specification analysis and choose the appropriate lags for the mean equation and the ARCH component. Based on the selected model, we use Equation (1) to obtain a time series of residuals. The residuals are then used in the ARCH VaR estimation described in (4). The estimated VaRs are plotted and analyzed.

Model Specification Analysis

We conduct sequential tests for the significance of the coefficients on lags. The inference procedures we use here are asymptotic inferences. For estimation of the covariance matrix, we use the robust HAC (Heteroskedastic and Autocorrelation Consistent) covariance matrix estimator of Andrews (1991) with the data-dependent automatic bandwidth parameter estimator recommended in that paper. First of all, we choose the lag length in the autoregression,

$$r_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 r_{t-1} + \dots + \alpha_s r_{t-s} + u_t, \quad (7)$$

using a sequential test of significance on lag coefficients. The maximum lag length that we start with is $s = 9$, and the procedure is repeated until a rejection occurs. The t -statistic of the coefficient with the maximum number of lags does not become significant until $s=1$, the 9th round. The preferred model is an AR(1) model.

Our next task is to select the lag length in the ARCH effect

$$u_t = (\gamma_0 + \gamma_1 |u_{t-1}| + \dots + \gamma_q |u_{t-q}|) \epsilon_t. \quad (8)$$

Again, a sequential test is conducted using the results of (5). To calculate the t -statistic, we need to estimate $\omega^2 = p(1-p)/f(F^{-1}(p))^2$. There are many studies on estimating $f(F^{-1}(p))$, including Siddiqui (1960), Bolinger (1975), Sheather and Maritz (1983).

Notice that

$$\frac{dF^{-1}(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{f(F^{-1}(t))}, \quad (9)$$

following Siddiqui (1960), we may estimate (9) by a simple difference quotient of the empirical quantile function. As a result,

$$\widehat{f(F^{-1}(t))} = \frac{2h_n}{\widehat{F}^{-1}(t+h_n) - \widehat{F}^{-1}(t-h_n)}, \quad (10)$$

where $\hat{F}^{-1}(t)$ is an estimate of $F^{-1}(t)$ and h_n is a bandwidth which goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. A bandwidth choice has been suggested by Hall and Sheather (1988) based on Edgeworth expansion for studentized quantiles. This bandwidth is of order $n^{-1/3}$ and has the following representation

$$h_{HS} = z_{\alpha}^{2/3} [1.5s(t)/s''(t)]^{1/3} n^{-1/3}, \quad (11)$$

where z_{α} satisfies $\Phi(z_{\alpha}) = 1 - \alpha / 2$ for the construction of $1 - \alpha$ confidence intervals. In the absence of additional information, $s(t)$ is just the normal density. Starting with $q_{max} = 10$, a sequential test was conducted. We see that in the fourth round, the t -statistic on lag 7 becomes significant. The sequential test stops here, and it suggests that ARCH(7) is appropriate.

Based on the model selection tests, we decide to use the AR(1)-ARCH(7) regression quantile model to estimate 5% VaR for the S&P 500 index. We also conduct similar tests on the 5% VaR models for other four indexes and on the 1% VaR models for all five indexes. To conserve space we do not report the entire testing process in the paper. The results are available from the author. The mean equations generally have one or two lags, except the Hang Seng Index, which has a lag of 4 and displays more persistent autoregressive effect.

For the ARCH equations, at least 6 lags are needed for the indexes. The longest lag, at 10, is for the 10% ARCH VaR model for the S&P 500 index. The 1% VaR models require at least as many lags in the ARCH equation as the 5% VaR model. For the Nikkei 225 and FTSE 100 indexes, the lengths of the ARCH lags are the same for the 1% and 5% VaR models. Since the estimation program for the regression quantile VaR model is very efficient, lags up to 10 in the ARCH equation are very easy to handle.

Estimated VaRs

The estimated parameters for the constant term for the five indexes is between 0.1% for the Nikkei to 0.26% for the Hang Seng. The Hang Seng seems to display the strongest autocorrelation and this is reflected in the 4 lags chosen by the sequential test. The coefficients on the lagged absolute residuals are mostly positive. The negative coefficients are all statistically insignificant, with the exception of one.

U.S. — S&P 500 INDEX Based on our model, for the 5% VaR, the estimated VaRs generally range between 2.5% and 5%, but during very volatile periods they could jump over 10%, as happened in October 1987. The 1% VaRs lie above the 5% VaRs. The two series overlap each other most of the time, but they are very much separate from each other from 1992 to 1994 when overall market volatility is relatively low. During high volatility periods, there is high variation in estimated VaRs and 5% and 1% VaRs overlap each other more often. Certainly on a particular date, the 1% VaR lies above the 5% VaR.

JAPAN-NIKKEI 225 INDEX The estimated weekly 5% and 1% VaRs for the Nikkei 225 Index are quite stable and remain at the 4% and the 7% level from 1976 till 1982. Then the Nikkei 225 Index took off and appreciated about 450% over the next eight years, reaching its highest level at the end of 1989. This quick rise in stock value is accompanied by high risk, manifested here by the more volatile VaR series. In particular, the VaRs fluctuated dramatically, ranging from a low of 3% to a high of 15%. This volatility in VaR may reflect both optimistic market outlook at times as well as worry about high valuation and the possibility of a market crash. That crash did come in 1990, and ten years later, the Nikkei 225 Index still hovers around at a level which is about half off the record high in 1989. The 1990s is far from a rewarding decade for investors in the Japanese equity market. The mean annual return from the Nikkei

225 Index is negative and risk is at a high level. Average weekly 5% VaR is about 5%, and about 7% for the 1% VaR. The variation in both series is also very high, bouncing between 13.5% and -1%.

U.K. — FTSE 100 INDEX The estimated 5% and 1% VaRs for the U.K. Financial Times 100 Index appreciated 7-fold over the 16-year sample. The 5% VaR is very stable and averages about 3%. They stay very much within the 2% - 4% band, except on a few occasions, such as the 1987 global market crash. The 1% VaR is also more stable than that of the Nikkei 225 Index, mostly ranging between 4% and 8%. Compared with the SP 500 Index and the Nikkei 225 Index, the overlap between the 5% VaR and the 1% VaR is minimal.

HONG KONG — HANG SENG INDEX The Hang Seng Index produces an average return of 0.29% per week, an astonishing 32-fold increase in the index level over the 24-year sample period. The Hang Seng's phenomenal rise does not come without risk. We mentioned above that the weekly sample standard deviation of the index is 3.93%, the highest of the five indexes. In addition, the Hong Kong stock market has had more than its fair share of the market crashes. If we define a market crash as having the main index drop at least 15% in a week, then Hong Kong experienced four market crashes in 24-year sample period. The average 5% VaR over the sample is about 7%, and the average 1% VaR is about 12%, both the highest among the five indexes. The variation in the estimated VaR is huge, in particular the 1% VaRs. It ranges from 0% to 34%, the largest of the five indexes.

SINGAPORE — STRAIT TIMES INDEX Interestingly, the estimated VaRs display a pattern very similar to that of the U.K. FTSE 100 Index, although the former is generally larger than the latter. The higher risk in the Singapore market did not result in higher return over the sample period. Among the five indexes, the Singapore market suffered the largest loss during the 1987 crash, a 47.5% drop in a week. The market has since recovered much of the loss. Among the five indexes, the Singapore market only outperformed the Nikkei 225 Index over the entire 24-year sample period.

Performance of the ARCH Quantile Regression Model

In this section we conduct empirical analysis to help us understand the difference in dynamics between VaRs estimated by regression quantiles and those by volatility models with the conditional normality assumption. There are extensive empirical evidences supporting the use of the GARCH models in conditional volatility estimation. Bollerslev, Chou, and Kroner (1992) provide a nice overview of the issue. Furthermore, Engle and Ng (1993), Glosten, Jagannathan, and D. E. Runkle (1993), Bekaert and Wu (2000), and others have demonstrated that asymmetric GARCH models outperform those that do not allow the asymmetry, i.e., negative return shocks increase conditional volatility more than the positive return shocks. Therefore we estimate asymmetric GARCH(1,1) models and then produce VaR estimates by assuming conditional normality of the return (We also estimated several other ARCH models, with and without the asymmetric volatility specification. The regular GARCH(1,1) and asymmetric GARCH(1,1) produce similar performances in terms of the VaR test described below. Other models tend to underperform.)

We estimated the 5% VaRs of the S&P 500 Index estimated by the ARCH regression quantiles, and the Asymmetric GARCH(1,1) model with the conditional normality assumptions. We see that these two series actually track each other pretty well, although the VaR series estimated by regression quantile seem to be higher than the GARCH VaR during low volatility periods. However, during very volatile markets, as during the 1987 market crash, the GARCH plus normality approach produces much higher VaR estimates. This could be due to the fact that large return shocks produce large volatility estimates in the

GARCH setting. Value at risk after a market crash could be too high based on this approach. The quantile regression approach seems to generate an increased VaR at a more reasonable level.

To measure the relative performance more accurately, we compute the percentage of realized returns that are below the negative estimated VaRs. For the 1% VaR, the regression quantile method produces the percentage that is closer to the 1% mark for all five series. The GARCH approach seems to underestimate the VaRs consistently. For the 5% VaR, the regression quantile method produces the percentage that is closer to the 5% mark for all series, except for the FTSE 100. But now the GARCH approach seems to overestimate the VaRs consistently. To look at this more closely we extend the analysis for the S&P 500 Index. We estimate VaRs using the two methods at 2%, 4%, 6%, 10%, 15%. Now we have a total of 7 percentage levels. The regression quantile method produces the closest percentage at all percentage levels, and the percentages scatter around the true value. However, the GARCH method seems to underestimate VaRs for the smaller percentages (1% and 2%), and overestimate VaRs for the larger percentages (larger than or equal to 4%).

The five indexes we analyzed are quite different in their risk characteristics as discussed above. The ARCH quantile regression approach seems to be robust and can consistently produce very good estimates of the VaRs at different percentage (probability) levels. The asymmetric GARCH model, being a very good volatility model, is not able to produce good VaR estimates with the normality assumption. The ARCH quantile regression model does not assume normality and is well suited to handle negative skewness and heavy tails.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we estimate value at risk using the quantile regression approach pioneered by Koenker and Bassett (1978). This method does not assume a particular conditional distribution for the returns. We apply the model to five major equity indexes and found the method to be robust. These results regarding VaR estimation may have important implications for risk management practices.

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CONVENIENCE YIELDS IN BULK COMMODITIES: THE CASE OF THERMAL COAL

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ABSTRACT

This study advances the research on the convenience yield of bulk commodities with particular emphasis on thermal coal. We extend the option model of Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) to estimate thermal coal convenience yields using forward prices. We examine the business cycle of thermal coal in the presence of both demand and supply shocks and find that the convenience yield for thermal coal exhibits seasonal behavior. Convenience yields are negatively related to the inventory level of thermal coal despite the inventory not being co-located at the point of consumption while convenience yields are positively related to interest rates due to the business cycle. Our estimates of convenience yields for a bulk commodity such as thermal coal is consistent with results for other commodities such as base metals and oil where spot prices are more volatile than forward prices at low inventory levels. The result implies that the costs of storage are generally less than the operating costs associated with changes to production capacity so thermal coal producers prefer to stockpile the commodity rather than adjust production in response to changes in demand.

JEL: C53, G14, Q41

KEY WORDS: Commodities, convenience yield, forward markets, thermal coal, storage, options, contango.

INTRODUCTION

The ability to trade financially settled contracts for seaborne thermal coal has undoubtedly increased the efficiency of the global coal market. Annually more than 560 million tonnes of coal are traded on the seaborne market and the growth in the volume of forward contracts for this commodity since 2002 has enabled producers and consumers of thermal coal to smooth out fluctuations in price exposure. This capability is critical for the highly seasonal European power market and the liquid trading of forward electricity contracts. Over 180 million tonnes of thermal coal is imported to Europe annually from the producing regions of South Africa, Colombia, Indonesia and Russia and consumers are able to hedge their exposure through coal swap contracts whose prices are subsequently tracked via a number of key price indexes.

Thermal coal is a strategic resource which is primarily used for power production, although it is also consumed in cement manufacturing and other industries. The security of supply of thermal coal is critical for the efficient operation of Europe's electricity market. The purpose of this study is to analyze the spot and forward market for thermal coal and provide estimates of convenience yield and volatility through time, while correcting for major sources of seasonality. We find that the observed convenience yield is a surrogate for the volatility level in the thermal coal spot market and changing dynamics in the supply of, and demand for, the commodity.

The concept of convenience yield originates from Kaldor (1939) and was further developed under the theory of storage in Brennan (1958). The theory claims that goods in stock not sold forward have an

unobservable value from the flexibility of use, since a market participant owning these goods has the ‘convenience’ to make use of them. For this reason the observable cost of carry of a stored commodity (foregone interest and the cost of physical storage) must be reduced by a so-called availability premium. Since buying on the spot market and selling forward is a riskless trade (cash and carry), the (net) cost of carry must equal to the difference between the forward price and the spot price.

When we differentiate the existing body of convenience yield literature by commodity type we discover that bulk commodities such as thermal coal have so far received little attention. This is important to note since comparable studies for other commodities are of limited value for the bulk commodity market. This is because thermal coal is a resource with particular features and even the comparison to other energy commodities such as oil or natural gas, are of limited value. Transportation costs for seaborne thermal coal are generally higher and require significant infrastructure through the value chain. This can lead to persistent demand-supply imbalances when the capacity limit of the transport system is reached resulting in regional price differentials. Besides this, storage of thermal coal is not necessarily co-located with the thermal coal consumer and may therefore incompatible with the notion of convenience. Convenience yield studies in other commodity markets are thus not directly transferable to the coal market due to these unique characteristics. This study uses detailed data on the capacity of the transport network, local production volumes and operating costs for the storage, loading and transport nodes at mine and port facilities. Unlike other empirical studies of supply curves and the production smoothing of inventories we employ actual costs as reported by asset operators which avoids a broad analysis of inventory management where the cost structure is simply assumed.

Most studies that estimate convenience yields use a cost-of-carry model where the convenience yield is treated as an exogenous variable. Brennan (1986) showed that convenience yields follow a mean-reverting process while Gibson and Schwartz (1990) used a cost-of-carry model with stochastic mean-reverting convenience yields, assuming the presence of an exogenously defined measure of convenience. Generally, models for convenience yields assume that storage costs are zero (Fama and French, 1988) or are simply assumed (Milonas and Henker, 2001). In particular Fama and French (1988) used the interest-adjusted basis as a proxy which avoids the need to estimate storage costs, to develop the relationship between convenience yield and inventory levels. Taking an alternative approach Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) extended the option approach of Heinkel *et al.* (1990) using a formulation of the Black–Scholes model to estimate convenience yields. Although they model convenience yields as call options they ignore storage costs which can result in theoretically unjustified negative convenience yields.

Extending the option model of Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) to value convenience yields, we find that convenience yields are negatively related to the inventory level of the underlying thermal coal and are positively related to interest rates due to the business cycle. A positive convenience yield can be best represented as a long position in an embedded call option on the commodity. Our convenience yields estimates are consistent with Fama and French (1988) which illustrates that the spot price of thermal coal is more volatile than the forward price at low inventory levels which verifies the Samuelson (1965) hypothesis for bulk commodities.

COMMODITY MARKETS AND THERMAL COAL

Because a commodity can be consumed, its price is a combination of future asset and current consumption values. However, unlike financial assets, storage of energy products is costly and sometimes constrained by infrastructure design. Physical ownership of the commodity carries an associated flow of

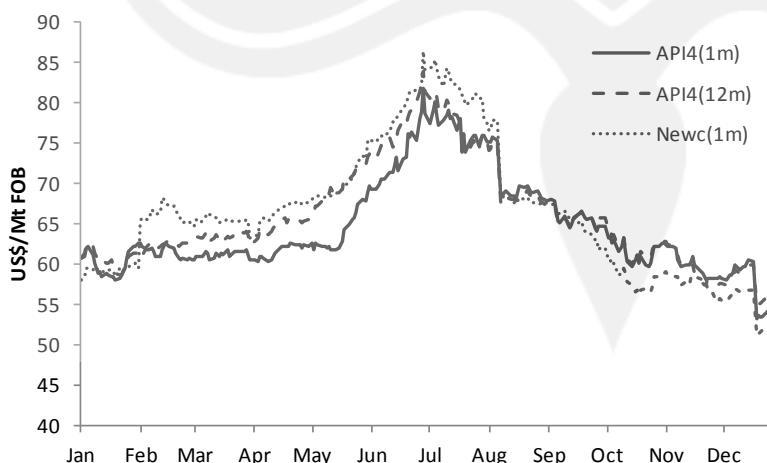
services and the agent has the option of flexibility with regards to consumption as well as reduced risk of commodity shortages. On the other hand the decision to postpone consumption implies a storage expense. Thermal coal producers operate in an environment where production cannot be altered easily and storage of the commodity is not necessarily co-located at the point of consumption. Furthermore the supply response to changes in demand is notoriously ‘sticky’ implying that production generally continues at a similar rate for some time despite medium-term changes in demand.

In equilibrium, backwardation implies that immediate ownership of the physical commodity entails some benefit or convenience which deferred ownership (via a long forward position) does not. This benefit, expressed as a rate, is termed the ‘convenience yield’. A convenience yield is natural for goods, like art or land, that offer exogenous rental or service flows over time. However, substantial convenience yields are also observed in bulk commodities, such as coal which are consumed at a single point in time. Intuitively, the convenience yield corresponds to the dividend yield for stocks.

The theory of storage (Brennan, 1958) explains convenience yields in terms of an embedded timing option. In particular, the holder of a storable commodity can decide when to consume it. If it is optimal to store a commodity for future consumption, then it is priced like an asset, but if it is optimal to consume it immediately, then the commodity is priced as a consumption good. Thus, a commodity’s spot price is the maximum of its current consumption and asset values (Routledge, Seppi and Spatt, 2000). Inventory decisions are important for commodities because, by influencing the relative current and future scarcity of the good, they link its current (consumption) and expected future (asset) values. This is unlike equities and bonds where outstanding quantities are generally fixed.

We adapt a version of the Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) option pricing model to examine the behavior of convenience yields with supply and demand shocks for thermal coal using free on board (FOB) prices from Richards Bay, South Africa. Figure 1 illustrates the weekly average spot price of the price index for thermal coal from Richards Bay, known as API4, from 2003 to 2010. A plot of Newcastle FOB prices from Australia is also provided to illustrate the global nature of the seaborne thermal coal market and the relationship between coal prices from different exporting regions.

Figure 1: Mean of API4 (Richards Bay, South Africa) and Newcastle (Australia) thermal coal FOB 2003-11 US\$/Mt.



Thermal coal prices tend to peak in July in preparation for the demand growth for imports to Europe in winter as well as the easing of the monsoon in India where the major ports begin to re-open. The lowest prices for thermal coal generally occur in the northern winter. As with the crude oil and natural gas markets, the behavior of thermal coal is affected by both seasonality and business cycles.

We employ an extension of the Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) option pricing approach because the behavior of thermal coal prices are affected by seasonal business cycles and so modeling price behavior using mean reversion and assuming convenience yields are an exogenous mean-reverting variable (Gibson and Schwartz, 1990) may not necessarily be appropriate. To estimate convenience yields we consider the presence of unexpected demand-supply shocks and the business cycle. We define the business cycle as the sequence of supply and demand equilibrium traced to a point of relative disequilibrium at the height of demand through to the restoration of equilibrium. The thermal coal business cycle is thus from around March to October.

DATA AND OBSERVATIONS

The main indexes used for the trading, clearing and settlement of thermal coal, jointly calculated and published by Argus and IHS McCloskey, are the API2 and API4 indexes. The API2 index is the international price benchmark for coal imported to north-western Europe while the API4 index is the international price benchmark for coal exported from the Richards Bay terminal in South Africa. The API4 forward curve is constructed as an average of the Argus FOB Richards Bay assessment and McCloskey's FOB Richards Bay marker for coal with certain minimum quality specifications. The API4 index is the most appropriate proxy for Atlantic coal prices to the European market because it is more representative of the true cost of coal as a consumption good, it is immune to changes in the forward freight market and it is also immune to supply alternatives from producers that enjoy a freight cost advantage into Europe. The implied inclusion of freight costs in the API2 index are difficult to extract in a meaningful way and therefore a true FOB forward curve is a better representation for this analysis.

Figure 2: API4 thermal coal 12-month forward price differential to spot price in US\$ 2003-10. Source: McCloskey.

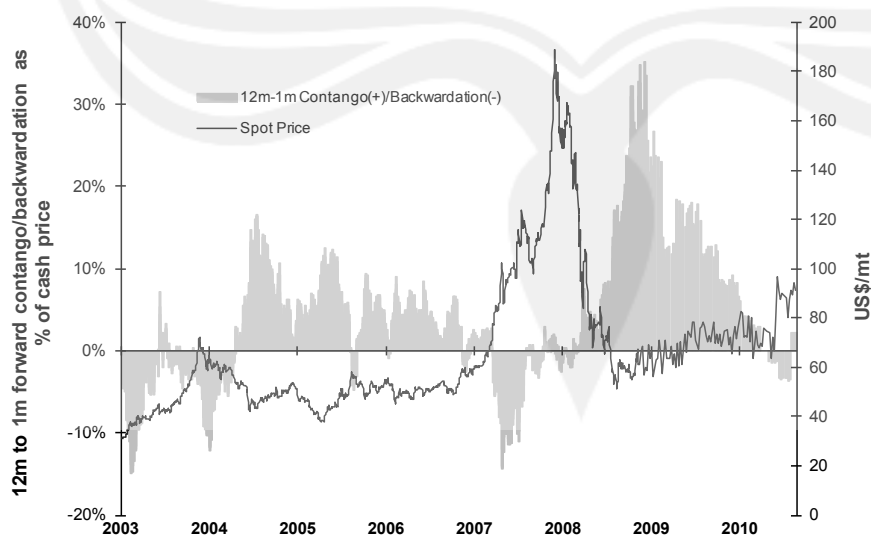


Figure 2 shows the contango(+)/backwardation(-) relationship against spot prices from 2003-2011. The 12m rate is used here as a proxy for the longer end of the curve (12-month and 24-month forward prices are highly correlated: > 0.89 over 2003-2011) and the 24-month tenor contracts were relatively illiquid prior to 2005.

If the convenience yield is high enough, the observed forward price will be less than the spot price. This occurs quite frequently in oil and gas markets where the premium for immediacy is very real. If however, this relationship does not hold and the forward price is much higher than spot when taking into account high working capital costs (funding and storage), the convenience yield converges to zero.

In addition to the cost-of-carry theory, Brennan (1958) established an equilibrium model for commodity inventories which assumes that the marginal convenience value of a good is a decreasing function of its aggregate inventory in the economy. Brennan therefore suggests a negative relationship between convenience yield and stock levels, which has been verified empirically for some commodities (Fama and French, 1988; Gibson and Schwartz, 1990; Modjtahedi and Movassagh, 2005) and will be tested for the bulk commodity markets in the following analysis.

THE MODEL

Let $F(t, T)$ be the forward price at time t for delivery of the commodity at time T and let $S(t)$ be the spot price. According to the theory of storage under an arbitrage-free framework the return from purchasing the commodity at t and selling it for delivery at T , $F(t, T) - S(t)$, will equal the net cost of holding the commodity computed as the interest forgone during storage $S(t)R(t, T)$ plus the marginal storage cost $W(t, T)$ minus the marginal convenience yield $C(t, T)$:

$$F(t, T) - S(t) = S(t)R(t, T) + W(t, T) - C(t, T). \quad (1)$$

This notation follows Fama and French (1987). In a normal market forward prices should exceed spot prices by an amount that is equivalent to interest costs and storage costs and any deviation from this is explained via the so-called convenience yield. This quantity is a marginal spread component which can be modeled as an option on a positive spread between spot and forward prices.

The forward price at date t is determined by current storage levels and the expected demand and production levels at T . When the market experiences higher demand or reduced supply, storage falls to zero. If production at T is known with certainty then we expect a direct but negative relationship between the forward price and storage levels which sets an upper bound for the forward price. When supply and demand is in perfect equilibrium we expect the convenience yield to equal zero however when equation (1) holds we obtain $C(t, T) > 0$. A temporary shock in demand or supply conditions during the business cycle will cause a change in storage levels which in turn affects the spot price. This will give rise to a risk premium for possession of the commodity resulting in a positive convenience yield.

Fama and French (1988) consider the behavior of the convenience yield on an interest-adjusted basis which avoids the need to directly estimate the convenience yield. But this approach fails to provide a complete picture of the true convenience yield. For thermal coal, the storage cost implied in (1) is not difficult to estimate and so observing the true convenience yield is feasible. Using the alternative approach of Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) who treat the convenience yield as an option, we set the spot price as the underlying variable and the price of a 3-month forward contract as the exercise price. Under a

cost-of-carry framework with zero storage cost, the convenience yield is the difference between the net cost of carrying a nearby and a distant futures contract observed at time 0,

$$CY(0, T) = \text{Max}(F(0, t) - F(t, T), 0). \quad (2)$$

The convenience yield from t to T observed at 0 at the commencement of the business cycle ignores the cost of storage. Therefore including the storage cost $W(t, T)$ permits equation (2) to be defined as

$$CY(0, T) = \text{Max}(F^*(0, t) - F(t, T), 0). \quad (3)$$

where $F^*(0, t) = F(0, t) + W(0, T)$ assuming $t = 0$.

Since both the spot price and the forward price (exercise price) are stochastic we assume they both follow standard diffusion processes which can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} dF(0, t) &= \mu_{1m}F(0, t)dt + \sigma_{1m}F(0, t)dz_{1m}, \\ dF(t, T) &= \mu_{3m}F(t, T)dt + \sigma_{3m}F(t, T)dz_{3m}, \end{aligned}$$

where the subscripts $1m$ and $3m$ represent the 1- and 3-month tenor for each forward contract respectively. We make the important assumption that the diffusion terms dz_t are uncorrelated. The associated boundary condition is defined as

$$F(0, t)\text{Max}(F_T - 1, 0), \quad (4)$$

where $F_T = F^*(0, t)/F(t, T)$. Applying Ito's lemma yields the following closed form solution

$$CY(0, T) = F^*(0, t)N(d_1) - F(t, T)N(d_2), \quad (5)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} d_1 &= \frac{\ln(F_T) + \sigma_c^2\tau/2}{\sigma_c\sqrt{\tau}}, \\ d_2 &= d_1 - \sigma_c\sqrt{\tau} = \frac{\ln(F_T) - \sigma_c^2\tau/2}{\sigma_c\sqrt{\tau}}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\sigma_c^2 = \sigma_{F^*(0,t)}^2 + 2\sigma_{F^*(0,t)}\sigma_{F(t,T)}\rho_{F^*(0,t)F(t,T)} + \sigma_{F(t,T)}^2, \quad (6)$$

where σ_i is the volatility of each forward contract i , ρ_{ij} is the correlation coefficient of both forward contracts and τ is the period between the 1-month and the 3-month contracts. This derivation relies on the price of a traded asset as the strike price which resolves the unknown variable problem of the option approach (Lin and Duan, 2007).

RESULTS

We use the 1-month API4 price to represent the spot price of thermal coal since it is the nearest contract for delivery. The 3-month forward API4 price is used to represent the forward price as it is the forward contract with the highest liquidity. For the risk-free rate we use 3-month US Treasury bill yields. We obtained actual storage costs at Richard's Bay Coal Terminal (RBCT) for the storage cost component of the model. We also make a quality adjustment to the coal at a depletion rate of 120kcal/kg per 3-month period, which acts as a linear price discount for a parcel of coal. No other quality adjustments were made. A non-zero storage cost does not greatly alter the observed behavior in the implied convenience yield curve over time, since storage fees are a small portion of the total cost of thermal coal (US\$2-3/t annually).

Convenience yields are calculated on a daily basis throughout the observation month and then averaged over each month. We calculate the monthly convenience yields from January to December and use July, when spot prices peak, as the shock month to estimate convenience yields. We apply a simple regression analysis to examine the relationship between convenience yields and inventory levels, covariance and interest rates and the convenience yield computed using the option formulation of equation (5) and the convenience yield computed using the traditional cost of carry formulation of equation (1). The regression equations are

$$CY_{t,T}^{Option} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 I_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t, \quad (7)$$

$$CY_{t,T}^{CoC} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 I_{t-1} + \beta_2 \sigma_{c,t}^2 + \beta_3 r f_t + \varepsilon_t, \quad (8)$$

where I_{t-1} is the one-month lagged inventory level, σ_c^2 is the covariance of the spot and forward contract prices as per equation (6) and $r f_t$ is the risk-free rate at time t . The theory of storage suggests that holding inventory becomes more costly during periods of high interest rates and therefore, convenience yields should be positively related to the risk-free rate as well as the covariance of the spot and forward prices.

Table 1 presents the convenience yields calculated based on the call option $CY_{t,T}^{Option}$ and cost-of-carry $CY_{t,T}^{CoC}$ models. The results show that the values of the convenience yields estimated from the options model are higher than those from the cost-of-carry model, implying the strategic and management flexibility valued using the options approach.

These results give support to the hypothesis of Brennan (1958) and suggest that the convenience yield is highest when inventories are low. That is to say, the benefit of holding inventories is greatest during periods of relative scarcity or heightened demand. In efficient pure contango markets the convenience yield should be close to zero. If inventory levels are small relative to the amount consumed of the commodity, the risk of a supply shock raises the convenience yield. If such risks are high enough, it is expected that the forward market will revert to a backwardated market, often suddenly. Under such conditions, it is also possible that arbitrage conditions may weaken or may even break down. It is incorrect to assume, out of context, that rising inventories means an overhang of supply that translates into lower prices until the market clears. Note that forward markets are priced on the principle of equivalence. In a perfectly balanced market, a consumer is indifferent between buying a physical commodity now and storing it for later consumption, and buying it for future delivery and letting the producer pay for the storage costs.

Table 1: Linear regression of convenience yields for thermal coal (API4) computed using the options estimate and the cost of carry estimate on inventory, volatility and the risk-free rate by month 2004-10. t-statistics in parentheses, * denotes significance at the 1 percent level.

Month	Model	β_0	β_1	β_2	β_3	Adj R^2	F
Jan	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.054 (0.554)	-0.017 (-0.017)			0.300	46.780
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.148* (10.866)	-0.009* (-2.116)	2.245* (6.088)	-0.006* (-3.453)	0.315	17.409
Feb	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.042* (5.633)	-0.010* (-3.580)			0.099	12.818
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.123* (17.281)	-0.009* (-3.274)	1.150* (4.283)	-0.003* (-2.679)	0.304	16.579
Mar	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.012* (3.930)	-0.013* (-3.199)			0.079	10.233
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.125* (18.829)	-0.003* (-10.194)	2.326* (9.220)	0.004* (6.782)	0.653	67.985
Apr	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.017* (6.919)	-0.015* (-5.836)			0.252	34.060
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.099* (12.972)	-0.009* (-10.730)	2.211* (3.333)	0.011* (15.299)	0.773	91.932
May	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.001 (0.888)	0.000 (-1.319)			0.004	1.158
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.167* (7.934)	-0.026* (-6.043)	7.107* (7.861)	0.014* (11.406)	0.589	51.681
Jun	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.027* (2.773)	-0.046* (-3.127)			0.112	9.406
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.114* (34.902)	-0.006* (-3.820)	4.331* (29.445)	0.004* (6.094)	0.947	63.253
Jul	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.074* (5.264)	-0.021* (-4.833)			0.170	23.360
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.056* (2.021)	0.010 (1.062)	1.089* (4.593)	0.006* (2.872)	0.148	7.330
Aug	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.026* (4.867)	-0.046* (-4.128)			0.127	17.038
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.073* (8.328)	-0.015* (-8.172)	4.852* (7.004)	0.029* (8.964)	0.431	28.718
Sep	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.011* (2.264)	-0.061* (-3.248)			0.091	7.062
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	-0.111* (-5.924)	0.017* (9.480)	-1.623* (-10.525)	0.007* (4.250)	0.853	75.776
Oct	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.022* (3.797)	-0.035* (-3.404)			0.106	11.585
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	-0.105* (-4.883)	0.018* (6.965)	6.881* (7.342)	-0.015* (-8.345)	0.488	29.225
Nov	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.059* (5.806)	-0.059* (-5.015)			0.186	25.149
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	0.269* (3.958)	-0.009* (-2.548)	-1.481* (-6.897)	0.004 (0.845)	0.356	20.540
Dec	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	0.015* (5.227)	-0.014* (-4.540)			0.156	20.611
	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$	-0.048* (-4.466)	0.015* (6.778)	1.553* (6.442)	0.017* (11.853)	0.737	99.975

This situation, also known as full carry, seldom applies in practice. The world's thermal coal consumers, mainly power producers, cannot afford to run out of inventory and they therefore pay for the 'convenience' of having excess supplies available. This yield can be viewed as the commodity buyer's insurance payment for supplies. It also represents the producer's cost of hedging by selling forward contracts for the commodity. For bulk commodities such as coal where the cheapest place of storage is generally with the producer, the convenience yield measure could be quite high.

Table 2 illustrates the convenience yields from the shock month of July to the final month of the cycle in November. The negative correlation between the convenience yield and the inventory level suggests that it is closely linked to business cycle, as the convenience yield is unrelated to the thermal coal stocks in Europe.

Table 2: Estimated convenience yields of holding period from the shock month of July to October (final month of the cycle) for 2004-10. t-statistics in parentheses, ** and * denotes significance at the 1 percent and 5 percent levels respectively.

Jul-Oct	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	$CY_{1m,3m}^{CoC}$
2004	0.07785	0.07101
2005	0.08735	0.08554
2006	0.11981	0.10407
2007	0.07554	0.07829
2008	0.02080	0.02515
2009	0.00729	0.02891
2010	0.06914	0.05949
Total	0.0654*	0.0646*
	(4.4478)	(5.8763)
Correlation ρ	-0.422**	-0.123*
p-value	<0.001	0.043

The theory of storage also predicts that, at a low inventory level, forward prices vary less than spot prices while at a high inventory level, spot prices and forward prices exhibit similar variability. Fama and French (1988) supported Samuelson's hypothesis by examining the interest-adjusted basis of base metals. The convenience yield declines at higher inventory levels and rises at low inventory levels. To test the Samuelson (1965) hypothesis, we adopt the same approach as Fama and French (1988) and perform a regression of forward prices against spot prices.

Next we conducted a regression of forward prices against spot prices using

$$\ln(F_{t,T}/F_{t-1,T-1}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(S_t/S_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t, \quad (9)$$

categorized by high and low convenience yields for both the full sample and also for the shock month (July) data. The data was split by periods of high convenience yield and low convenience yield and the regression analysis then applied to estimate the α_1 coefficients. Table 3 shows the results.

Table 3: Regression of forward prices against spot prices using $\ln(F_{t,T}/F_{t-1,T-1}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln(S_t/S_{t-1}) + \varepsilon_t$ split by high and low convenience yields for 2004-10 for the full sample and for the July data. t-statistics in parentheses, * denotes significance at the 1 percent level.

Sample	$CY_{1m,3m}^{Option}$ level	$\overline{CY}_{1m,3m}^{Option}$	α_1
Full	High	0.0572* (5.4199)	0.818* (2.7031)
	Low	0.0086* (3.4971)	0.9149* (42.557)
July as shock	High	0.0600* (4.3043)	0.765* (34.677)
	Low	0.0063* (5.5945)	0.9855* (89.026)

We find that high convenience yields have smaller average values for the coefficients while low convenience yields have average coefficient values close to one. This implies that at a low inventory level the spot price of thermal coal varies more than the forward price with a high convenience yield derived using the option model approach, while at high inventory levels the spot and forward price of thermal coal have similar variability with smaller convenience yields. These results are consistent with the hypothesis of Samuelson (1965) and the results of Fama and French (1988).

When contracts are far away from maturity they are thinly traded and exhibit low volatility. As the maturity nears, both trading volume and volatility increase. Specifically, spot contracts of thermal coal are usually used for balancing week-to-week needs and consequently exhibit high volatility. This result therefore suggests that the term structure of thermal coal forward volatility is monotonically decreasing.

CONCLUSION

We have shown that the convenience yield for thermal coal using an extended version of the Milonas and Thomadakis (1997) call option model (Lin and Duan, 2007) exhibits seasonality in the presence of the business cycle. The results show that the negative correlation between the convenience yields for API4 thermal coal and the inventory level at Richard's Bay becomes more significantly negative when examined during periods of high spot prices during the business cycle. This demonstrates that the timing of the business cycle is critical to the calculation of the thermal coal convenience yield. These results also indicate that while interest rates are affected by economic activity they in turn affect convenience yields of thermal coal. We find evidence that supports the Samuelson (1965) hypothesis that spot and forward price variations of thermal coal are similar when a supply shock occurs during higher inventory levels and that spot prices will be more variable than the forward prices at lower inventory levels. Deferred forward contracts are less volatile than near maturity contracts because as a contract draws nearer to maturity, producers and consumers are forced to react more quickly to information shocks and thus the term structure of thermal coal forward volatility is monotonically decreasing. Estimated convenience yields using the options approach are shown to be higher at low inventory levels than at higher inventory levels. Thermal coal producers clearly prefer to stockpile the commodity rather than adjust production in response to changes in demand which implies that the costs of storage are less than the operating costs associated with changes to production capacity.

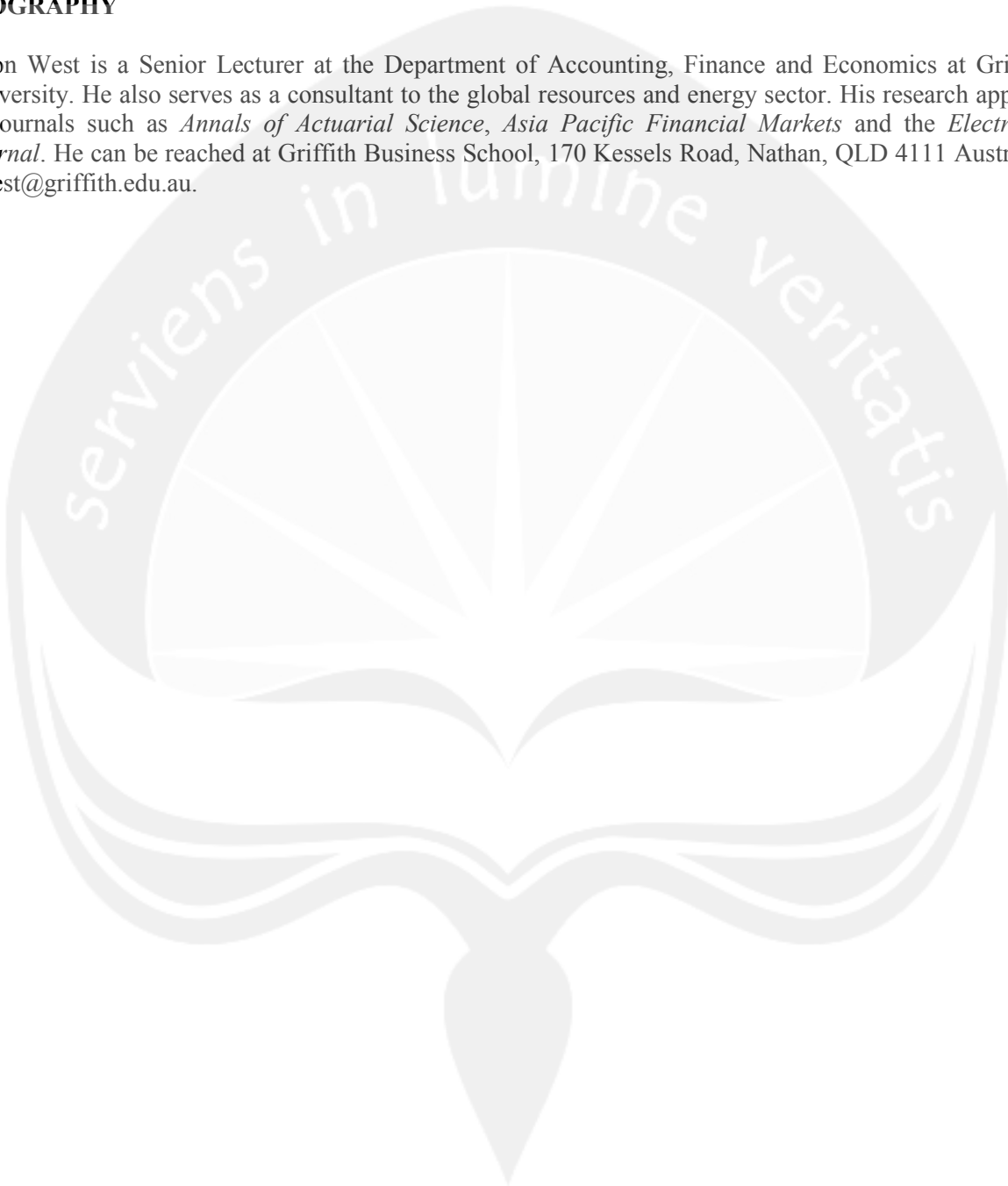
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BIOGRAPHY

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AN ANALYSIS OF FIRM CREDIT ACROSS THE WORLD

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ABSTRACT

We use the World Values data set to analyze firm's access to both trade and bank credit. There are substantial differences between and within countries, which remain significant even when we allow for firm and industry characteristics such as size, ownership, industrial sector, location, the firm's domestic orientation and managerial experience. Hence it would appear that some countries and some regions within countries have less developed credit systems. Regional variations are linked to variations in the courts and the transport and Internet infrastructure. We also present evidence that the market substitutes trade credit for bank credit.

JEL: G21, M2

KEYWORDS: trade credit, bank credit regional infrastructure, courts.

INTRODUCTION

The paper focuses on credit. We analyse both bank and trade credit, but particularly the former. It is based on more than 51,000 firms from 115 different 'countries' (The list is given in appendix. In reality there are less than 115 countries as some countries have been surveyed twice). Most of these will be developing countries, but the data also includes transition countries in Central and East Europe as well as some of the richer developing countries. This, as far as we are aware, is the first time such a large and diverse data base, covering so many countries has been used to analyse credit.

Credit access is a critical factor for the development of the market economy. Constrained access to credit, which may be particularly important for small firms, can present a serious problem for their development (Carpenter and Petersen, 2002, Hutchinson and Xavier, 2006). There are several kinds of credit, both formal from financial institutions, and less formal trade credit from supplier firms and customers. In this paper we will be examining the determinants of trade credit and also overdrafts and lines of credit from the banks. A line of credit is defined as an available amount of credit that the establishment can draw upon from an account up to a pre-approved limit. Lines of credit usually carry monthly interest rates, and tend to be repaid quickly. They may or may not have a defined date of expiration, but tend to be short-term. A line of credit may take several forms such as cash credit, demand loan, export packing credit, term loan, discounting or purchase of commercial bills etc. To a large extent an overdraft is simply a specific form of a line of credit, but one which tends to carry a high rate of interest.

The paper will proceed as follows. In the next section we will review the literature and then specify a functional form which will form the basis of the estimation. This empirical analysis will be based on a recent sample of firms from the World Bank's Enterprise Surveys. In section 4 we describe this data and then in section 5 present the empirical results. Finally we conclude the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature has concentrated on identifying differences between firms in their access to credit and also on differences between geographical regions and countries. Not all firms need or want credit. Rodriguez-Rodriguez (2006) concludes that firms in the hospitality sector make less use of trade credit and those in industry and construction use it most and these results are probably linked to 'need'. Nadiri (1969), Ferris (1981) and Emery (1987) argue that transaction costs for the debtor are reduced considerably with immediate payment on delivery. But this is not possible for all firms in all industries, i.e. some firms need credit. A key factor in obtaining it is the ability to reduce the degree of informational asymmetry between potential creditor and debtor. Because of this the creditor needs to evaluate in some way, the credit worthiness of the potential debtor who in turn needs to signal credit worthiness. Thus, access to credit may be denied because of high fixed costs in evaluating creditworthiness, particularly for small firms (Zecchini and Ventura, 2009).

Two factors serve to facilitate credit in the presence of asymmetric information, one is equity or collateral (Hubbard and Kashyap, 1992), the second is reputation (Diamond, 1989). Collateral can lessen credit rationing and borrowing costs. Berger and Udell (1995) focus on collateral in the context of commitment loans, i.e. overdrafts. Cressy and Toivanen (2001) emphasise that collateral can be particularly important with respect to unlisted firms. But if the small firm, particularly a small new firm, has no collateral or the legal system is inadequate to protect creditors' rights, problems may remain. Small firms often do not have audited accounts and thus formal debt covenants linked to financial ratios are costly to write and enforce (Ortiz-Molina and Penas, 2008). Similarly, Hutchinson and Xavier (2006) found that new firms and firms with long term debt and SMEs were most constrained and faced large difficulties in accessing external sources of financing.

To an extent the relationship between creditor and debtor is based on a degree of trust and the greater is this, the lower are potential evaluation costs. Trust can be built up over time and in part may be based on the information the creditor gains about the debtor (Lapavitsas, 2007). Ortiz-Molina and Penas (2008) also conclude that the evidence is that stronger relationships increase credit availability and reduce collateral requirements. To the extent that these relationships are linked to distance, we would expect these to be weakest in rural areas. Carling and Lundberg (2005) refer to this as the 'church tower principle', reflective of the bank as the church tower, which can observe firms in its proximity. In the context of bank lending, information relevant for screening and monitoring firms may be more difficult to come by for the more distant firms. As a consequence banks should reflect this in more strenuous standards in assessing the creditworthiness of distant firms. However, their empirical results gave no support for the existence of geographical credit rationing on behalf of the bank.

There is support in the literature for the substitutability of trade credit and institutional credit. Atanasova (2007), e.g., confirmed the hypothesis that trade credit is taken up by firms as a substitute for institutional finance at the margin when they are credit constrained. Love, Preve and Sarria-Allende (2007), Valverde and del Paso (2009) and Mateut, Bougheas and Mizen (2006) all report results which support this possibility. Rodriguez-Rodriguez (2006) also argued that difficulties in accessing institutional finance may be compensated for by the greater use of trade credit, although it tends to be more expensive than other forms of institutional credit due to the high risk of non-payment. Smith (1987), Petersen and Rajan (1997) and Burkart and Ellingsen (2004), amongst others, argue that there is a link between trade credit and informational asymmetry. That is, a firm's suppliers may have an informational advantage over banks when assessing credit risk and also in clearing merchandise in the event of non-payment of debt.

In her empirical analysis of trade credit, Rodriguez-Rodriguez (2006) used profit (the more profitable the firm, the less likely it is to resort to trade credit), size, bank credit and industry sectors as explanatory factors in determining access to trade credit. The relevance of sectors is based in part on the advantage of firms over financial institutions in claiming back supplied intermediate goods in case of customer default. This possibility will vary across sectors depending upon the type of goods being supplied and their transformation by the customer (Petersen and Rajan, 1997). The age of the firm was also included in the analysis with the expectation that younger firms would experience the most difficulty in accessing bank funding. Most analyses find age to be significant in part because informational asymmetry tends to decline with age. Niskanen and Niskanen (2006) in their study of Finish firms found creditworthiness and access to capital markets to be important determinants of trade credit extended by sellers to small firms in a bank-dominated environment. Larger and older firms, and firms with strong internal financing are less likely to use trade credit, whereas firms with a high ratio of current assets to total assets, and firms subject to loan restructurings are more prone to using trade credit.

There has been some analysis of regional differences in access to bank credit, but much less on trade credit. Roberts and Fishkind (1979) put forward several reasons for regional segmentation of bank credit markets. Firstly, the transaction costs of acquiring information about credit markets outside a region which would impact on isolated regions in particular. Secondly, non-homogeneity of regional assets making evaluation difficult. Finally, regional differences in liquidity preferences and risk aversion. Moore and Hill (1982) also pointed to differences in regional resources as a determinant of supply side credit availability. Rodriguez-Fuentes (1998) in an analysis of Spain concluded that banks may influence regional development by providing a regional pattern of credit availability that is likely to be spatially unbalanced.

SPECIFYING A FUNCTIONAL FORM

A firm will access a particular type of credit if the benefits outweigh the costs:

$$B_{ij}(C_{ij}^*) > R_{ij}(C_{ij}^*) + TC_{ij}(C_{ij}^*) \quad (1)$$

Where C_{ij}^* represents the optimal amount of credit for the i 'th firm to obtain from the j 'th creditor. The benefits (B) relate to the increase in profits the credit can generate. These will vary from industry to industry and in particular relate to the production lead time, i.e. the time between starting production and receiving payment. For example, in the case of restaurants, the production lead time is relatively small and the gap between buying food and receiving payment from the customer is generally less than a week. Firms in other industries face more substantial problems. The lag, e.g. for the construction industry can be substantial, particular with respect to house building. The costs in equation (1) fall into two kinds. Firstly the repayment costs (R), which is basically the interest rate together with the amount of credit (C^*), and secondly the transaction costs (TC) of acquiring a loan. The 'interest rate' may be implicit as in trade credit, or more explicit as with a bank loan. The transaction costs are in part incurred during the process of providing the information to the potential creditor that they are credit worthy. These costs need to be incurred whether or not credit is given and the possibility that credit may not be granted may make firms reluctant to apply for credit in the first place.

The transaction costs relating to a specific credit type will be a function of the firm's characteristics, i.e. age, size and assets, the sector it operates in and the amount the creditor could recover in the event of loan

default. The latter will depend upon the sector, the country's legal system and the rule of law and also the firm's assets and possibly legal form. The transaction costs might also, on the church tower principal, depend upon location, i.e. whether the firm is located in a large town or city or a rural area. Asset values may also vary spatially. Repayment costs are likely to vary with firm and sector characteristics and the benefits of credit will relate to the firm's need. The latter will be proxied by sector and also by ownership, with firms who are part of a group, either domestic or multinational, possibly less likely to need credit. We assume that the probability of accessing multiple credit sources, and hence any single form of credit, will increase with firm size and the amount of credit being sought. This is because the fixed, transaction costs of applying for credit will become relatively less important compared to the marginal cost as the amount being applied for increases. Given this, it might seem unlikely that a firm would seek multiple sources of credit. The fixed transaction costs will have to be incurred for each potential creditor and if the firm just has one source of credit they will need to apply only once (This ignores the fact that trade credit is likely to be from multiple sources.) Yet we know that firms do have multiple credit sources and in particular that this is the case for the firms in our sample. There are two possible explanations. Firstly, the repayment costs may increase with the amount borrowed as this represents increased risk to the creditor and increased likelihood of default. Secondly, the firm may wish to diversify the risk of losing a credit source by accessing multiple credit sources.

One way of approaching the analysis is to assume that all firms can obtain credit from any source, provided they can meet the costs, but for some firms who have difficulty signalling creditworthiness, this may not be the case. Our functional form will be similar to that used by others in the literature. However, the literature has emphasized that different sources of credit may be substitutable. In particular a firm which cannot get credit from a bank may resort to trade credit. This too is clearly implicit in our analysis, albeit within the context of high transaction costs for acquiring bank credit driving firms to trade credit, where the transaction costs may be lower as suggested in the literature, but the interest payments substantially higher. This raises estimation problems as decisions to access different credit modes are jointly endogenous. Thus we will approach the issue of credit type substitutability in a different way, i.e. from a regional perspective. For example, if bank credit is relatively prevalent in a locality then this should lower the transaction costs of acquiring bank credit in that locality, in part because bankers will have experience in evaluating credit worthiness of local firms and perhaps also in recovering assets in the case of default. This should impact upon the probability of any one firm acquiring bank credit and, if the substitutability argument is valid, *reduce the probability of accessing trade credit*. Thus in addition to firm characteristics, as outlined above, and sector and country fixed effects, we will also include regional credit characteristics in the analysis. We only include regional access to bank credit and not trade credit. In part it is likely to be the former which drives the latter, i.e. trade credit will respond to a lack of bank credit. But in part too, the data on trade credit is not as full in its coverage as that for bank credit.

More generally we also anticipate regional differences in the credit structure due to differences in accessing information which may vary with regional characteristics such as population density and regional history. Specifically we will include information on regional infrastructure, both physical linked to transport and electronic linked to communication. Finally, it is important to stress that the foundation for credit is trust, albeit trust conditioned with caution, and it is possible for trust to differ also between regions and not simply between countries. To an extent trust is fostered by a sound legal system where agents will have confidence that contracts will be enforced. Hence we will also include information on regional qualities of courts.

THE DATA

In the empirical analysis, we use the data from the World Bank's Enterprise Surveys (More information is available and the data accessible at <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/>). These are off 55,284 firms across the world, although not all the firms have data suitable for analysis. The surveys were carried out between 2006 and 2010 and some countries will have been surveyed twice in this period. The surveys are targeted at establishments with five or more full time employees. Geographical distribution is defined to reflect the distribution of the non-agricultural economic activity of the country and for most countries this implies including the major urban centers.

The survey provides information about a country's business environment, how it is perceived by individual firms, and about the various constraints to firm performance and growth. Firms were asked about their access to sources of external financing, including overdraft facilities, whether they had a line of credit or a loan from a financial institution and the availability of trade credit in the previous fiscal year. The trade credit variable related to the proportion of the establishment's working capital that was financed from suppliers' credit and advances from customers. However, this data is not available for all the respondents as was largely the case with bank credit. In addition to the responses of the firms we were able to calculate from the data regional variables which, for the i 'th firm, for instance, relate to the proportion of firms, *other than the i 'th firm*, in the region who have access to different types of credit. This is based on 474 regions in the 166 countries. As mentioned earlier, we will also include other regional variables. These will relate to transport and electronic infrastructure and the perceived qualities of the court system. If these do factors do not vary within countries, but only between them, then the regional variables will not be significant, as the country dummy variables will capture this impact. All the data are defined in an appendix.

Table 1: Regional Credit Variations

	<i>Line of credit</i>	<i>Overdraft</i>	<i>Supplier credit</i>
Full sample	41.1	44.4	14.8
Sub Saharan Africa (SSA)	20.8	29.4	15.9
Latin America & Caribbean (LAC)	56.3	67.5	19.2
East European Central Asia (ECA)	48.2	42.1	6.74
South Asia (SA)	28.2	41.2	3.61
East Asia and Pacific (ESP)	37.6	19.4	5.12
Middle East& N. Africa (MEA)	12.2	17.0	10.2

Notes: The numbers in the first two columns relate to the percentage having access to the specified type of credit. The final column shows the average (with most responding 0) amount of supplier credit as a proportion of the firm's working capital. For supplier credit, there were relatively few observations available for ECA. An alternative, more widely asked (for ECA), question asked whether they were given trade credit, of which 63.4% replied yes.

Table 1 shows credit access for all firms in each region. There are substantial differences between these regions. The region where credit is most abundant is LAC, followed by ECA and the rest of Asia. However, supplier credit tends to be in short supply in all regions of Asia. This may reflect cultural attitudes and differing levels of trust. Asia apart, there tends to be slightly less variation in supplier credit than bank credit.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

The regression results are shown in Table 2. The first two and penultimate two columns were estimated by binomial probit as the dependent variable takes a value of either zero or one. The third and final columns

have been estimated by Tobit as this variable has a lower bound of zero and an upper one of 100, with both being effective. We have used the robust or sandwich estimator of the standard errors. This estimator is robust to some types of misspecification so long as the observations are independent. Because they are continuous variables covering a fairly wide range, all the regional variables have been included in a quadratic manner, with both the variable and its square. This allows the relationship to be nonlinear and this was also the case for domestic share. For the firm's age, a similar result was achieved by including the log of age.

It is clear that firms' access to credit is at least partially determined systematically by their characteristics and those of their industry. The first column relates to lines of credit. Foreign firms are less likely to access a line of credit as are small and then medium sized firms. Age, however is not significant. Of critical importance is whether the firm is an exporter or not. Access to lines of credit increase with the domestic share of the firm, although at a declining rate. Company legal form also has an impact on access to credit, with private limited companies being more able to access credit and sole traders less likely than other firms. Finally access to credit increases with managerial experience. Geography too is important. Lines of credit are *more likely* in rural areas than large cities. There is some evidence that industrial sector has an impact on firms' access to credit with hotels, e.g., less likely to have access to lines of credit. We defer discussion of the impact of the regional variables until later.

The second column shows the results for overdrafts. To a considerable extent the results are similar to those for lines of credit, but there are differences. Firstly, age is now very significant and the probability of accessing an overdraft increases nonlinearly with the firm's age. Firms in rural areas are not more likely to access overdrafts, but those in towns are less likely. Foreign firms are not significantly different to other firms, but group firms are more likely to access an overdraft. Finally we turn to the results for supplier credit. Once more we focus on the differences with respect to column 1.

Managerial experience is no longer significant and size is considerably less significant. In particularly medium sized firms are no less likely to have trade credit than large firms. Age is, however, again significant, with supplier credit increasing with the firm's age. Hence there is some evidence that some firms who are disadvantaged in terms of accessing formal credit, are not so disadvantaged in accessing supplier credit. We turn now to the regional variables. As the problems caused to firms by the courts increase regionally, so access to credit declines but at a declining rate. However, this is compensated for by opposite patterns with respect to overdrafts and supplier credit.

Figure 1 illustrates these impacts, together with the kernel density for regional courts. The probability of accessing a lines of credit declines initially as the 'regional courts' variable increases, but then increases. The latter may simply be because we are using a quadratic form and, as the kernel density shows, there are not many firms to the right of the turning point. This decline in the probability of accessing lines of credit is compensated for by increases in the probability of accessing overdraft facilities and supplier credit.

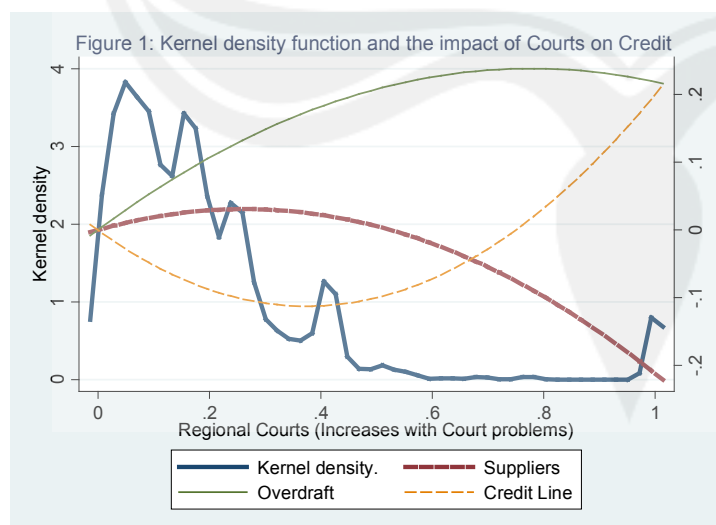
Table 2: Regression Analysis of Access to Credit

	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6
<i>Regional Variables</i>	Credit Line	Overdraft	Supplier credit	Credit Line	Overdraft	Supplier credit
Courts	-0.5996* (2.35)	0.6127* (2.38)	97.68** (7.96)	-0.7147** (2.79)	0.2943 (1.12)	104.4** (8.46)
Transport	-0.1796* (2.27)	-0.0952 (1.15)	6.787 (1.91)	-0.1177 (1.50)	-0.017 (0.21)	4.66 (1.28)
Electronic communication	0.4257* (2.18)	1.673** (8.61)	-74.17** (9.36)	-0.2425 (1.17)	0.5101* (2.43)	-47.66** (5.37)
Courts ²	0.7995* (2.09)	-0.394 (1.01)	-186.4** (9.47)	0.9354* (2.43)	-0.0154 (0.04)	-194.3** (9.84)
Transport ²	0.0405 (1.57)	0.0094 (0.34)	-3.223** (3.06)	0.0254 (1.00)	-0.0103 (0.39)	-2.559* (2.35)
Electronic communication ²	-0.3952* (2.05)	-1.607** (8.15)	78.19** (9.21)	0.1692 (0.83)	-0.6332** (3.00)	52.80** (5.65)
Bank credit				1.814** (6.43)	2.689** (9.32)	-73.78** (6.88)
Bank credit ²				-0.7635** (3.04)	-0.8975** (3.45)	57.3** (5.22)
<i>Firm Specific Variables</i>						
Managerial experience	0.0014* (2.25)	0.0016* (2.40)	0.0171 (0.58)	0.0014* (2.16)	0.0015* (2.19)	0.0207 (0.70)
Domestic share	0.0154** (11.62)	0.0108** (7.85)	0.3961** (6.26)	0.0152** (11.51)	0.0105** (7.62)	0.402** (6.35)
Domestic share ²	-0.00014** (12.50)	-0.00011** (9.01)	-0.0031** (5.80)	-0.00014** (12.38)	-0.00011** (8.76)	-0.0032** (5.89)
Log firm age	0.0176 (1.80)	0.0753** (7.43)	1.527** (3.32)	0.0159 (1.63)	0.0734** (7.22)	1.522** (3.30)
Small firm	-0.7656** (38.08)	-0.6899** (33.02)	-4.976** (5.13)	-0.7641** (37.97)	-0.6894** (32.91)	-4.947** (5.10)
Medium sized firm	-0.3284** (17.70)	-0.2567** (13.21)	-0.522 (0.60)	-0.330** (17.78)	-0.2597** (13.32)	-0.4756 (0.54)
Rural firm	0.0827** (2.65)	-0.0395 (1.22)	2.526 (0.93)	0.0729* (2.33)	-0.0576 (1.77)	2.983 (1.10)
Town based firm	0.0248 (1.18)	-0.0586** (2.60)	1.628 (1.26)	0.0267 (1.27)	-0.0544* (2.42)	1.193 (0.92)
No Location	-0.1684** (5.37)	-0.1436** (4.36)	-4.554** (3.17)	-0.1354** (4.25)	-0.0841* (2.51)	-4.533** (3.14)
Foreign firm	-0.2734** (12.16)	0.0131 (0.58)	2.144* (2.23)	-0.2723** (12.11)	0.0145 (0.65)	2.167* (2.25)
Group firm	-0.0337 (1.77)	0.0639** (3.29)	-0.9851 (1.20)	-0.0349 (1.83)	0.0639** (3.29)	-0.8763 (1.07)
<i>Company Form</i>	-0.0232 (0.64)	0.025 (0.69)	-5.054** (3.31)	-0.0252 (0.70)	0.0242 (0.67)	-5.237** (3.42)
Partnership	0.0814** (3.49)	0.108** (4.34)	-2.939** (2.61)	0.0764** (3.27)	0.0994** (3.99)	-2.946** (2.61)
Private Ltd.	-0.0593 (1.70)	-0.0283 (0.77)	-7.227** (3.68)	-0.0632 (1.81)	-0.0393 (1.07)	-7.156** (3.65)
Publicly listed	-0.0636* (2.48)	-0.1585** (5.86)	-10.15** (8.23)	-0.0646* (2.52)	-0.1596** (5.90)	-10.20** (8.26)
Sole proprietor	0.1562** (4.28)	0.1369** (3.57)	-2.406 (1.43)	0.1528** (4.18)	0.1282** (3.33)	-2.407 (1.43)
<i>Industry/sector variables</i>						
Textiles	-0.3094 (1.01)	-0.0352 (0.11)	-3.96 (0.70)	-0.2953 (0.96)	-0.0283 (0.08)	-4.584 (0.81)
Food	0.2374** (8.49)	0.190** (6.57)	-7.817** (6.80)	0.2411** (8.61)	0.1949** (6.72)	-7.760** (6.74)
Metals	0.1683** (5.23)	0.204** (6.13)	-0.9936 (0.72)	0.1668** (5.18)	0.2005** (6.01)	-0.9512 (0.69)
Electronics	0.0487 (0.76)	0.1723** (2.59)	-4.323 (1.37)	0.0479 (0.75)	0.1729** (2.58)	-4.278 (1.35)
Chemicals	0.2581**	0.3104**	-2.474	0.2573**	0.3088**	-2.374

	(7.50)	(8.65)	(1.68)	(7.48)	(8.57)	(1.61)
Wood	0.132*	0.2222**	4.403	0.1325*	0.2188**	4.335
	(2.26)	(3.68)	(1.87)	(2.26)	(3.61)	(1.84)
Plastic	0.1679**	0.1982**	-2.603	0.1686**	0.1974**	-2.587
	(4.58)	(5.15)	(1.52)	(4.60)	(5.10)	(1.51)
Auto	0.2355*	0.1988	-13.85*	0.2269*	0.1799	-13.89*
	(2.14)	(1.52)	(2.47)	(2.06)	(1.38)	(2.48)
Other manufacturing	0.175**	0.2011**	0.3923	0.1775**	0.2061**	0.4797
	(6.12)	(6.81)	(0.34)	(6.20)	(6.96)	(0.41)
Retail	0.1945**	0.3181**	-3.590**	0.1952**	0.3208**	-3.503**
	(7.38)	(11.76)	(3.23)	(7.40)	(11.82)	(3.15)
Hotels	-0.1302**	0.0279	-19.26**	-0.1272**	0.03	-18.90**
	(2.85)	(0.63)	(10.91)	(2.78)	(0.67)	(10.70)
Other services	0.1277**	0.2424**	-12.92**	0.1284**	0.2441**	-12.85**
	(4.31)	(8.01)	(9.87)	(4.32)	(8.04)	(9.81)
Construction	0.1576**	0.2539**	-3.388*	0.1577**	0.2552**	-3.289*
	(4.58)	(7.30)	(2.13)	(4.58)	(7.32)	(2.07)
Observations	51180	51029	41417	51180	51029	41417
Log Likelihood	-27672	-25940	-96610	-27610	-25760	-96587
X ²	11225	13972		11251	14218	

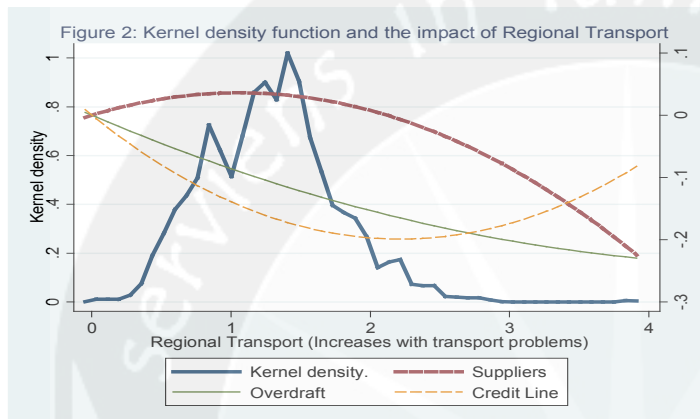
Note: The regression coefficients for 2.3 and 2.6 were estimated by Tobit with upper and lower bounds of 100 and 0 respectively. The remaining regressions were estimated using the method of binomial probit, (.) denotes t statistics and */** significance at the 5% and 1% levels respectively. X² denotes the likelihood ratio statistic. Standard errors have been corrected for heteroscedasticity.

This is reasonable as overdrafts are the most expensive form of bank credit (Streb et al, 2002) and of course, supplier credit, particularly from firms, tends to be more expensive still. Hence as the quality of courts decline, and the ability to enforce contracts also declines, so there is a switch from cheaper to more expensive forms of credits. However is this conclusion justified? The possibility exists that courts could pose problems for firms because *they are effective* in enforcing contracts, planning restrictions, and individual rights, that is ‘good courts’ theoretically pose problems for firms, just as much as ‘bad courts’. To examine this further we regressed, using binomial probit, individual attitudes to courts on perceptions as to whether the courts were (i) fair, impartial and uncorrupted (good courts), (ii) quick, (iii) affordable and (iv) able to enforce decisions (enforce). All four characteristics were significant, with enforce being most important, followed by quick, good and finally affordable. The signs were such that in all cases a lack of speed, inability to enforce decisions, etc, increased problems for firms. Hence, it would appear that the trends in Figure 1, correspond to courts which are poorly performing on a number of criteria.



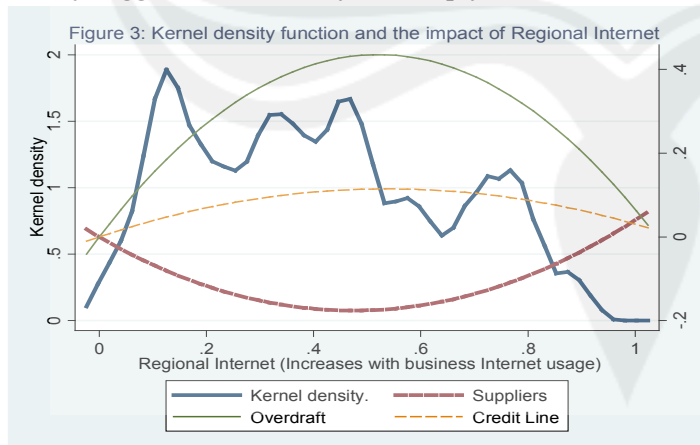
Note The curve for suppliers credit has been scaled so that it can be included in this figure with the other curves.

The impact of regional infrastructure is less ambiguous in its impact on bank credit. Both forms of credit decline as regional transport problems increase, with the two variables comprising the quadratic form, jointly significant at the 5% level in both equations. The impact on supplier credit is to an extent the reverse. Figure 2 shows these impacts. As regional transport problems become more common, so there is a decline in both types of bank credit, and again the turning point with respect to lines of credit may be a reflection of the use of a quadratic form. This decline is, however, compensated for by increased use of supplier and consumer credit. This is the first time we have evidence of a degree of substitutability between bank and other forms of credit.



Note The curve for suppliers credit has been scaled so that it can be included in this figure with the other curves.

Finally, for these regressions, we turn to the impact of regional electronic communication for business on the different forms of credit. These impacts are very significant. As Figure 3 shows, as regional business Internet usage becomes more common, so there is an increase in the probabilities of accessing both types of bank credit. This increase is, however, accompanied by a decline in the use of supplier and consumer credit. This again provides evidence of a degree of substitutability between bank and other forms of credit. However, we note that beyond a certain point supplier credit too begins to increase, and the kernel density suggests that this may not simply be because of the use of a quadratic form.



Note The curve for suppliers credit has been scaled so that it can be included in this figure with the other curves.

The final three set of regressions add regional bank credit to the regressions. This reflects for the i 'th firm, the proportion of firms other than the i 'th firm who had access to either an overdraft or line of credit. We can see from these regressions that the probability of a firm having access to either form of bank credit increases as bank credit becomes more common in the region. However, we also see that the probability of the firm accessing trade credit declines as regional bank credit becomes more common. This therefore provides further support for the substitutability of trade credit for bank credit.

CONCLUSION

Our analysis has shown that there are systematic differences within regions in terms of access to credit. These differences are related to the quality of courts, which we assume is because of their ability or otherwise to enforce contracts, and also to infrastructure. Faced with increasing difficulties of enforcing contracts banks are either switching to more expensive forms of loans or reducing the number and value of loans they give, with suppliers and consumers in part compensating with what is in effect trade credit. Good transport and Internet infrastructure facilitate a bank's ability to keep a watch over client firms, as well as the firm's ability to communicate with the bank. In the literature a form of this is known as the 'church tower principle', reflective of the bank as the church tower, which can observe firms in its proximity (Carling and Lundberg, 2005). We found no evidence for this within the context or the rural/urban distinction. But we have found evidence with respect to the quality of infrastructure. This emphasises that better quality transport and Internet can bring benefits to firms on several dimensions. Our results have also confirmed the findings of others with respect to the importance of firm size, age, legal form and sector for access to credit financing. In line with Rutkowski (2006) we found the evidence that foreign firms are less likely to access formal domestic credit markets, at least with respect to lines of credit. Thus, there is little evidence that they crowd out domestic firms from bank credit; indeed to an extent the reverse is the case.

In almost all countries, some regions lag behind others in terms of credit access. These regions too will be disadvantaged and this may lead to uneven geographical development. This is both consistent with and extends the work of Samolyk (1994) and Rodríguez-Fuentes (1998) who suggest that banks may influence regional development by producing a regional pattern of credit availability that is likely to be spatially unbalanced. But we have also shown that the problem is not just with bank credit, but also trade credit. There are also substantial differences between countries, and between different regions of the world. This may be due to economic factors reflecting the stage of the development of firms or of the financial system. There are several reasons as to why credit access may differ within and between countries. Firstly, some countries may be more prosperous than others. This may affect both firms' prospects and local supply side credit conditions. Differences in trust and the difficulties in evaluating firms' creditworthiness may also be an explanatory factor. Trust can be generated over time and is also self-perpetuating in that trust generates credit, credit facilitates economic success and this in turn increases trust. But whatever the cause of low credit availability, for the country as a whole and regions within the country, a key question is whether governments and aid agencies can start the process.

APPENDICE

Appendix 1: Definition of variables:

Endogenous variables	
Access to Credit:	Coded 1 if the firm has access to credit otherwise zero. There are two different types of credit: line of credit and bank overdraft.
Supplier credit:	The proportion of the establishment's working capital that was financed from advances from customers and credit from suppliers.
Exogenous variables	
<i>Regional variables These are averages of the views of firms with respect to:</i>	
Electronic communication (internet)	Binary variable, coded 1 if the firm used the Internet to communicate with clients or suppliers.
Transport	The extent to which transport presented an obstacle to the firm, responses ranged from no obstacle (coded 1) to very severe obstacle (coded 5).
Courts:	Whether the courts posed a major or severe problem to the firm's operations (coded 1)
Bank credit:	Whether the firm had a bank line of either kind.
Firm specific variables	
Age	The age of the firm.
Small firm	Coded 1 if the number of full time employees is less than 20, otherwise Coded zero.
Medium sized firm	Coded 1 if the number of full time employees is between 20 and 100, otherwise Coded zero.
Partnership	Coded 1 if the firm has the legal status of a partnership, otherwise Coded zero.
Private limited company	Coded 1 if the firm is a private limited company, otherwise takes a value of zero.
Publicly listed company	Coded 1 if the firm is a publicly listed company, otherwise takes a value of zero.
Sole proprietor	Coded 1 if the firm has the legal status of a sole proprietor, otherwise Coded zero.
Group firm	Coded 1 if the firm is part of a larger firm, otherwise Coded zero.
Foreign firm	Coded 1 if the share of the company held by foreign individuals or companies > 49%, otherwise Coded zero.
Rural	Coded 1 if the firm's location has less than 50,000 people
Town	Coded 1 if the firm's location has between 50,000 and 1 million people (and is not a capital city)
No location	The location question was not asked of all firms. This variable takes a value of 1 for those not asked. Its use ensures that the coefficients relating to rural and town are in relation to larger towns and cities.
Domestic share	The % of the firm's sales which were national sales.
Manager's experience:	The number of years experience working in the sector of the top

In addition there are industry/sector and country indicator variables as discussed in the text.

Appendix 2: Summary of country data

Country/year of survey	Overdraft	Credit Line	Supplier credit
Afghanistan2008	0.363	0.034	3.72
Albania2007	0.78	0.474	2.09
Angola2006	0.017	0.045	10.7
Angola2010	0.117	0.094	2.22
Argentina2006	0.706	0.420	19.5
Argentina2010	0.800	0.578	26.8
Armenia2009	0.425	0.449	.
Azerbaijan2009	0.161	0.189	.
Bangladesh2007	.	.	3.67
Belarus2008	0.374	0.538	.
Benin2009	0.613	0.393	7.5
Bhutan2009	0.544	0.528	6.63
Bolivia2006	0.434	0.550	12.7
Bolivia2010	0.564	0.558	16
Bosnia and Herzegovina2009	0.510	0.684	.
Botswana2006	0.364	0.307	25.2
Botswana2010	0.537	0.515	14
Brazil2009	0.826	0.653	20.3
Bulgaria2007	0.344	0.435	3.29
Bulgaria2009	0.295	0.448	.
BurkinaFaso2006	0.374	0.295	14.3

BurkinaFaso2009	0.563	0.284	7.45
Burundi2006	0.256	0.348	10.4
Cameroon2006	0.412	0.419	16.1
Cameroon2009	0.559	0.344	15.6
CapeVerde2006	0.153	0.469	5.48
CapeVerde2009	0.301	0.385	9.31
Chad2009	0.740	0.187	7.64
Chile2006	0.869	0.737	15.8
Chile2010	0.855	0.766	22.6
Colombia2006	0.858	0.682	21.3
Colombia2010	0.854	0.732	35.3
Congo2009	0.497	0.106	8.47
Croatia2007	0.523	0.706	14.7
Czech Republic2009	0.536	0.492	.
DRC2006	0.050	0.059	15
DRC2010	0.145	0.131	5.13
Ecuador2006	0.853	0.581	24.3
Ecuador2010	0.913	0.609	26.7
ElSalvador2006	0.597	0.618	12.7
Eritrea2009	0.358	0.162	0
Estonia2009	0.495	0.560	.
Fiji2009	0.573	0.409	6.98
Fyr Macedonia2009	0.270	0.596	.
Gabon2009	0.156	0.089	1.92
Gambia2006	0.310	0.167	34.8
Georgia2008	0.295	0.413	.
Ghana2007	0.154	0.186	18.3
Guatemala2006	0.523	0.435	16.7
Guinea2006	0.086	0.058	21.1
GuineaBissau2006	0.013	0.031	8.52
Honduras2006	0.599	0.539	9.55
Hungary2009	0.488	0.454	.
Indonesia2009	0.120	0.260	2.9
Ivory Coast2009	0.243	0.116	3.15
Kazakhstan2009	0.285	0.406	.
Kenya2007	0.416	0.414	24.5
Kosovo2009	0.367	0.233	.
Kyrgyz Republic2009	0.264	0.234	.
LaoPDR2009	0.089	0.175	0.529
Latvia2009	0.258	0.601	.
Lesotho2009	0.444	0.285	15.1
Liberia2009	0.093	0.207	4.51
Lithuania2009	0.207	0.601	.
Madagascar2009	0.362	0.218	14
Malawi2009	0.553	0.400	10
Mali2007	0.088	0.082	13.5
Mali2010	0.456	0.158	5.05
Mauritania2006	0.160	0.148	21.8
Mauritius2009	0.626	0.520	6.29
Mexico2006	0.182	0.118	14
Micronesia2009	0.118	0.426	4.24
Moldova2009	0.306	0.468	.
Mongolia2009	0.320	0.566	.
Montenegro2009	0.336	0.586	.
Mozambique2007	0.140	0.132	16.4
Namibia2006	0.517	0.267	29.8
Nepal2009	0.375	0.476	1.11
Nicaragua2006	0.310	0.407	11.1
Niger2005	0.504	0.480	5.59
Niger2009	0.713	0.393	16.1
Nigeria2007	0.080	0.043	25
Panama2006	0.629	0.553	9.21
Paraguay2006	0.625	0.467	13.7
Peru2006	0.728	0.701	19.3
Peru2010	0.687	0.801	23.8

Philippines2009	0.225	0.345	9.68
Poland2009	0.519	0.481	.
Romania2009	0.499	0.534	.
Russia2009	0.421	0.438	.
Rwanda2006	0.340	0.349	15.1
Samoa2009	0.606	0.495	6.99
Senegal2007	0.154	0.134	14.2
Serbia2009	0.593	0.686	.
Sierra Leone2009	0.447	0.193	3.27
Slovak Republic2009	0.538	0.476	.
Slovenia2009	0.652	0.775	.
SouthAfrica2007	0.576	0.315	23
Swaziland2006	0.278	0.231	22.5
Tajikistan2008	0.178	0.308	.
Tanzania2006	0.170	0.198	16.8
Timor Leste2009	0.153	0.067	0
Togo2009	0.645	0.239	4.68
Tonga2009	0.447	0.547	3.97
Turkey2008	0.686	0.609	.
Uganda2006	0.139	0.169	18
Ukraine2008	0.479	0.335	.
Uruguay2006	0.554	0.527	15.3
Uruguay2010	0.638	0.526	20.7
Uzbekistan2008	0.038	0.164	.
Vanuatu2009	0.531	0.445	5.78
Venezuela2006	.	0.254	.
Vietnam2009	0.123	0.634	4.68
Yemen2010	0.170	0.122	10.2
Zambia2007	0.390	0.157	23.5

Notes: Overdraft and credit line show the proportion of firms with access to this type of credit. The final column shows the average (with most responding 0) amount of supplier credit as a proportion of the firm's working capital.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper/publication is the result of the project of Operational Programme Science & Research: Creation of excellent workplace of economic research for solving the challenges of civilization in the 21st century (ITMS 26240120032). We support research activities in Slovakia / Project is co-funded by EU funds".

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COULD PEER-TO-PEER LOANS SUBSTITUTE FOR PAYDAY LOANS?

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ABSTRACT

Many consumer advocates consider payday loans—short-term, uncollateralized loans with high interest rates—to be predatory. The need for short-term funding has spurred the quest for an alternative, an effort encouraged and supported by regulators like the FDIC. In this paper, we evaluate the potential for online peer-to-peer markets to provide this type of credit. We conclude that while certain features of the P2P markets would be well suited (such as their loans' longer terms, larger amounts, and multiple payments), the longer time to fund and the required minimum credit scores for borrowers present meaningful hurdles.

JEL: G21, G28

KEYWORDS: Fringe Lending, Payday Loan, Peer-to-Peer Loan

INTRODUCTION

Payday loans have been called “one of the most expensive forms of credit in the world” (Skiba and Tobacman, 2008). A typical two-week payday loan costs \$15 per \$100 borrowed—a 391.07% APR, or 3,724% effective annual rate. Opponents accuse payday lenders of drawing borrowers into a “debt trap” of extremely high-interest loans. The industry counters that its rapid growth proves that it is providing a necessary, welfare-enhancing service to its customers.

Demand for short-term loans does not imply, however, that payday loans are the best form of supply. In this paper, we evaluate a potential alternative, peer-to-peer (P2P) loans. In a P2P marketplace, potential borrowers post requests for loans, and potential lenders bid on the requests that interest them. A lender can bid as little as \$25 per loan, so it may take many lenders to fully fund a successful loan request. This more “democratic” process may be able to meet borrowers’ needs for short-term, unsecured credit more effectively than can the payday industry.

We focus primarily on the Prosper platform, the oldest P2P network in the United States. Since opening in 2006, Prosper’s evolution has made it a more viable payday alternative, as its minimum loan size, bid per loan, and term have all fallen. The biggest hurdles left are access, funding speed, and required credit score. However, we argue that these factors may not preclude at least some payday customers from being better served by the P2P market.

P2P LOANS VERSUS PAYDAY LOANS

In a peer-to-peer market, potential borrowers use an online forum to post “listings” requesting loans. Listings contain certain objective information verified by the P2P platform (such as the debt-to-income ratio), as well as any additional information volunteered by the borrower (perhaps pictures or a description of the loan’s purpose). Lenders browse listings and bid on those they like. Bids can be as low as \$25. Most loans are funded by multiple lenders, and most lenders build diversified portfolios of loans. Only about 10% of listings are funded (see, for example, Herzenstein, *et al.*, 2008; Freedman and Jin,

2008b). In this section, we consider both the loan-specific features of this market (term, size, installment payments) and structural features (the ability of lenders to screen listings, accessibility of the platform, required credit score for borrowers) to evaluate the potential for P2P loans to substitute for payday loans. P2P loans are larger than payday loans. The minimum Lending Club loan is \$1,000 (\$2,000 for Prosper), while the *maximum* for payday loans is around \$700. (80% of payday loans are less than \$300, according to Stegman, 2007.) Being able to borrow more in the P2P market may actually alleviate a borrower's underlying financial stress. There is extensive evidence that payday borrowers frequently roll over their loans multiple times per year. Smaller initial loans do not meet the needs of these customers—they just end up turning into much bigger loans. Larger P2P loans, with much lower interest rates (and with dollar costs that vary with the term of the loan) may be a more reasonable solution to the borrowers' cashflow problems.

In fact, Dobbie and Skiba (2011) show that relaxing the credit constraints on payday borrowers actually reduces the risk of default. Both fringe firms in their sample limit payday loans to half of a borrower's net pay. This creates “discontinuities” in the schedule of loan size: these loans come in \$50 increments, so the maximum loan amount rises with every \$100 increase in pay. These jumps in maximum loan size are constraints for borrowers with paychecks just below the cutoffs. The authors show that relaxing these constraints—allowing borrowers to increase their loan size—actually decreases the default rate. The potential moral hazard (being more likely to default on larger loans) is mitigated. Thus, the greater flexibility and possibility for larger loan sizes in the P2P market could improve default rates for some constrained borrowers. Since lower-income borrowers may be more credit constrained (Dobbie and Skiba, 2011), P2P loans may be of the most use for just the people who might otherwise turn to payday lenders.

P2P loans also offer borrowers more time to address their cashflow problems. Adams, *et al.* (2009) find that subprime borrowers' demand for loans is much more sensitive to the loans' terms than to their rates. The longer terms of P2P loans therefore are attractive to this group. The rollover evidence underscores this; customers roll over their payday loans because they really want longer-term loans.

Another important distinction of P2P loans is that they are repaid in installments. This makes P2P loans a better vehicle for the “savings discipline” that Lawrence and Elliehausen (2008) ascribe to payday loans. In addition, because payment is automatic and systematic, loan performance will improve (FDIC, 2005).

Having discussed the loan-specific features of the P2P market, we now turn to the structural features that may affect the loans' suitability for payday borrowers. Supply in the P2P market depends upon the willing participation of many, probably amateur, individual lenders. Freedman and Jin (2008b) identify two possible information problems for these lenders. First, since they cannot see borrowers' exact credit scores, they face the potential for adverse selection. Second, because they need not be professional lenders, they may not be able to screen loans effectively. Of course, the two possible problems are related: if lenders are somehow able to screen, they can mitigate any adverse selection. This appears to be the case in the P2P market, suggesting that it may be able to meet the needs of payday borrowers.

The professional lenders in the payday market use an extremely streamlined screening process, to cut costs. Eligible borrowers whose credit score is above a threshold are approved; those below are not (Skiba and Tobacman, 2009). This thumbs up/thumbs down “discontinuity” does not exist in the P2P market. In fact, P2P lenders do not even see the borrowers' credit scores. Instead, the P2P platforms

separate applicants into risk groups based on their credit characteristics; lenders know only this risk assignment. Since higher- and lower-quality borrowers in a given risk class look the same, there is a “lemons” problem. This problem is not just hypothetical; adverse selection in these markets is real. Freedman and Jin (2008b) find that listings within a credit grade in fact have migrated toward the lower end of the credit-score range. The platforms address this problem both with loan caps, which they have always had, and by disclosing more borrower information, which they have done consistently as they have aged. However, the platforms cannot unilaterally mitigate the second potential information problem identified by Freedman and Jin. If lenders are poor screeners, all the information disclosure in the world will not lead to a viable market. However, lenders are not poor screeners.

Several factors facilitate their effective screening. First, P2P lenders are using their own money. They therefore have a strong incentive to make careful decisions. Second, lenders learn. Freedman and Jin (2008a) conclude that loan performance on Prosper indicates that lenders exhibit dynamic learning—making better loan selections over time—and that new lenders benefit from that accumulated knowledge. Finally, P2P lenders turn out to be quite adept at interpreting the “soft data” in borrowers’ listings, perhaps even more skilled than traditional bankers (who instead rely heavily on collateral; Iyer, *et al.*, 2009).

There are still some structural features inhibiting screening. The small minimum bid per loan may lead lenders to substitute diversification for screening. Lenders also now have an “out”: both Prosper and Lending Club (another P2P platform) have introduced platforms for secondary-market trading. However, the most significant change affecting screening has been Prosper’s elimination of the borrower’s maximum rate. Borrowers used to post the highest rate they were willing to pay for a loan. Iyer, *et al.* (2009) found that this rate was the most informative soft indicator available to lenders, since it was a credible and costly signal of borrower quality. However, borrowers can no longer send this signal, since Prosper now simply assigns rates based on loan characteristics. (Lending Club has always done this.) This change has probably diminished the quality of screening in the P2P market.

Nonetheless, screening is still possible, so the market is a viable payday alternative from the loan-supply side. On the demand side, there are more significant hurdles. First, we must consider borrowers’ ability to access the market. Payday borrowers highly value the long hours, convenient locations, and personal service they receive at payday shops (Buckland and Martin, 2005). The internet-based P2P platforms may be poor substitutes. However, as Buckland, Hamilton, and Reimer (2006) note, internet access is becoming increasingly available to low-income borrowers (through community organizations and libraries, for example). In rural areas, internet access actually may be much more convenient for small-dollar borrowers, since fringe lenders are less common outside of cities (FDIC, 2005). In addition, the increasing push by payday lenders into online lending suggests that an internet platform need not automatically preclude payday borrowers from P2P markets.

Of course, internet access does not guarantee a timely—or any—loan. Payday borrowers leave the store with their money. P2P borrowers must create a listing, go through screening by the platform (for example, credit verification), then wait for bids. If there are not enough bids, there is no loan. Even if the loan receives enough lender interest to be funded, there is still a delay before the borrower gets her cash. Payday borrowers may not be the types who generally plan this far ahead. These sorts of borrowers may require significant education before being able to use P2P loans effectively—but they undoubtedly would require that education for *any* payday alternative.

Another potential barrier between payday borrowers and the P2P market is credit score. Both Prosper and Lending Club require minimum FICO scores for borrowers. Prosper, in particular, is becoming more stringent (as Lending Club always was); so much so, in fact, that Freedman and Jin (2008a) assert that Prosper is moving from being a “comprehensive” market toward being one that simply serves traditional borrowers. If payday borrowers’ credit scores were too low, they would be shut out of the P2P market.

FICO credit scores range from 350-800; the national median is between 700 and 750 (Adams *et al.*, 2009). Only 27% of Americans have FICO scores below 650 (Curry, 2006). In February of 2007, after a year in business, Prosper raised its FICO cutoffs for its lowest two credit grades, E and HR, by 20 points each, while prohibiting borrowers with no credit or with credit scores below 520 from borrowing. In July of 2009, “to improve and optimize returns,” they raised the minimum credit score for borrowers to 640 (Larsen, 2009). Lending Club’s 660 minimum is even more stringent.

The difficulty in assessing a payday borrower’s ability to meet the FICO requirements is that fringe lenders use a different credit score—the Teletrack score—when making loans. Teletrack scores incorporate information from subprime loans, and are eight times as effective in predicting payday loan default as FICO scores. However, the two scores are not highly correlated (only 0.26 in a matched sample; Agarwal, *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, it is not obvious whether the typical payday borrower can meet the P2P market’s FICO thresholds.

We do have some information on the FICO scores of fringe borrowers. Adams, *et al.* (2009) study subprime auto lending. Half of the FICO scores of borrowers in their sample were less than 500. These fringe borrowers were low-income; they rented or lived with their parents; one-third had neither checking nor savings accounts; more than half had a delinquency within six months before their auto loan. Their credit scores suggested “sparse or checkered” credit histories, and they had “problematic” access to credit. Over half of those loans ended in default; only 39% were paid in full. These, then, were not like the typical payday borrowers. We would therefore expect payday borrowers to have FICO scores greater than those in Adams, *et al.*’s sample. Additional evidence comes from Agarwal, *et al.*’s (2009) study of a sample of borrowers who have both credit cards and payday loans. The average FICO score for this group is 673, high enough for both Prosper and Lending Club (although the standard deviation is 68 points). 2,740 borrowers in their sample of 3,090 (89%) have FICO scores greater than 600 (1,906 above 650). The average Teletrack score for this group is 425 ($\sigma = 283$). In a more recent study of payday borrowers, Dobbie and Skiba (2011) find an even higher mean Teletrack score of 550. These values suggest that at least some payday borrowers would be able to use the P2P markets.

CONCLUSION

Herzenstein, *et al.* (2008) assert that payday loans are “extremely detrimental” to consumers. They also suggest that P2P lending can improve payday borrowers’ welfare. So do Iyer, *et al.* (2009), who say, “The uncollateralized nature of lending and the ability to lenders to partly screen suggests that peer-to-peer markets can indeed complement and add value to the existing lending models and improve access to credit, particularly for small individual borrowers who may otherwise be limited to costly sources of finance like payday lenders.” In this paper, we evaluate the potential for P2P loans to be a meaningful alternative. In some ways, they appear well suited. They are longer-term, which is a critical difference according to consumer advocates and regulators. They are accessible anywhere, around the clock, by internet. Their rates are magnitudes lower. Nonetheless, there are hurdles. One potential—though not insurmountable—hurdle is the required minimum FICO credit score of at least 640. The biggest problem,

however, is probably the time to fund: P2P loans take as long to fund as a payday loan does to mature! Consumer advocates who wish to use the promising peer-to-peer platforms to offer alternatives to payday loans therefore should focus their efforts on speeding up the funding process. Harnessing the social network potential of P2P “groups” may be one way to shorten the actual bidding process (for example, if groups bid on members’ loans, facilitating funding). The verification and actual funding are the purview of the platforms; creating efficiencies there would require coordination between consumer advocates and the platforms.

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CONNECTING CAPITAL BUDGETING PRACTICE WITH THE MILES-SNOW STRATEGIC TYPE: A NOVEL MANEGERIAL ACCOUNTING APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the management process for each strategic type of firm (namely, Defenders, Prospectors, Analyzers, and Reactors) as a new way of analyzing capital budgeting from a managerial accounting perspective. Using a 2009 survey of Japanese manufacturing firms, we reveal the following. To start with, Defenders seldom search for new investment projects because they establish a stable status in a limited operation domain. Therefore, the principal purpose of capital investment in this strategic type is to improve cost competitiveness. As a result, Defenders develop the investment project in their own way, and then evaluate profitability thoroughly following implementation. In contrast, Prospectors continuously search for market opportunities, and evaluate and select projects in order to pioneer new product markets and profit opportunities. Thus, the main purpose of capital investment in this strategic type is to produce new products. Consequently, Prospectors emphasize profitability and timing in the development phase, and then carefully compare the alternative projects available. Finally, Analyzers carefully deliberate and decide upon the optimum timing of investment in order to seize upon market opportunities using their existing technology. As a result, this strategic type does not aggressively pursue capital investment.

JEL: G31 M41

KEY WORDS: Capital budgeting, management process, Miles and Snow strategic type, mail survey

INTRODUCTION

Capital budgeting is a critical problem for firms in terms of restraining organizational activity and retaining a large amount of capital over the long term. The theoretical research on the capital budgeting decision began after World War II and has had a great influence on managerial accounting (Hiromoto [1993]). As a result, managerial accounting research on capital budgeting has been strongly influenced by finance theory, and so most discussion has concerned the use of common economic evaluation techniques, including the payback method, simple rates of return, net present value, the internal rate of return, and real options (Sugiyama [2002]). This tendency is especially clear in managerial accounting research on capital budgeting (also known as capital investment budgeting or the capital budgeting decision) in Japan (Shimizu [2004]).

Unfortunately, where economic evaluation techniques have been the focus of capital budgeting decisions, there has been a corresponding neglect of managerial accounting (Northcott[1992]). The mail survey employed in this current research uncovered the following key features of capital budgeting management in Japanese firms (Shimizu et al. [2007]). First, economic evaluation techniques feature in most phases of capital budgeting, including development, proposal, deliberation, authorization, and postinvestment evaluation. Second, there is a ranking of the various capital budgeting projects available to the firm.

Finally, economic evaluation techniques help to set capital budgeting targets in the firm and the limits to capital spending. Although these are only some of the many interesting details revealed in the survey, they do suggest that capital budgeting management in managerial accounting (that is to say, capital budgeting) includes many more factors than described in either the previous research or texts.

Therefore, in order fully to explain capital budgeting as managerial accounting, we need to know not only about the investment decision but also about the series of management processes involved; that is, how capital budgeting projects in actual firms are developed, authorized, and implemented (Haka[2007], Maccarrone [1996], Toribe [1997], Yamamoto [1998], and Shimizu [2006]). Accordingly, the principal aim of this paper is to consider the management process fitted to each strategic type as a new way of clarifying capital budgeting as managerial accounting, and to describe the reality of capital budgeting in Japanese firms. Our chief motivations for the analysis are: first, that the firm's strategy must affect capital budgeting management, and second, that capital budgeting should fit with each firm's chosen strategy in order to improve business results.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce the theory of Miles and Snow [1978] and describe the method used to group firms into strategic types. In Sections 3, 4 and 5, we analyze the stance and purpose of capital investment, capital budgeting management, and capital budgeting in the planning system for each strategic type using the results of our mail survey. We then extract the distinctive characteristics of capital budgeting as fitted to each strategic type. Finally, in Section 6, we present the implications of our work and suggest some possible future research directions.

MILES AND SNOW THEORY AND THE TYPOLOGY OF FIRMS

Miles and Snow Theory

In brief, and following Tsuchiya [1983], the theoretical framework of strategic types that Miles and Snow [1978] proposed is as follows. First, the organization develops a strategy in order to adapt to its environment and to choose and create an adaptive environment. Second, in order to implement the strategy effectively, an organizational structure adapted to this strategy is required. Third, the organization needs management processes adapted to the strategy to employ efficient behavior. Fourth, the structure and processes that the organization already has are conditions for the strategy developed next. Fifth, therefore, the subject of the dominant coalition of the organization is to adapt strategy, structure and process interactively for the organization to be effective and to behave efficiently. Finally, there are four forms of possible adaptive behavior for the organization: the Defender, the Prospector, the Analyzer, and the Reactor.

Put another way, firms survive in a competitive environment by controlling the following series of processes: first, deciding upon the organizational domain in which they behave (the entrepreneurial problem), second, deciding upon what system they will use to operate the activity (the engineering problem), and third, formulating and implementing the management processes needed to operate these systems successfully (the administrative problem). There are four possible patterns of adaptation. Drawing on Miles and Snow [1978], these four environmental adaptations of organizations (strategic types) have the following characteristics.

- Defender: This strategic type limits its operational area to a relatively narrow product market where it improves efficiency and cost competitiveness, and establishes firm status.

- **Prospector:** This strategic type always searches for market opportunities to obtain profits. It aggressively creates change and uncertainty and develops new products and markets.
- **Analyzer:** This strategic type establishes firm status in existing product markets but also searches for market opportunities that it can cope with using its existing technology and rapidly seizes these if they appear promising.
- **Reactor:** The strategy in this strategic type is not functioning properly. It cannot adapt; rather, it merely reacts to environmental change and lacks consistent organizational activity.

The main objective of our 2009 mail survey is to distinguish clearly the characteristics of those strategic types whose strategy is functioning (Defenders, Prospectors, and Analyzers) (Many researches which are applied Miles and Snow strategic theory to managerial accounting only discuss two types, namely Defenders and Prospectors, instead of four types. See Simons [1987]. Fukuda [2008] discuss Defenders and Prospectors in Japanese firms).

Outline of the mail survey

We sent our mail survey to a sample of Japanese manufacturing firms in March 1, 2009 and received responses by April 30, 2009. We mainly addressed the questionnaires to the management planning sections of 853 Japanese manufacturing firms listed on the Tokyo Stock Exchange First Section, requesting them to respond concerning capital investment for their main product. Unfortunately, the response rate to the survey was only 11.72% (100 of the 853 companies). This response rate was significantly lower than our previous survey in 2005 (Shimizu et al. [2007]), one reason being that our request for a response coincided with an exceptionally busy period in accounting settlements associated with the so-called Lehman Shock. Table 1 provides the number of respondent firms by industry. Using a Chi-squared test, we confirm that the respondent firms' distribution by industry is comparable to all manufacturing firms listed on the First Section of the Tokyo Stock Exchange. We also compare firm scale (total assets and capital stock) across respondent and nonrespondent firms, and find no significant difference.

Table 1: Respondent Firms by Industry

Foods	Textiles & apparel	Pulp and paper	Chemicals	Pharmaceuticals	Oil and coal products	Rubber commodities	Glass & ceramics
6 (6%)	2 (2%)	1 (1%)	11 (11%)	1 (1%)	2 (2%)	0 (0%)	3 (3%)
Iron& steel	Nonferrous metals	Metal products	Machinery	Electric appliances	Transportation equipment	Precision instruments	Other Products
7 (7%)	4 (4%)	7 (7%)	13 (13%)	23 (23%)	13 (13%)	2 (2%)	5 (5%)

Note: Number of firms and percentage of total responses in parentheses

The Method Used to Measure Strategic Typology and the Results

In order to classify the respondent firms into four strategic types, we adopted the measurement of strategic types described by Conant et al. [1990]. This method has been successful in many studies as a useful way of grouping firms into Miles–Snow strategic types (DeSalbo et al. [2005]). The classification procedure proposed by Conant et al. [2005] is as follows. To start with, we prepared 11 questions that explicated the three basic problems in Miles and Snow's [1978] adaptive-cycle model. These comprised four questions regarding the entrepreneurial problem that develop the strategy, three questions concerning the engineering problem that creates the systems to operate the strategy, and four questions about the

administrative questions in managing the system. We then constructed four distinct response options characterizing the four possible strategic types (Defender, Prospector, Analyzer, and Reactor) for each of the 11 questions.

Next, as a basic rule, the sample firms were classified into one of the four strategic types depending on the response option selected most often. For instance, we classified the firm as a Defender if it most often chose Defender response options. However, if the number of response options tied between Defender, Prospector, and/or Analyzer response options, the firm was classified as an Analyzer, while if they tied involving Reactor response options, the firm was classified as a Reactor.

The results of the classification of the respondent firms by the procedure described as following. The largest number of firms are Analyzers (44 firms), followed by Defenders (21 firms), and then Prospectors (16 firms). We were unable to classify one firm because it did not respond to all of the questions in the survey. This reduced our sample size to 99 firms. We also do not examine Reactors (18 firms) in detail because they do not operate consistently, though we do list their responses for reference.

Stance on Capital Investment and Its Purpose

We first examine the firm's stance on capital investment. The scale used for the questions on capital investment stance is a 5-point Likert scale (1 = withhold investment, 3 = neutral stance, 5 = invest aggressively). We questioned firms on their investment stance both at the time of the survey (2009) and three years ago (2006). Table 2 reports the results for this response. As shown, three years ago, more than half of firms responded either 4 or 5 on the scale; that is, the majority of firms were investing positively as business conditions were recovering. In contrast, in 2009, more than half of firms chose 1 or 2; that is, the majority of firms had a negative stance on investment going into the recession.

Table 2: The Stance on Capital Investment

Response option	Stance at present (2009)	Stance three years ago (2006)
1 Withhold investment	45 (45.5)	6 (6.1)
2	21 (21.2)	8 (8.1)
3 Neutral stance	10 (10.1)	16 (16.2)
4	17 (17.2)	33 (33.3)
5 Invest aggressively	6 (6.1)	36 (36.4)
Total	99 (100)	99 (100)

Note: Percentage number of responses in parentheses

We next observe the results by strategic type. Table 3 reports the means and standard deviations of the response to the questions on investment stance on the 5-point Likert scale for each strategic type and all firms. As the differences in responses among the various strategic types are important, we emphasize the difference by halftoning the maximum mean and underlining the minimum mean if the difference between maximum and minimum mean is more than 0.3 (we undertake a similar procedure in the remaining tables).

As shown, Prospectors invested most positively, both three years ago (2006) and at present (2009). This may indicate the Prospector's attitude of taking risks to seek profit. Three years ago, Analyzers took the most negative stance towards investment, while at present, Defenders take the most negative stance. One contemporary argument is that the Japanese economy cannot recover from recession because capital investment is not increasing. Policy makers must then develop policy to stimulate investment for each

strategic type depending on their characteristics, rather than applying the same policy for all firms by assuming that every firm displays identical behavior toward investment.

Table 3: Stance on Investment by Strategic Type

	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)	Total (99 firms)
Stance at present (2009)	<u>1.81</u> (1.078)	2.50 (1.673)	2.11 (1.298)	2.44 (1.338)	2.17 (1.333)
Stance three years ago (2006)	3.81 (1.250)	<u>4.13</u> (1.360)	<u>3.75</u> (1.144)	3.94 (1.056)	3.86 (1.178)

Notes: Upper value = mean, lower value = (standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in half-tone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined.

We also questioned firms on the frequency of capital investment by purpose using 5-point Likert scale (1 = never carry out, 5 = always carry out). Table 4 reports the means and standard deviations of the responses. The most frequent investment purpose was “(3) to improve production lines” (3.76).

Table 4: Purpose of Capital Investment by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)	Total (99 firms)
(1) Replace	3.38 (1.117)	<u>3.75</u> (1.183)	<u>3.32</u> 0.934	3.61 (1.145)	3.45 (1.052)
(2) Increase Production	<u>3.33</u> (0.966)	<u>3.88</u> (0.957)	3.43 (0.873)	3.78 (0.732)	3.55 (0.895)
(3) Improve production lines	3.81 (0.981)	<u>4.13</u> (0.885)	<u>3.66</u> (0.745)	3.61 (0.979)	3.76 (0.870)
(4) Produce new Products	3.52 (1.078)	<u>4.06</u> (0.854)	<u>3.48</u> (0.952)	3.50 (1.150)	3.59 (1.010)

Notes: Upper value = mean, lower value in row = (standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in half-tone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined.

We now examine the purpose and frequency of capital investment by strategic type. As shown in Table 4, Prospectors invest most frequently for every purpose, while Defenders invest least frequently “(2) to increase production” and Analyzers invest least frequently for other purposes. Similarly, Defenders and Analyzers invest less frequently than Prospectors do, and this coincides with their more negative stance on capital investment in Table 4. What do the data suggest? In sum, Prospectors invest more frequently “(3) to improve production lines” and “(4) to produce new products”. Of these, investing relatively more “(4) to produce new products” may indicate the continuous seeking of market opportunities characteristic of Prospectors. Moreover, Prospectors invest more frequently “(1) to replace” and “(2) to increase production” than the other strategic types, and this reflects their attitude to increasing sales after entering the market. In contrast, Defenders and Analyzers invest more frequently “(3) to improve production lines” than for any other purpose. This appears to fit the theory in that Analyzers seek market opportunities that they can handle using existing technology, so they often develop products that they can produce using existing equipment. Likewise, Defenders produce the same kind of product, so they may not require frequent capital investment.

CAPITAL BUDGETING MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC TYPE

In order to understand the firm’s actual capital budgeting process, we propose the following model. This is based on the strategic capital budgeting planning process presented by Maccarrone [1996, p. 44] of

Development/evaluation → Selection → Authorization → Implementation and control → Postauditing
 Here “Development of the project” refers to the desirable capital investment being analyzed as a capital budgeting project. “Project proposal” is the project being proposed to headquarters. “Deliberation and authorization” indicates the capital budgeting project proposed from the subordinate section of the organization being discussed and finally approved at the highest level. Finally, “Implementation and postinvestment evaluation” refers to the capital expenditure phase and the ex post monitoring of the project.

We posed questions concerning each of the four phases of the management process described above, numbering 18 question items in total. The scale used for each question item is again on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = do not agree at all, 5 = strongly agree).

Development of the project phase

We included four questions concerning the “Development of the project” phase. We use Table 5 to analyze management in the “Development” phase. As shown, Defenders “(1) organize team” relatively less than Prospectors and Analyzers, while a smaller number of firms organize teams at the “Development” phase overall. This is because Defenders operate continuously in an existing organizational domain; thus, they can cope with project development using existing technology. This is generally a standing system, such as a department of production management. In contrast, Prospectors continually enter new organizational domains. As a result, Prospectors form new project teams consisting of members with detailed knowledge of the new technology to handle the new domain. In addition, Analyzers enter a new domain by combining existing technologies. To handle this, Analyzers form project teams consisting of members with different technology. Whether or not “(2) the developer of the investment project compares two or more ideas”, Prospectors are most likely to carry it out, followed by Analyzers, while Defenders are least likely to carry it out. As Prospectors invest to enter new product market domains, they more carefully develop their investment plans. Similarly, more Prospectors indicates that “(3) the developer of the investment project is recognizing the level of profitability that should be achieved”. Interestingly, more Analyzers, as well as Prospectors, respond that “(4) the developer of the investment project is recognizing the appropriate timing of investment”. This may be because investing with appropriate timing in response to demand is very important for both Analyzers and Prospectors.

Table 5: Management Processes in the “Development” Phase by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)
(1) Team organization	<u>2.62</u> (1.024)	3.00 (0.966)	<u>3.05</u> (0.939)	2.94 (0.998)
(2) Comparison of multiple projects	<u>3.86</u> (0.727)	<u>4.19</u> (0.911)	4.02 (0.832)	4.11 (0.832)
(3) Profitability check	4.14 (0.854)	<u>4.50</u> (0.816)	4.30 (0.701)	4.61 (0.850)
(4) Appropriate timing	<u>3.76</u> (0.889)	4.31 (0.873)	<u>4.36</u> (0.685)	4.44 (0.705)

Notes: Upper value = mean, lower value in row = (standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in halftone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined.

Proposal phase

Next, we employ Table 6 to observe the management in the “Proposal” phase by strategic type. As detailed, Analyzers respond more often that “(5) when the investment project is proposed, the item that should be deliberated upon is decided”. Because Analyzers may face some difficulty in adjusting deliberated items, they decide capital investment at the final deliberation. Conversely, Prospectors and Analyzers respond more than Defenders that they “(8) propose in exact timing with investment”. This is because Prospectors and Analyzers run a greater risk of losing from the incorrect timing of investment, while Defenders perform in a more stable domain.

Table 6: Management Processes in the “Proposal” Phase by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)
(5) Formalization of deliberation item	<u>3.86</u> (0.910)	4.13 (1.088)	4.32 (0.639)	4.06 (8.02)
(6) Ranking of priority	3.90 (0.768)	4.00 (0.816)	4.14 (0.639)	4.06 (0.802)
(7) Profitability check	4.00 (0.949)	3.88 (1.147)	4.09 (0.772)	4.00 (1.138)
(8) Exact timing	<u>4.00</u> (0.775)	<u>4.44</u> (0.814)	4.32 (0.708)	4.06 (0.938)

Note: Upper value = mean, lower value = (Standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in half-tone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined, (if the difference between the highest and the lowest mean is more than 0.3).

Deliberation and authorization phase

We examine the management of “Deliberation and authorization” by strategic type using Table 7. As shown, more Prospectors and Analyzers on average follow “(9) observance of deliberation procedure”; that is, Prospectors and Analyzers seldom allow exceptions. In addition, Prospectors and Analyzers tend to undertake the “(11) comparison of implemented plans” in the “Deliberation and authorization” phase. This may be because the right or wrong investment directly leads to business success or failure in Prospectors and Analyzers. As also shown, Analyzers most value timing, while Defenders act in a more stable domain.

This table also reveals the Analyzers’ strategy of seizing on promising market opportunities. In contrast, Prospectors have shorter deliberation periods, as they may essentially make almost all investment decisions before the “Deliberation and authorization” phase.

Implementation and postinvestment evaluation phase

Finally, we analyze management in the “Implementation and postinvestment evaluation” phase by strategic type. As shown, Analyzers most often undertake “(15) evaluation continuously”, unlike Prospectors. In addition, Defenders most often undertake “(16) a profitability check” after investment, unlike Prospectors. One characteristic of the Prospector’s planning sequence is that they evaluate investment projects in the development, proposal and deliberation phases, then move to develop a detailed operating plan; that is, Evaluate → Act → Plan (Males and Snow [1987], p. 62). Therefore, a characteristic of Prospectors is that they do not evaluate carefully after investment. As an alternative, Defenders continuously repeat the planning sequence of Plan → Act → Evaluate, then carefully evaluate following investment. This leads to continuity and thoroughness in evaluation and the postinvestment profitability check.

Table 7: Management Processes in the “Deliberation and authorization” Phase by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)
(9) Observance of deliberation procedure	<u>4.57</u> (0.746)	5.00 (0.000)	4.89 (0.321)	4.61 (0.850)
(10) Deliberation on each project	4.38 (0.669)	4.63 (0.500)	4.59 (0.757)	4.17 (0.857)
(11) Comparison of implementation plans	<u>3.29</u> (1.007)	3.81 (0.834)	3.61 (0.784)	3.78 (1.060)
(12) Profitability check	4.19 (0.750)	4.19 (0.629)	4.27 (0.899)	4.33 (0.970)
(13) Timing check	<u>4.05</u> (0.805)	4.06 (0.929)	<u>4.52</u> (0.590)	4.44 (0.856)

Note: Upper value = mean, lower value = (Standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in half tone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined, (if the difference between the highest and the lowest mean is more than 0.3).

Table 8: Management Process in the “Implementation and Postinvestment Evaluation” Phase by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)
(14) Monitoring of implementation	3.43 (1.028)	3.69 (1.014)	3.66 (0.939)	4.06 (0.998)
(15) Continuity of evaluation	3.57 (1.207)	3.38 (1.147)	3.73 (1.020)	3.61 (0.916)
(16) Profitability check	<u>3.81</u> (1.078)	3.38 (1.147)	3.73 (1.042)	3.61 (0.979)
(17) Analysis of failed projects	3.24 (0.889)	3.44 (1.094)	3.59 (0.923)	3.67 (0.767)
(18) Relation with performance evaluation	<u>2.86</u> (1.195)	3.50 (0.966)	3.00 (0.940)	3.28 (1.127)

Note: Upper value = mean, lower value = (Standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in half tone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined, (if the difference between the highest and the lowest mean is more than 0.3).

CAPITAL BUDGETING IN PLANNING SYSTEM AND STRATEGIC TYPE

It is impossible for firms to implement all available investment projects, even if they recognize the necessity of investment. Firms are then subject to a budget constraint and have a limited ability to manage investment projects. Therefore, they need to coordinate investment projects by collecting and selecting information on each. In this mail survey, we asked how each investment project is coordinated across four stages. These are medium-/long-term budget plans, annual budget (plan), between medium-/long-term and annual budget, and deliberation just before implementing investment. The scale used for each question item is a 5-point Likert scale (1 = do not agree at all, 5 = strongly agree).

First, we examine the overall tendency of respondent firms using Table 9. Comparing registration, timing, and the priority of investment project across the medium-/long-term plan ((1), (2), (3)) and the annual budget ((4),(5),(6)), the mean values for each question are higher for the annual budget than for the medium-/long-term plan. For example, the mean value of registration of the project is 3.87 in the medium/long term and 4.55 in the annual budget, so it is clear that most firms register investment projects in the annual budget. Therefore, the investment project is recognized by the organization in the annual budget rather than in the medium-/long-term plan. In addition, firms consider investment timing and rank investment priority in the annual budget rather than in the medium-/long-term plan. In other words, there is every possibility that the coordination for investment projects is secured in the annual budget.

From (7) and (8), the selection and addition of investment projects are incurred to some degree in the medium-/long-term plan and the annual budget. As the mean values of the responses for (9), (10), (11) and (12) are greater than four, it is clear that most Japanese firms perform deliberation on each project apart from the annual budget, and set budget limits and implement investment within the budget limits.

Table 9: Capital Budgeting in the Planning System (All Firms)

#	Content of question item	Mean (Standard deviation)
(1)	Register investment project in medium-/long-term plan.	3.87 (1.027)
(2)	Timing of investment is written clearly in medium-/long-term plan.	3.79 (1.013)
(3)	Priority for investment project is ranked in medium-/long-term plan.	3.43 (1.012)
(4)	Register investment project in annual budget.	4.55 (0.659)
(5)	Timing of investment is written clearly in annual budget.	4.39 (0.780)
(6)	Priority for investment project is ranked in annual budget.	3.86 (0.958)
(7)	Investment project that is registered in annual budget is selected from the projects that are registered in medium-/long-term plan.	3.71 (0.860)
(8)	New capital investment project that is not in medium-/long-term plan can be added in annual budget.	3.75 (0.800)
(9)	Detailed deliberation and authorization of investment plan takes place before implementation aside from annual budget.	4.09 (1.135)
(10)	The deliberation of each project takes place separately.	4.18 (1.014)
(11)	Budget limit for investment is set in annual budget.	4.49 (0.813)
(12)	Capital investment is implemented within the annual budget limit.	4.20 (0.700)

Next, we examine capital budgeting by strategic type. In the medium-/long-term plan, Prospectors most respond “(1) register investment project” and “(2) write investment timing” and “(3) rank investment priority”, while Analyzers closely follow the practice of Prospectors, unlike Defenders. In the annual budget, although Prospectors similarly obtain higher mean values for these question items, Analyzers have as low a mean value as Defenders. Between the medium-/long-term plan and the annual budget, Prospectors most often “(7) select investment project” and “(8) add new investment project”, while Defenders do so least often, and Analyzers are similar to Defenders. On this basis, it is clear that Defenders tend not to seek new investment projects, while Prospectors collect information and select projects well.

Analyzers most often “(9) authorize the project just before implementation aside from annual budget”, unlike Defenders and Prospectors. Analyzers need to evaluate and select the project just before implementation to seize market opportunities. However, Defenders and Prospectors complete project evaluation before deliberation, so authorization tends to be just a formality. Analyzers and Prospectors similarly place emphasis on “(10) deliberation on each project separately”, unlike Defenders. This means that Analyzers and Prospectors deliberate carefully on each project in order to enter new product market domains, while Defenders seldom do so because they operate in an existing product market domain. Finally, Prospectors most often “(11) set budget limit”, followed by Analyzers, and less like Defenders. Put differently, Prospectors and Defenders keep to a budget limit, unlike Analyzers. This is because

Analyzers have to use their budget flexibly because they evaluate and select projects in the short term, while Prospectors actively manage investment projects.

Table 10: Capital Budgeting in the Planning System by Strategic Type

Question item	Defender (21 firms)	Prospector (16 firms)	Analyzer (44 firms)	Reactor (18 firms)
(1) Registration in medium-/long-term plan	<u>3.57</u> (1.121)	4.13 (0.885)	3.89 (1.039)	3.94 (0.998)
(2) Timing written in medium-/long-term plan	<u>3.48</u> (1.078)	4.00 (0.894)	3.84 (1.077)	3.83 (0.857)
(3) Priority rank in medium-/long-term plan	3.33 (1.111)	3.56 (0.892)	3.39 (1.061)	3.56 (0.922)
(4) Registration in annual budget	<u>4.43</u> (0.676)	4.94 (0.250)	<u>4.43</u> (0.728)	4.61 (0.608)
(5) Timing written in annual budget	4.19 (0.928)	4.88 (0.342)	4.34 (0.745)	4.33 (0.840)
(6) Priority rank in annual budget	3.76 (0.944)	4.31 (0.946)	<u>3.75</u> (0.866)	3.83 (1.150)
(7) Selection of the projects	<u>3.52</u> (0.928)	4.31 (0.602)	3.64 (0.780)	3.56 (0.984)
(8) Addition of the projects	<u>3.43</u> (0.870)	4.00 (0.966)	3.73 (0.624)	3.94 (0.873)
(9) Authorization just before implementation	<u>3.71</u> (1.309)	3.75 (1.390)	4.32 (0.857)	4.28 (1.179)
(10) Deliberation on each project	<u>3.67</u> (1.317)	4.25 (1.238)	4.34 (0.776)	4.33 (0.767)
(11) Setting budget limit	<u>4.29</u> (1.007)	4.81 (0.403)	4.45 (0.848)	4.56 (0.705)
(12) Keeping budget limit	4.43 (0.598)	4.44 (0.629)	<u>4.05</u> (0.680)	4.11 (0.832)

Note: Upper value = mean, lower value = (Standard deviation), the highest mean among 3 types is in halftone and the lowest mean among 3 types is underlined, (if the difference between the highest and the lowest mean is more than 0.3).

CONCLUSION

Our principal motivations in this paper are that capital budgeting management must be affected by firm strategy and that capital budgeting should therefore be adapted to each firm's strategy to improve business results. In the analysis, we describe the capital budgeting appropriate for each strategic type by illustrating the differences in stance and purpose, management process and budgeting for the three strategic types in Miles and Snow [1978]. The major capital budgeting characteristics of these three strategic types are as follows. First, Defenders seldom search for new investment projects because they establish a stable status in a limited operational domain. Therefore, their main purpose of capital investment is to improve cost competitiveness. They then develop investment projects in their own way, and then thoroughly evaluate profitability following implementation.

Second, Prospectors continuously search for market opportunities, and evaluate and select projects in order to pioneer and to profit from new product markets. Thus, the main purpose of capital investment for these firms is to produce new products. In doing so, they address profitability and timing in the "Development" phase and carefully compare the alternative projects available. Finally, Analyzers deliberate carefully and optimally time investment to seize market opportunities using their existing technology. They are not aggressive in capital investment. We thus provide clear evidence that firm strategy affects capital budgeting management. Therefore, one potential future research topic is whether capital budgeting as fitted to strategic type leads to improvements in business performance. Although we leave this for future research, we briefly outline and discuss the return on assets for each strategic type.

Table 11: Average Return on Assets by Strategic Type

Return on capital	Defender	Prospector	Analyzer	Reactor	Total
4-year average (2005–08)	4.96% (3.97) 21	7.43% (5.03) 16	7.12% (4.51) 44	7.87% (4.93) 18	6.85% (4.61) 99
5-year average (2005–09)	4.16% (3.50) 21	7.20% (4.09) 15	6.22 (4.17) 43	6.81% (4.52) 18	6.03 (4.17) 97

Note: Upper value in row = mean, middle value in row = (standard deviation), lower value in row = number of sample firms.

Source: NEEDS Financial QUEST

As shown in Table 11, by comparing the 4- and 5-year average returns on assets, we can see that the Japanese economy moved into recession from 2008 to 2009 because return on assets was worsening, both across all firms and for every strategic type. However, for both sample periods, return was highest for Prospectors, followed by Analyzers, and then Defenders. We therefore must take some care because a difference in return does not necessarily imply some relative superiority or inferiority in strategic type. Instead, we assume that return would improve only if each firm were to undertake capital budget management in line with its strategic type. Furthermore, although we only emphasize the capital budgeting management matched with strategic type, there will be necessary capital budgeting management for every strategic type. For instance, Shimizu et al. [2008] have extracted the appropriate capital budgeting management that has led to improvement in firm performance. These considerations remain an important subject for us to explore.

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AN EXAMPLE OF EXCELLENCE: WHY BUSINESS SCHOOLS ARE BRINGING MILITARY HISTORY BACK TO THE CURRICULUM

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ABSTRACT

Today's business reaches many new frontiers (Afful, 2006), making it poignant to ask: How can the business curriculum provide excellence? A sampling of new components to the business curriculum includes: new technology; new financial instruments trading among new groups of investors on new exchanges with new ownership; new global markets developing at a furious pace; new regulations affecting a panoply of industries; new metrics to analyze corporate profitability; new standards for public policy; and, new methods of educating students termed non-traditional learners, in addition to traditional-aged learners. The intent of this paper is to answer the question: How can the business curriculum provide excellence? This paper suggests that the re-emergence of military history in the business curriculum is an example of continued excellence by business programs. Research is limited regarding curricula and enrollment by business students in military history courses; thus, the research focuses on a review of the literature for pedagogical purposes. This paper discusses the reasons for incorporating military history, i.e., the influence of military might on the development of past empires, as a source of essential knowledge and keen insights for future business decisions, and finds a clear example of excellence in today's business curriculum.

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BALANCED SCORECARD PRACTICES AND DETERMINANTS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF LISTED COMPANIES IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

This paper develops a framework for Balanced Scorecard (BSC) stage classification (non-adoption, adoption and implementation) by considering BSC attributes embedded in firm's performance measurement system and examines how various determinants (external, structural, attitudinal and executional factors) affect each BSC stage. Based on a survey, 26% and 64% are BSC-adoption and BSC-implementation firms respectively. The findings also reveal the evidence of the different interpretations of BSC resulting in misclassification. Regarding determinant test, the results show that the importance levels of determinants somehow vary by stages and clearly differ from the findings if employing firms' self-assessed responses. This research contributes to BSC literature by highlighting how to identify the BSC stages without taking firm's self-assessed response about the BSC application as given and by providing the evidence of stage-dependent determinants. This study also sheds some light on Technology Acceptance Model as attitudinal factor is another key determinant for implementing BSC.

JEL: M490 and M190

KEYWORDS: Balanced Scorecard, Implementation, Adoption, Determinants, Technology Acceptance Model

INTRODUCTION

Over two decades of the Balanced scorecard (BSC) devised by Kaplan and Norton in 1992, it has attracted considerable interest worldwide, including Thailand (Decharin, 2003; Thinwilai, 2005; Yongvanich and Guthrie, 2009). As it relates to the advancement of the performance measurement system, one of the responsibilities of accountants, BSC becomes one of the most important developments in management accounting, particularly in strategic planning and control (Atkinson et al., 1997). Many studies explore the BSC diffusion, examine factors influencing the adoption and the implementation of BSC, and investigate the effects of BSC implementation. However, prior studies provide mixed results since they have not provided a clear definition of BSC application. More importantly, they are likely to take firms' responses about BSC application as given.

Several studies use "Adoption" and "Implementation" interchangeably despite different meanings. Adapted from Roger (2003), BSC-adoption firm is one that is at the stage of choosing to follow BSC idea by making use of financial and nonfinancial measures along multiple dimensions. BSC-implementation firm is the firm that at the stage of carrying out a practical means for accomplishing BSC usage. Thus, BSC stages should consist of Non-adoption, Adoption, and Implementation. Additionally, most studies have trusted in firms' self-assessed responses about BSC application. This can bias the research results as firms may differently understand the BSC concept, leading to dissimilar criteria used to judge to which stages of BSC application they belong (Kaplan, 2010). Hence, this raises the importance of the accurate determination of BSC application at the beginning of research projects (Burkert et al., 2010). To avoid misunderstanding about BSC, the elements of BSC should be taken into account in order to properly

identify the stages of BSC application. This method allows researcher to accurately investigate the extent of BSC usage and the determinant and the consequence of BSC application.

To date, little research has been published on performance measurement systems, particularly BSC, in the context of Thailand. As Thai firms are not required to apply Balanced Scorecard, it is expected that certain companies apply BSC either intentionally or unintentionally. In this study, the characteristics of firms' performance measurement systems are explored to reflect the BSC attributes, which are then used for classifying the stage of BSC application. Once the stages of BSC application are identified, understanding the determinants of BSC application is important as it presents the factors that help facilitate or impede moving forward from one stage to another.

Therefore, the objectives of this study are to develop a framework of BSC application and to use such framework to identify the BSC attributes and BSC stages of survey-responding firms. This study also represents an extension of prior studies by drawing the determinants from the organizational innovation, technology acceptance model (TAM) and contingency theory to examine whether external, structural, attitudinal and executional factors affect adoption and implementation stage of BSC. This paper contributes to BSC by developing conceptualization and operationalization of BSC framework which can be further used by both academics and practitioners. This paper also explores the BSC application in Thailand to complement the prior studies mostly conducted in US and Europe. This study extends prior determinant literature of BSC and TAM by going further into details of the determinant-innovation relation to reveal how factors ease or inhibit the BSC implementation process. This paper is divided into five sections. The first section is the introduction discussed earlier. The second section presents a brief literature review, followed by the research methodology. The fourth section shows the developed BSC framework and the empirical results. The last section concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Balanced Scorecard (BSC)

Balanced scorecard is initially devised by Kaplan and Norton as the multi-dimensional performance measurement system with a collection of financial and nonfinancial measures and is now transformed into a strategic performance measurement system (Kaplan and Norton, 1992; 1996; 2001; 2008). BSC incorporates various important attributes as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The attributes of Balance Scorecard

BSC Attributes	Explanation
Translating strategy into operation terms (Strategy)	This feature is a foundation of BSC. Without this characteristic, firms cannot claim that it has implemented BSC. This key attribute includes three sub-attributes – (1.1) Multiple perspectives, (1.2) Measures derived from strategy, and (1.3) Cause-and-effect relationships among the strategic objectives or measures.
Aligning the organizational units to the strategy (Alignment)	Since organization consists of various business units and support departments, it is important to align business units' and functional units' strategies to the corporate-level strategy in order to generate the corporate synergy, which causes a collection of business units to create value than if each unit operates autonomously.
Communicating strategy to employees (Communication)	The CEOs and executives cannot run the business by themselves. Communicating and educating ensure that employees understand firm's strategy and scorecard. This intrinsically and extrinsically motivates employees to perform their works in the ways that contribute to the success of the strategy.
Providing feedback and learning (Feedback)	Strategy should be linked to the budgeting process by setting targets for the strategic measures and by screening the strategic initiatives for achieving such targets. The feedback and learning process is also needed to enable strategic refinements or make strategy a continual process.

Most prior studies have not simultaneously concerned all the above-mentioned BSC attributes. Some prior studies have focused only on sub-attribute or one BSC attribute (e.g., Gosselin, 2005; Abernethy et al., 2005), while some have done on the various combinations of the BSC features (e.g., Malina and Selto, 2001; Malina et al., 2007). Only one study (De Geuser et al., 2009) refers and tests all four BSC features separately; however, they focus only on BSC users and test whether these four features of BSC and top management support are the sources of BSC contributions. They find that attribute 1 (Strategy) and 4 (Feedback) seem to be the key sources of overall improvement; while attribute 2 (Alignment) and 3 (Communication) show marginal impact. Top management support does not influence any perceived organizational performance.

The Stages of BSC Application

Most prior studies (e.g., Ittner et al., 2003; Thinwilai, 2005; Yu et al., 2008) have assigned firm as non-BSC or BSC based on firm's self-assessed response about the stage that firm has selected in the questionnaire. Few studies (i.e., Speckbacher et al., 2003; Yongvanich and Guthrie, 2009) additionally consider BSC attributes for firms that respond that they are at the stage of BSC usage. For example, Speckbacher et al. (2003) developed the classification framework as follows:

Table 2: Speckbacher et al.'s (2003) Classification Framework

BSC Stages	BSC Type	Criteria
(1) No contact with BSC thus far (2) Know BSC (3) Studied BSC, but no concrete steps taken (4) First steps already taken (5) BSC project has existed	Non-BSC firm	
(6) BSC implemented in individual business units (7) BSC implemented for entire company	BSC firm	
	Type 1	(1) Identify strategic measures or objectives (2) Group strategic measures or objectives into perspectives
	Type 2	Type 1 with the following criterion: (1) Employ cause-and-effect chains
	Type 3	Type 2 with some or all of the following criteria: (1) Contain action plans/target (2) Link Measures to incentives

Firms at stage (1) to (5) are classified as non-BSC firms, while those at stage (6) to (7) are done as BSC firms. The BSC firms are then reclassified into three groups of BSC users, depending on their BSC attributes. Based on foundation of BSC, Type1 firms should not be BSC users as they are only at adoption stage. Additionally, Speckbacher et al. (2003) have not studied all four attributes of BSC; Yongvanich and Guthrie (2009) have done so but have not investigated four BSC attributes separately.

At this point, it is crucial to call attention to the critical concern – different interpretations of BSC. Some academics and practitioners may think of the BSC based on the original 1992 BSC article, which is just one part of current BSC concept (Kaplan, 2010). Dissimilar interpretations of BSC can affect the firms' self-assessed responses and bias the results in the sense that firms without BSC attributes (but with initial BSC project) may think that they are BSC users; thus, they may select the stage of BSC usage. On the contrary, firms with some BSC attributes may think that they are not qualified enough to claim that they are BSC users; hence, they may be erroneously classified themselves as non-BSC users. This interpretation problem can be mitigated by identifying the features of performance measurement systems to reflect the BSC attributes and to indicate the BSC stage for each responding firm.

To the best of my knowledge, only one study (Soderberg, 2006) has asked the structure and the use of performance measurement system in order to categorize firms as BSC or non-BSC without asking whether or not they are BSC user. BSC firms are then re-categorized into several levels of BSC application. The criteria used for the classification are shown in Table 3. BSC level 1, 2a, 2b, and 3 are consistent with attribute 1 (Strategy). BSC level 4 combines attribute 3 (Communication) and 4 (Feedback); however, attribute 2 (Alignment) is not considered. Based on key features of BSC, firms that are classified as firms at level 3 and 4 are BSC users; conversely, those at level 1, 2a, and 2b should be non-BSC users as all key sub-attributes of attribute 1 (Strategy) have not been met.

Table 3: Soderberg's (2006) Classification Framework

BSC level	Attribute	Criteria
Non-BSC firms		No any criterion is met.
BSC firms	1 Derived from strategy	(1) Business unit strategy is well defined.
	2a Strategy+ Balance	(2) Performance measures are derived from such strategy. BSC level 1 with all following criteria (1) PMS contained financial and nonfinancial measures. (2) PMS contained driver (leading) and outcome (lagging) measures.
	2b Strategy+ Causal links	BSC level 1 with all following criteria (1) PMS has measures that are linked through driver-outcome relationships (2) Business unit understand the potential driver-outcome relationship among individual measures
	3 Strategy+ Balance+ Causal links	Level 2a with Causal links, or Level 2b with Balance
	4 Double Loop Learning	Level 3 with some or all following criteria (1) Deviation from expected or planned results causes the business unit's management to question the unit's business strategy (2) Business unit use the PMS to compensate/reward some or all of unit's employees
	Tied to Compensation	

Table 4: Determinants, Related Literature Review and the Developed Hypotheses

Determinants	Summary of literature review	Hypotheses proposed in alternative form
External	Environment uncertainty	H1a: Environment uncertainty is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H1b: Environment uncertainty is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
Structural	Participation	H2a: Participation is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H2b: Participation is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	Formalization	H3a: Formalization is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H3b: Formalization is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	Interconnectedness	H4a: Interconnectedness is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H4b: Interconnectedness is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.

Table 4 (Cont’): Determinants, Related Literature Review and The Developed Hypotheses

Determinants		Summary of literature review	Hypotheses proposed in alternative form
Structural	Information System	(+) Information system capability can assist BSC application (e.g., Assiri et al., 2006; Kaplan, 2010)	H5a: Information system is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H5b: Information system is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	Attitude toward BSC	(+) some studies preliminarily reveal that the perceived ease of use and the perceived usefulness of BSC are likely to affect the individual’s intent to use (Hongrattanawong, 2002; Islam and Kellermanns, 2006) and the use of BSC (Speckbacher et al., 2003; Yongvanich and Guthrie, 2009). (=) Chen et al.’s (2006) study finds no impact of the perception of BSC ease of use and BSC usefulness on BSC adoption and implementation stages.	H6a: Attitude toward BSC is positively associated with reaching BSC adoption stage. H6b: Attitude toward BSC is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
Executional	Top management support	(+) This is one of the most important variables in implementing any innovations (Damanpour, 1991; Roger, 2003; Chenhall, 2003), including BSC, (Kaplan and Norton, 2001; Braam and Nijssen, 2008). (-) Chen et al. (2006) find negative impact of top management support on BSC application.	H7: Top management support is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	CFO’s involvement	(+) Chief financial officer is expected to be an innovation champion who can promote the BSC implementation (Chen et al., 2006; Braam and Nijssen, 2008)	H8: CFO involvement is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	Project Team	(+) Prior studies point out the importance of this factor (e.g., Kaplan and Norton, 2001; Abernethy et al., 2005; Assiri et al., 2006; Soderberg, 2006)	H9: Team is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.
	Training	(+) Training or education support is needed for employees (e.g., Assiri et al., 2006) to enhance their understanding about long term strategy and scorecard.	H10: Training is positively associated with reaching BSC implementation stage.

(+), (-) and (=) represent the results of prior studies providing positive relation, negative relation, and insignificant relation between the determinant and BSC application, respectively.

This current study has extended prior research by taking into account all attributes of BSC with the assumption that firm’s responses about its characteristics of performance measurement system can reflect its actual practice. The applied attributes of BSC allows this study to specify stage of BSC application. It should be noted that this research examine BSC usage at firm-level, not individual business-unit level.

The Determinants of BSC Application

Drawing upon organizational innovation, technology acceptance model and contingency theory, determinants expecting to affect the adoption and implementation of BSC are shown in Table 4. External factor is critical for any contingency-based research (Chenhall, 2003). Structural factors reflect firm’s characteristics (Anderson and Young, 1999) that can affect innovation application (Damanpour, 1991). Both external and structural factors are expected to be associated with reaching both adoption and implementation stages. Executional factors reflect mechanisms supporting the implementation process (Anderson and Young, 1999); they should be associated with reaching the implementation stage only.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data Collection and Survey Instrument

Samples in this cross-sectional survey research are 508 firms listed in the Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) and Market Alternative Investments (MAI). 81 questionnaires are returned; the response rate is 15.94 percent. This low response rate is not unusual for the mail-survey in Thailand (Pholnaruksa, 2007).

A survey package was mailed out to CFO in May and June, 2011. The questionnaire was firstly developed based on the developed framework derived from the conceptual foundation of BSC as well as proposed in Table 5. The questionnaire is then revised based on the pre-tested results and comments from academics and the CFOs. Questionnaire contains four parts: the first part asks about the characteristics of the performance measurement system (YES/NO questions) to reflect the BSC attributes, which are later used as the criteria for classifying the stage of BSC application. The second part requires the respondents to specify the percentage ranging 0-100 about BSC attributes. The third part asks about the self-assessed application of BSC (YES/NO question). The last part contains questions regarding determinants by requiring respondents to specify the percentage responses (0-100%).

Model and Variable Measurements for Determinant Study

Determinant study has two parts: adoption and implementation. The binary logistic regression model is employed to test whether each determinant is associated with reaching adoption/ implementation stage:

$$\ln\left[\frac{P(Y=1)}{1-P(Y=1)}\right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + Controls_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

The primary dependent variable is the stage of BSC application consisting of Non-adoption, Adoption, and Implementation stages. As per adoption part, $Y=1$ for adoption or implementation firm, 0 otherwise. According to implementation part, $Y=1$ for implementation firm, 0 otherwise.

To strengthen construct validity, each determinant variable has multiple questions adapted from prior studies as follows: Environment uncertainty (Gosselin, 2005), Formalization (Robbins and Judge, 2009; Braam and Nijssen 2008), Interconnectedness (Rogers, 2003; Braam and Nijssen, 2008), Information system (Krumweide, 1998; Assiri et al., 2006), Attitude toward BSC (Davis, 1989; Hongrattana Wong, 2002). Top management supports (Assiri et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2006), CFO's involvement (Chen et al., 2006; Braam and Nijssen 2008), Project Team (Assiri et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2006), Training (Krumweide, 1998; Hongrattana Wong, 2002; Assiri et al., 2005). The average percentage score of each determinant for each firm is calculated, except for Participation which follows the level of participation (Pasewark and Welker, 1990; Pholnaruksa, 2007).

Three variables are controlled in both the adoption and implementation models. SIZE is 1 for SET; 0 for MAI. Industries are controlled by employing two variables: IND1 (1 for Finance or insurance firm; 0 otherwise) and IND2 (1 for Manufacturing firm; 0 otherwise).

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The developed framework

Based on BSC literature, the framework for classifying BSC attributes along with the BSC stages are proposed as follows:

An organization with a collection of financial and nonfinancial measures that are grouped into perspectives is considered to be a BSC-adoption firm since two conditions (FNFM and PER) are met. Such firm is, at least, at the stage of choosing to follow BSC idea. A firm not meeting all of these two conditions is classified as non-adoption one. BSC-adoption firms that meet the strategy attribute requirement: the strategy is well-defined as well as the measures are derived from strategy and can be shown as a causal chain to illustrate the value-creation process are qualified to be BSC firms or at the

implementation stage. Consequently, the other BSC attributes for BSC-implemented firms are examined. Fully-implemented BSC firms have met all of the conditions for alignment, communication and feedback; otherwise, they are partially-implemented BSC.

Table 5: The framework for classifying the BSC attributes and the BSC stages

BSC Stage	Conditions
Non-Adoption	No any criterion is met.
Adoption	Adoption firm = Firm with all of the following criteria: (1) Financial and non-financial measures (2) Grouped into perspectives
Imple- mentation	Implementation firm = Adoption firm with the following sub-attributes to satisfy <i>Attribute 1: Translating strategy into operational terms</i> (1) Well-defined strategy (2) Strategic objectives or measures (3) Cause-and-effect relationships Firms at this stage are classified as BSC firms, which can be re-classified as partially- or fully-implemented BSC firms: Partial BSC firms that have applied some of the following attributes: <i>Attribute 2: Aligning the organizational units to the strategy</i> (1) Aligning business units' or support functions' strategies to firm's strategy (2) Disseminating objectives or measures throughout the company <i>Attribute 3: Communicating strategy to employees</i> (1) Communicating vision, mission, and strategy throughout the company (2) Understanding firm's strategy (3) Linking measures to reward system <i>Attribute 4: Providing feedback and learning</i> (1) Linking strategy to operating plan and budgeting systems (2) Information system for strategy review (3) Process for formulating, learning, and reviewing strategy (4) Process for questioning and refining strategy Full BSC firms that have applied all of above.

Based on a total of 81 observations, 80 are usable. 8 observations have some missing YES/NO responses for identifying BSC attributes. Thus, BSC attributes of 72 firms are identified by considering YES/NO responses, while those of eight firms will be done by relying on percentage scores. This requires the additional tests to determine whether the classification of BSC attributes by relying on YES/NO responses is valid and whether 60-percent is appropriate to be used as a cutoff-point to identify the use of BSC attributes. Table 6 provides the statistics for each BSC attribute and Table 7 summarizes additional test and the results.

Table 6: BSC attributes (N=81)

BSC Attributes		YES response		NO response		Missing (Yes/No)	Missing (%)	Missing (Both)	Total
		Avg%	N	Avg%	N				
Financial and Nonfinancial Measures	FNFM	77.90	77	45.00	2	0	2	0	81
Multiple perspectives	PER	78.07	71	34.38	8	1	1	0	81
Well-Defined strategy	STRAT	78.59	76	40.00	5	0	0	0	81
Strategy-linked measures	SL	77.46	66	46.00	10	3	2	0	81
Causal links	CL	72.85	51	50.59	26	3	0	1	81
Alignment	A	74.24	70	42.97	8	3	0	0	81
Communication	C	76.07	55	54.90	24	2	0	0	81
Feedback	F	78.09	63	55.36	18	0	0	0	81

The minimum value of cronbach's alpha is 0.885, which is above the lower limits of normal acceptable value (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), confirming the reliability of all constructed variables.

Table 7: Additional tests

Tests and methodology	Results and conclusion
<p><i>The mean comparison between YES-firm and NO-firm.</i> The classification based on YES/NO responses is rational when the mean percentage score of YES-response firms is significantly greater than that of NO-response firms. The t-Tests for equality of means and Mann-Whitney tests are employed.</p> <p><i>Test for 60-percent cutoff point</i> For each attribute, we have tested whether the mean percentage score of YES-firm is greater than 60 percent. This cutoff-point is the lower limit of percentage in the “some” column, which is qualitatively similar to the cutoff point used in Soderberg (2006).</p> <p><i>Agreement test</i> A test for agreement between the attribute classification using YES/NO responses and that using 60-percent cutoff point has been performed.</p>	<p>The mean percentage response of YES-response firms is greater than that of NO-response firms at 0.01 significance level, except for one sub-attribute (FNFM) at 0.05 level.</p> <p>Thus, YES/NO responses can be employed to identify the BSC attributes and, subsequently, to classify the stage of BSC application, as such.</p> <p>Regarding each attribute, the mean percentage score for YES-firm is significantly greater than 60 percent at 0.01 level.</p> <p>Hence, the 60-percent can be applied as a cutoff point for all BSC attributes. Firms with greater-than-60% average response of particular BSC attributes will be considered as they have such attributes.</p> <p>Kappa test results show that the agreement between these two methods of attribute classification (YES/NO method VS 60-percent-cutoff-point method) is statistically significant at 0.01 level, except for two sub-attributes (FNFM and STRAT) at 0.05 level. The rates of agreement are over 70 percent.</p>

76-81 observations are analyzed in these additional tests.

The results from three tests support identifying the BSC attribute, for each responding firm, by considering YES/NO responses. In addition, when the YES/NO responses are missing, the 60% cutoff point can be employed to identify the use of each BSC attribute. That is, BSC attributes are identified by YES/NO responses for 72 firms and by percentage responses for 8 firms.

The BSC Practices Among Thai Listed Firms

Using the proposed framework, BSC practices among Thai listed firms are as follows:

Table 8: The survey results

BSC Stage	Classified by BSC attributes		Classified by Self-assessed responses	
	Proportion	Number of firms	BSC firms	Non- BSC firms
Non-Adoption	10%	8	1	7
Adoption	26%	21	6	15
Partial Implementation	15%	12	10	2
Full Implementation	49%	39	19	20
Subtotal	100%	80	36	44
Firms with missing data		1	1	0
Total		81	37	44

Of the useable observations, 72 meet the requirement for adopting BSC. Hence, at least, these firms could be classified as BSC-adoption firms. However, the performance measurement systems of some firms contain attributes of BSC. This means that some firms could be classified as BSC-implementation firms; some could not. The remainders (8 firms) are classified as Non-adoption firms. Fifty one firms meet all three sub-attributes of the strategy attribute; thus, they are classified as firms at implementation stage. The remaining 21 firms are still at the BSC-adoption stage since some conditions are not met. 39 out of 51 firms are considered as fully-implemented BSC firms since all of conditions for alignment, communication and feedback are met. The rest (12 firms) are classified as partially-implemented BSC firms as they have only certain attributes of BSC.

Aforementioned, firms may dissimilarly interpret the BSC concept and, subsequently, differently classify themselves. The stages of BSC application classified by BSC attributes proposed in this paper in comparison with those classified by self-assessed responses are also shown in Table 8. One out of eight firms claims to be BSC user despite the fact that it is only at the non-adoption stage. It is found that this

firm has just started the BSC project. 6 out of 21 firms claim to be BSC users despite the fact that they are only at the adoption stage. One firm does not have even a well-defined strategy, while the other five firms do not have causal-links among the strategic objectives or measures. Only 2 out of 12 partially-implemented firms and 20 out of 39 fully-implemented firms misclassified themselves. Overall, the disagreement (or misclassification) rate is 36% (29 out of 80 firms). Although 64% of responding firms can correctly classify themselves, this evidence still raises the importance of proper classification of BSC application by using similar criteria at the first step of any determinant and consequence study.

The Determinants of BSC Application

Regarding determinant study, 73 out of 80 are useable. Table 9 summarizes the dependent variables, independent variables (i.e., the external, structural, attitudinal, and executional factors) and control variables used in the determinant study and their descriptive statistics. Table 10 provides the results of determinant study for both adoption part and implementation part.

Table 9: Variables for determinant test (N=73)

variables		average	min	max	cronbach's alpha
dependent variables					
adoption	adopt	0.89	0.00	1.00	n.a.
implementation	imple	0.63	0.00	1.00	n.a.
independent variables					
external:					
environment uncertainty	env	64.23	6.67	100.00	0.851
structural :					
participation	part	7.32	0.00	10.00	n.a.
formalization	form	75.51	10.00	100.00	0.897
interconnectedness	int	74.52	10.00	100.00	0.910
information system	is	74.67	35.00	100.00	0.933

Table 9: (Cont'): Variables for determinant test (N=73)

Variables		Average	Min	Max	Cronbach's alpha
Independent variables					
Attitudinal :					
Attitude toward BSC	ATT	69.45	3.33	100.00	0.976
Executional :					
Top management support	TOP	76.68	14.00	100.00	0.963
CFO's involvement	CFO	78.11	30.00	100.00	0.891
Project Team	TEAM	72.38	0.00	100.00	0.947
Training	TRAIN	71.57	0.00	100.00	0.951
Control variables					
Firm's size	SIZE	0.90	0.00	1.00	N.A.
Industry - Finance & Insurance	IND1	0.12	0.00	1.00	N.A.
Industry - Manufacturing	IND2	0.41	0.00	1.00	N.A.

Panel A, Table 10 reports the results of the binary logistic model for adoption part. Environment uncertainty is insignificantly associated with reaching to adoption stage; however, the positive sign partially supports that uncertainty may lead managers to adopt BSC to equip firms with the relevant information for decision making. As per the structural factors, participation, formalization, and interconnectedness are positively significant at 0.05 level. The higher degree of participation, formalization and interconnectedness are positively affect the decision to adopt BSC. Participation allows subordinates to share their ideas and relevant information to supervisors. Anecdotal evidence from the interview with CFO supports this notion; firm has decided to adopt BSC due to the recommendation

from managers or employees. Furthermore, the use of written rules, procedures, and documents can facilitate management intervention by developing and enforcing norms to improve a firm's performance measurement system. In addition, networks in the organization facilitate the flow of new ideas more easily. However, information system is insignificantly associated with reaching adoption stage. Evidence from the interview revealed that spreadsheet is mostly employed during the adoption of BSC; full option of information system is not required at this stage. Attitude toward BSC are positive and significant at 0.05 level. Thus, attitude appears to be one of the determinants in the decision to adopt BSC by introducing the idea of multidimensional perspectives containing both financial and nonfinancial measures. This evidence also supports TAM studies as the attitude positively related to intention to use (or adoption stage in this study.)

Table 10: The results of determinant study (N = 73)

Panel A: Adoption vs. Non-adoption						
Independent variable	ENV	PART	FORM	INT	IS	ATT
+	0.014	0.315 **	0.037 **	0.057 **	0.021	0.030 **
Constant	0.989	-0.026	-0.716	-1.987	0.239	-0.443
SIZE	0.198	-0.152	-0.071	-0.112	0.277	0.538
IND1	-0.047	-0.335	0.173	0.353	0.229	-0.047
IND2	0.144	0.728	0.477	0.447	0.141	0.314
AIC	59.776	54.849	57.069	54.957	59.547	57.757
Percent correct	89.0	87.7	89.0	87.7	89.0	87.7
	<i>H1a is not supported</i>	<i>H2a is supported</i>	<i>H3a is supported</i>	<i>H4a is supported</i>	<i>H5a is not supported</i>	<i>H6a is supported</i>
Panel B: Implementation vs. Non-implementation						
Independent variable	ENV	PART	FORM	INT	IS	ATT
+	0.019 *	0.319 ***	0.043 ***	0.039 **	0.031 **	0.023 *
Constant	-1.934 **	-2.762 ***	-3.878 ***	-3.777 **	-3.179 **	-2.608 **
SIZE	1.401 *	1.017	1.164	1.458 *	1.557 **	1.694 **
IND1	0.524	0.331	0.838	0.917	0.927	0.601
IND2	-0.137	0.140	0.127	0.090	-0.148	-0.008
AIC	99.685	91.253	94.345	97.229	98.392	99.169
Percent correct	64.4	69.9	64.4	63.0	64.4	65.8
	<i>H1b is supported</i>	<i>H2b is supported</i>	<i>H3b is supported</i>	<i>H4b is supported</i>	<i>H5b is supported</i>	<i>H6b is supported</i>
Independent variable	TOP	CFO	TEAM	TRAIN		
+	0.048 ***	0.045 ***	0.048 ***	0.049 ***		
Constant	-4.822 ***	-4.371 ***	-4.486 ***	-4.435 ***		
SIZE	1.690 **	1.458 *	1.573 **	1.391 *		
IND1	0.761	0.869	1.013	0.765		
IND2	0.219	-0.036	0.107	0.320		
AIC	93.467	94.996	91.007	91.957		
Percent correct	69.9	68.5	69.9	64.4		
	<i>H7 is supported</i>	<i>H8 is supported</i>	<i>H9 is supported</i>	<i>H10 is supported</i>		

***, **, * indicates significance at 0.01, 0.05, and 0.10 level, respectively.

Hosmer-Lemeshow test results for each model suggest that the model is fit since the null cannot be rejected at 0.05 level.

Panel B, Table 10 reports the results of the binary logistic model for implementation part. Environment uncertainty is positively and significantly associated with reaching to implementation stage at 0.10 level. After adopting the BSC concept, firms have experienced some BSC-related administrative tasks; therefore, implementing BSC seems to slightly departure from the existing practices (Damanpour, 1996). Firms tend to derive key measures from strategy and illustrating them as a cause-and-effect relationship. The impacts of environment uncertainty on reaching the adoption and the implementation stage are

different. The extent that the direction for this external factor varies by stages highlights the importance of separating adoption from implementation. Participation, formalization, interconnectedness and information system are positively significant at 0.01, 0.01, 0.05 and 0.05 level, respectively. The higher degree of participation, formalization, interconnectedness, and information system positively put BSC into use by encouraging management to further improve a performance measurement system. Attitude toward BSC is positively but marginal significant at 0.10 level. CFO's attitude makes the implementation of BSC easier since CFO or accounting manager is customarily the head of the accounting and finance department. The positive relation between attitude and the usage (or implementation stage in this study) is also consistent with TAM studies. Furthermore, top management support, CFO's involvement, project team, and training are positively associated with reaching the stage of BSC implementation at 0.01 level. This confirms the role of top management in supporting the implementation of BSC. This evidence also promotes the role of CFO in developing the advanced performance measurement system, especially BSC, and complements the prior studies that rarely investigate this factor. Project team and training are also crucial factors for reaching BSC implementation stage.

Interestingly, this study has re-examined the implementation part by employing a firm's self-assessed responses about the BSC application. The untabulated results suggest that participation, top management supports, attitude toward BSC and training are positively significant at 0.05, 0.10, 0.05 and 0.05 significance level; however, environment uncertainty, formalization, interconnectedness, information system, CFO's involvement, and project team are insignificant. This illustrates different evidence of key determinants assisting firm to reach the implementation stage of BSC and, once again, cast doubts the prior results relying on the firms' self assessed responses.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has developed a systematic BSC framework for identifying BSC attributes along with BSC stages and provides the evidence of BSC practices in Thailand. The results also show that many firms differently interpret the BSC concept. Hence, it is important to accurately categorize the BSC stage before conducting any analysis (Burkert et al., 2010). Regarding determinant study, the determinants in some ways change with the stages of BSC application. This research concurrently contributes to BSC and TAM. The developed systematic BSC framework can be applied to future research; the findings of stage-dependent determinants suggest that researchers consider the stages of BSC application before selecting the variables to explain BSC application behavior. This study can be replicated to examine the BSC application in different contexts with larger sample size. Prior determinant and consequence studies can be re-performed by using BSC framework developed in this paper as a starting point for identifying BSC stage. Regarding limitation, self-response bias is common limitation of survey research. Some returned questionnaires select the interval range of percentage scores, instead of specifying the percentage; thus, this research follows Pholnaruksa (2007) by assigning the midpoint of interval range for the corresponding selected interval. As this study examines the application of BSC at the corporate level, not business unit level, the results should be carefully interpreted.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study is part of my dissertation in progress at Chulalongkorn Business School, Chulalongkorn University. I would like to thank my advisor, Asso.Prof.Vorasak Toommanon, for his helpful comments and suggestions. Any errors or omissions remain my responsibility.

VALUE OF RISK OF OPTION PORTFOLIOS USING MONTE CARLO SIMULATION UNDER A RISK-NEUTRAL STOCHASTIC IMPLIED VOLATILITY MODEL

Peng He

ABSTRACT

Value at Risk (VaR) of option portfolios are calculated using Monte Carlo simulation under a risk neutral stochastic implied volatility model. Comparing with the benchmark, namely delta-normal method, the model produces much more accurate result by taking account of nonlinearity, passage of time, non normality, changing of implied volatility. Two parameters in the model, namely the correlation between underlying and the at the money implied volatility and the volatility of percentage change of the at the money implied volatility, can explain market skew phenomena quite well and VaR changes with the two parameters as the terminal underlying price distribution does.

RISK NEUTRAL STOCHASTIC IMPLIED VOLATILITY MODEL

There are some compelling evidences that exchange-traded options prices do contain additional volatility information that can not backed out from the price information of the underlying security alone.(He and Yau(2007), Christensen and Prabhala(1998), Cao and Chen (2000) etc). Therefore instead of deriving prices for them, a pricing model should use their prices as input. Schonbucher (1998) and Ledoit and Santa Clara (1999) made this breakthrough and for the first time, in the financial literature, the implied volatility is modeled as an input rather than as an output. Hafner (2004) presented a factor-based model of the stochastic evolution of the implied volatility surface. On the other hand, directly modeling the dynamics of implied volatilities is required by the nature of some exotic derivatives based on ATM (At the Money) implied volatility of an option written on a reference asset.

In previous paper (He and Yau (2006)), we develop a risk-neutral diffusion model for the stochastic market implied volatility. Unlike Hafner (2004) and Ledoit and Santa Clara (1998), we think modeling whole implied volatility surface is dangerous because it is very difficult to guarantee no arbitrage between the options with different strikes during the diffusion process of the corresponding implied volatilities of those options. Instead, we only model one implied volatility. Our model setup is also different from Schonbucher (1998). We think the percentage movement of implied volatility is more appropriate to be modeled than the implied volatility itself. The reason is the same as why people model the percentage movement of underlying asset price as opposed to underlying asset price itself. Furthermore this modification can ensure implied volatility to be positive during the diffusion process. After the proper setup, the risk-neutral drift term of stochastic implied volatility is derived, which is necessary to be no-arbitrage. We proved that the implied volatility of At-the-Money options mature immediately should converge to underlying volatility at rate of time to maturity, which specifies the stochastic process of underlying volatility. Finally the model is developed as follows:

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \theta_t S_t dW_t \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
d\delta_t(\tau, X=1) = & \left(\frac{\delta_t^3}{24} - r\theta_t\right)dt + \left(r - \frac{\delta_t^2}{2}\right)\beta\rho dt \\
& + \delta_t\beta dZ + \partial_K\delta_t rS_t dt + \partial_K\delta_t\theta_t S_t dW_t \\
& + \frac{1}{2}\partial_K^2\delta_t\theta_t^2 S_t^2 dt + \theta_t S_t\beta\partial_K\delta_t\rho dt + \partial_T\delta_t dt
\end{aligned}
\tag{2}$$

$$\theta_t = \delta_t(\tau=0, X=1) \tag{3}$$

Where θ_t is instantaneous underlying volatility. $\delta_t(\tau, X)$ is the relative implied volatility indexed by time to maturity τ and moneyness $X = K/S_t$, the ratio between strike and underlying price. So $\delta_t(\tau=0, X=1)$ is the implied volatility of ATM option maturing immediately. ρ is the correlation coefficient between one Brownian motion Z and another Brownian motion W . β is the volatility of percentage change of implied volatility.

To simplify the model to be useful in practice, we assume $\partial_K\delta_t$, $\partial_K^2\delta_t$ and $\partial_T\delta_t$ be zeros. The assumption is reasonable because empirical observation find out that ATM implied volatilities typically keep the same or change little for small strike (or underlying price) change and small maturity time change. This is in accordance with traders' "sticky delta rule".

It is impossible to find any analytical solution to the above equations. For the complicated probabilistic system, Monte-Carlo simulation is the method to use.

Given a proper initial ATM implied volatility $\delta_0(0, X=1)$ or underlying volatility θ_t , underlying price S_0 , interest rate r and two model parameters β, ρ , this dynamic system can be simulated from time 0 to time T as following:

1. Suppose at any time $t, 0 < t \leq T$, we have got S_t, θ_t (or $\delta_t(t, X=1)$) and now we want to simulate $S_{t+\Delta t}$ and $\theta_{t+\Delta t}$ at time $t + \Delta t$, which $t + \Delta t \leq T$. The short time interval $\Delta t = (T - 0) / N$.
2. At time t , generate the random next increment $\Delta W_t, \Delta Z_t$ of Brownian motion for use over the current time interval $[t, t + \Delta t]$. Since $\Delta W_t, \Delta Z_t$ are correlated, we set

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta W_t &= \varepsilon_{1,t} \sqrt{\Delta t} \\
\Delta Z_t &= \varepsilon_{1,t} \rho \sqrt{\Delta t} + \varepsilon_{2,t} \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} \sqrt{\Delta t}
\end{aligned}$$

Where $\varepsilon_{1,t}, \varepsilon_{2,t}$ are two independent random numbers from standard normal distribution.

3. Approximate the solution of SDE equation for the underlying price by

$$\ln S_{t+\Delta t} = \ln S_t + (r - \frac{\theta_t^2}{2})\Delta t + \theta_t \Delta W_t$$

The simulation equation for the underlying volatility is based on Euler approximation. It is given by

$$\theta_{t+\Delta t} = \theta_t + (\frac{\theta_t^3}{24} - r\theta_t)\Delta t + ((r - \frac{\theta_t^2}{2})\beta\rho\Delta t + \theta_t\beta dZ$$

With $S_{t+\Delta t}$, $\theta_{t+\Delta t}$, now start to compute parameters at time $t + \Delta t$, return to Step 1, reset t to $t + \Delta t$ and iterate until time T generate trajectories of S_t and θ_t .

COMPUTATION OF VALUE AT RISK OF OPTION PORTFOLIOS

The measurement of financial market risk is of primary importance for senior management and regulators. Value at risk (VaR) summarizes the worst loss of a portfolio over a given period of time with a given level of confidence. VaR has become widely used by financial institutions, corporations and asset managers. The Basle Committee on Banking Supervision (BIS) and other central bank regulators also use VaR as a benchmark risk measure to determine the minimum amount of capital a bank is required to maintain as reserves against market risk. There are two approaches to compute VaR. The first approach use local valuation. Local valuation methods measure risk by valuing the portfolio once, at the initial time 0, and using local derivatives to deduce the possible movements. The second approach uses full valuation. Full valuation methods measure risk by fully repricing the portfolio over a number of scenarios. In the local valuation approach, the delta-normal method is most commonly used by practitioners to calculate the VaR of option portfolios. It uses the linear, or delta derivatives and assume normal distributions. The well-known formula is applied.

$$VaR(\alpha, \phi, T) = c_{N(0,1)}(\alpha) S_0 |D_\phi| \nu_{R_T}$$

Where $c_{N(0,1)}(\alpha)$ is the α -quantile of the standard normal distribution. S_0 is the initial underlying price. $|D_\phi|$ is the absolute delta of the option portfolio. ν_{R_T} is the volatility of return of the underlying during holding period $[0, T]$.

The full valuation approach uses Monte Carlo simulation or historical simulation to generate the probability distribution for ΔV_T . Let ΔV_T^j denote the change in portfolio value over $[0, T]$ in scenarios $j = 1, \dots, J$. Then the distribution function $F_{\Delta V_T}(x)$ of ΔV_T can be approximated by

$$\hat{F}_{\Delta V_T}(x) = \sum_{\substack{j=1, \dots, J \\ \Delta V_T^j \leq x}} \frac{1}{J}$$

We will then do a case study to show the difference the delta-normal method and the paper Monte Carlo simulation approach. Let us consider two option portfolios. Let us suppose the underlying price is 100 and risk free interest rate is 0.

The two portfolios consist of the following instruments.

- Portfolio 1 (PF1): A long position in 100 call option with strike $K = 100$ and maturity date is 42 days away
- Portfolio 2 (PF2): A long position in 100 ATM straddles (long position both in call and put option with same strike and same maturity) with strike $K = 100$ and maturity date is 42 days away.

At time zero, the portfolio values $V_0^{PF_i}, i = 1, 2$, are:

$$V_0^{PF_1} = 100 * C_0(S_0 = 100, K = 100, r = 0,$$

$$\sigma = 0.4, 42/365) = 541.90$$

$$V_0^{PF_2} = 100 * (C_0(S_0 = 100, K = 100,$$

$$r = 0, \sigma = 0.4, 42/365)$$

$$+ P_0(S_0 = 100, K = 100, r = 0,$$

$$\sigma = 0.4, 42/365)) = 1081.80$$

The objective of the following analysis is to compute the VaR for both portfolios over 1 business and 10 business day. The confidence level is set to 95%.

Let us first consider the delta normal method. The Black Scholes deltas for the above call and put option are 0.5270, -0.4730. So the portfolio deltas are:

$$D_{PF_1} = \frac{\partial V_0^{PF_1}}{\partial S} = 100 * 0.5270 = 52.70$$

$$D_{PF_2} = \frac{\partial V_0^{PF_2}}{\partial S} = 100 * (0.5270 - 0.4730) = 5.41$$

Using $C_{N(0,1)}(5\%) = 1.645$, and volatility 0.4, the VaR for each portfolio and each holding period is then computed according to the formulas. The result is listed in Table1 column “Delta-normal”.

Let us consider Monte Carlo simulation. The parameters we choose here are $\theta_0 = 0.4, \rho = -0.5, \beta = 1$. Following the procedure described as above, we generate 10,000 scenarios of S, σ over the time horizon $[0, T]$, where T equals 1 business day or 10 business days, respectively. For each scenario, we compute the portfolio value and the change in portfolio value. This provides us with a simulated distribution function $\hat{F}_{\Delta V_T}(x)$. Given $\hat{F}_{\Delta V_T}(x)$, VaR is easily computed as the negative α – quantile of ΔV_T . The result is listed in Table 1 column “Paper Monte Carlo”.

As shown in the Table 1, the VaR computed under delta normal method is quite different from the one computed under paper Monte Carlo simulation. For portfolio 2 under the delta-normal method, the VaR is lower than the VaR under paper Monte Carlo simulation, whereas for portfolio 1 it is opposite. This can be explained as follows: Since the straddle position is almost delta neutral, so the VaR is very small under delta-normal method. This, however, indicate one disadvantage of delta-normal method. Delta-normal method is linear approximation, which can not capture the nonlinearity of options. In this case, the straddle position is exposed to relative big Gamma risk and the Gamma is the quadratic part. On the other

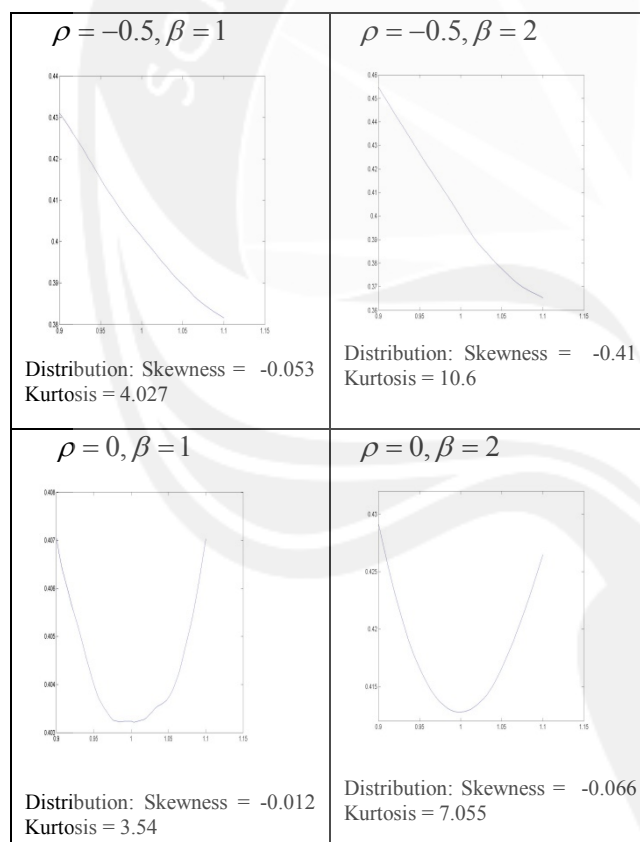
hand, considering portfolio 1, the delta-normal method produces higher VaR than it should be. The obvious example is that 10-day holding period VaR for portfolio 1 under Delta normal method is 694 Dollar. The maximum amount of money one can lose when holding that call option, Portfolio 1 over 10 days (or any day) is the initial option premium, i.e. 541.90 Dollar. The reason why delta normal method produces too high VaR for portfolio 1 is that the delta normal method does not account for the time decay of option prices.

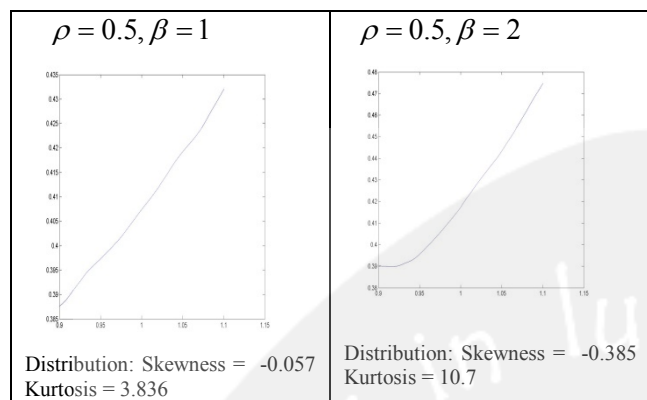
Table 1: Delta-normal VaR and Paper Monte Carlo simulation VaR (in U.S. Dollars) for a confidence level of 95%

Holding Period	Delta-normal		Paper Monte Carlo	
	1 Day VaR	10 Day VaR	1 Day VaR	10 Day VaR
Portfolio 1	219	694	207	497
Portfolio 2	23	71	109	373

Note: the components in Portfolio 1 and Portfolio 2 are mentioned in the paper.

Figure1 Implied volatility Curve and The moments of Log Terminal Underlying Price Distribution





Note: Simulated Implied Volatility Curves for options with maturity of 42 days. The initial underlying volatility θ_0 is 0.4 and interest rate r is 0. The moments (Skewness and Kurtosis) are the moments of log terminal underlying price distribution under simulation. In particular,

$\ln(S_T / S_0)$. S_T is the terminal underlying price and S_0 is the initial underlying price.

In fact, besides nonlinearity and passage of time, there are two other effects which are not captured in the delta normal method, non-normality and implied volatility variations. The delta normal method assumes that the underlying return R_T is normally distributed. However convincing empirical studies have shown that underlying return tend to exhibit fat-tailed distributions. In other words, extremely low and high returns have greater probability than assigned by the normal distribution. The kurtosis of the log Terminal Price distribution for the above parameter set is 4.06, which explains fat-tailed distribution. In addition, the delta normal method assumes a constant underlying volatility, and thus constant implied volatilities. In fact, implied volatilities change over time. In contrast, the paper Monte Carlo simulation capture all the effects mentioned above. It is a much better method to compute VaR. The only disadvantage of the paper Monte Carlo simulation is computation time. However using today's more and more powerful computer, the computation runs faster and faster.

Next we will study how VaR changes with parameters in the paper model, namely β and ρ . Those two parameters can explain market skew phenomena quite well. For zero correlation between the underlying and volatility ($\rho = 0$), the implied volatility curve is symmetric and skewness is around zero. Smile-shape volatility curves are commonly observed for options on a foreign currency. Our analysis is consistent with the empirical study (Bates 1996), which show that the correlation between implied volatilities and the exchange rate is close to zero. For negative correlation ($\rho < 0$), the implied volatility curve is skewed to left and skewness is negative. Skew-shape volatility curves are commonly observed for options on equities and equity indices. Our analysis is consistent with the empirical study (Christie 1982), which show the volatility of an equity price tend to be negatively correlated with the equity price. For positive correlation ($\rho > 0$), the implied volatility curve is skewed to right and skewness is positive. The bigger the absolute value of ρ , the more skewed of the curve and the bigger the absolute value of skewness. On the other hand, the volatility of percentage change of implied volatility β has a effect on the curvature of implied volatility curves. With other parameter held fixed, the larger the β , the larger the curvature of the implied volatility curve, the larger the kurtosis.

VaR of the two option portfolios for different β and ρ are calculated and the results are listed in the Table 2. The higher the skewness and kurtosis of the log terminal underlying distribution ($\ln S_T$), the higher VaR value of both option portfolios.

Table 2 Paper Monte Carlo simulation VaR of two option portfolios for different β and ρ (in U.S. Dollars) for a confidence level of 95%

β	ρ	Skewness	Kurtosis	Portfolio 1	
				1 Day VaR	10 Day VaR
1	-0.5	-0.053	4.027	207	497
1	0	-0.012	3.54	206	492
1	0.5	-0.057	3.836	206	497
2	-0.5	-0.409	10.578	224	514
2	0	-0.066	7.055	225	512
2	0.5	-0.385	10.728	226	513

β	ρ	Skewness	Kurtosis	Portfolio 2	
				1 Day VaR	10 Day VaR
1	-0.5	-0.053	4.027	109	373
1	0	-0.012	3.54	113	393
1	0.5	-0.057	3.836	109	369
2	-0.5	-0.409	10.578	203	537
2	0	-0.066	7.055	213	573
2	0.5	-0.385	10.728	202	546

Note: the components in Portfolio 1 and Portfolio 2 are mentioned in the paper.

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DOES TECHNOLOGICAL OVERSHOOTING EXIST IN THE JAPANESE MINIVAN MARKET?

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ABSTRACT

This study empirically examines whether technological overshooting for product attributes existed in the Japanese minivan market between 2001 and 2008 using a hedonic approach and the compound average growth rate (CAGR) for product attributes. The result of the hedonic regression shows that interior space did not affect consumer utility during 2001 and 2008. Also, major growth in interior space was not seen, according to the CAGR during this period. Therefore, we conclude that technological overshooting has not been confirmed in the Japanese minivan market.

JEL: L62; M10

KEYWORDS: technological overshooting, marginal utility, hedonic approach, CAGR

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to empirically examine, using a statistical method, whether or not technological overshooting for product characteristics existed in the Japanese minivan market between 2001 and 2008. Technological overshooting is the term used to describe the phenomenon of excessive competition for product characteristics that do not have an effect on consumer satisfaction. Technological overshooting has received attention within the scope of corporate strategy and technology management. In particular, many case studies of technological overshooting have been examined in recent years (e.g., Christensen, 1997), but there has been little empirical research on this subject. For these reasons, we suggest an empirical framework for identifying technological overshooting and apply it to the Japanese minivan market. The result of this study shows that technological overshooting was not confirmed in Japanese minivan market.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Porter (1985) explains that unnecessary differentiation is the result of failure to diagnose a performance level that consumers need or “consumer marginal utility.” Similarly, according to Christensen (1997), once the performance level demanded of particular product attributes has been achieved as a result of the repetition of sustained innovation, customers indicate their satiation by being less willing to pay a premium price for continued improvement in those attributes. In this study, we define technological overshooting in terms of their arguments in two stages.

THE DEFINITION OF TECHNOLOGICAL OVERSHOOTING

The first stage of technological overshooting is defined as a condition that saturates the needs of a customer for product characteristics. In other words, this is a condition where the consumer marginal utility for product attributes is zero. By contrast, if the value of consumer marginal utility is a positive or negative number, we conclude that the first stage of overshooting has not occurred because of increasing or downsizing of the number of product characteristics to increase consumer utility. The second stage is defined as a situation where excessive differentiation by companies occurs in the space for product attributes that do not influence consumer utility. At this stage, we consider that technological

overshooting has occurred. This is determined based on the growth rate of the functional value in companies.

METHODOLOGY

Identifying Technological Overshooting: Hedonic Approach And CAGR

First, our research adopts a hedonic approach for specifying the first stage of technological overshooting. It is known that regression coefficients in the hedonic function coincide with the marginal utility of product characteristics (Rosen, 1974). In this research, if the regression coefficients are statistically significant, and if an increasing or lowering of functional values positively affects consumer utility, we do not consider that overshooting has occurred at this point. Conversely, if the coefficients were statistically zero, we would suspect that technological overshooting has occurred. Second, we need to show the growth rate of a functional value that has a marginal utility equal to zero. Therefore, this research uses the compound average growth rate (CAGR). This means the year-over-year growth rate of a functional value over a specified time, and can be expressed as:

$$\text{CAGR} = \left(\frac{\text{Ending functional value}}{\text{Beginning functional value}} \right)^{\frac{1}{n \text{ of years}}} - 1 \quad (1)$$

CAGR is calculated by using the average of the functional value on a company-by-company basis. The interpretation of the CAGR depends on the direction of the product differentiation. Table 1 shows the conditions for the second stage of technological overshooting. If the CAGR of product attributes which do not have effect consumer utility is large in the direction of its differentiation, we regard this as an occurrence of technological overshooting.

Table 1: The conditions for the second stage of technological overshooting

Direction of Product Differentiation	CAGR
positive (e.g., acceleration of car)	large positive number
negative (e.g., response speed of PC)	large negative number
positive or negative (e.g., product size)	absolute value of CAGR is a large positive number

This table shows the conditions for the second stage of technological overshooting.

Data and Estimation

In this study, we selected the Japanese minivan market for research. The reason is that the market size is declining. At the same time as remarkable innovation, for instance the introduction of hybrid minivans, there is no denying that market size and share are falling. The data used for this study are from *SAISHIN MINIVAN ZEN MODEL KONYU GUIDE*, which is a special interest magazine on Japanese minivans published by the Japan Automobile Federation. A total of 199 samples of panel data covering 37 models were collected between 2001 and 2008. The dependent variable is price. Independent variables on product attributes include acceleration, interior space, and fuel efficiency. These are important characteristics used for empirical research in the automotive industry (e.g., Berry et al, 1995; Petrin, 2002). We collected these data from the most inexpensive grades. We also conducted a two-way fixed effect model to estimate the hedonic price function. As well, we used year dummy variables to control unobservable economic fluctuations.

RESULTS

Table 2 shows the result of hedonic regressions for specifying whether consumer marginal utility of a product attribute is zero. First, acceleration and fuel efficiency have a significant effect on price. Thus, we conclude that the raising or lowering of these attributes increases consumer utility and that overshooting did not occur in these characteristics at this point. By contrast, we can interpret this result as meaning that the marginal utility of interior space is zero. Therefore, we should assess the overshooting of interior space by CAGR.

Table 2: Result of Hedonic Regression (2001-2008)

Dependent Variable ln Price	Coefficient
ln acceleration (ps/weight)	0.144** (0.057)
ln fuel efficiency (km/l)	-0.274*** (0.074)
ln interior space (m ³)	-0.207 (0.135)
Year dummies (2002–2008)	yes
Constant	6.648*** (0.285)
R ²	0.372
p-val. F test	0.000
p-val. F test for fixed effects	0.000
P-val. F test for time fixed effects	0.000
N	199

The *, **, and ***, denote 10%, 5%, and 1% significance levels, respectively. Standard errors are in parentheses.

Here we discuss whether companies have increased functional value for interior space that satiates consumers. Table 3 provides information on the CAGR of interior space. First, looking at the CAGR between 2001 and 2008, Toyota, Honda, and Mazda have a small negative value. Therefore, we can say that the interior space in minivans from these companies was shrinking slightly. On the other hand, though the CAGRs from Nissan and Mitsubishi are positive numbers, the values are not large. For these reasons, we conclude that there is no intense competition for interior space and that technological overshooting is not confirmed by our investigation.

Table 3: CAGR of Interior Space (2001–2008)

Toyota	Nissan	Honda	Mazda	Mitsubishi	Average
-0.12	0.19	-0.92	-0.45	1.41	0.11

source: saishin minivan zen model konyu guide note: cagr is calculated by using the functional value of the most inexpensive grades.

CONCLUSION

The empirical results in this paper indicate that there was no overshooting in the Japanese minivan market. As such, this investigation contributes to a statistical understanding of the existence of technological overshooting. Hedonic regression to find product attributes where consumer satiation occurs can be used as a guideline for appropriate product design and for modifying investment plans for product characteristics. However, some aspects of this study require further research. We estimated the marginal utility of a representative agent in this study. On the other hand, if we assume that the marginal utility varies among buyers, we should correct for individual purchase data and apply a discrete choice model.

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THE IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY DISCLOSURE IN THE LIBYAN CONTEXT: EVIDENCE FROM MANAGERS

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ABSTRACT

This explains the importance and benefits for Libyan companies of engaging in corporate social responsibility disclosure (CSRD). The researchers have chosen the Libyan context as one of the world's developing countries and it has undergone many changes over a short period of time in terms of economic, environmental and social changes. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect data relating to CSRD in Libyan companies. Perceptions of financial managers interviewed as part of the study reveal that CSRD is important for company performance, not only in the developed countries but also in developing countries. This paper reveals that CSRD in the annual reports is very important in terms of attaining company objectives to: satisfy the interests of stakeholders; protect employee's interests; clarify the extent of contribution of the company in both CSR activities and CSRD; assist appropriate investment decisions. The perceived primary benefits of CSRD were enhanced company reputation, and increased financial performance. It also improves ability to attract foreign investors, and results in a higher level of consumer satisfaction leading to commercial benefits. Secondary benefits include demonstration of compliance with regulation and improved employee commitment.

KEYWORDS: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR); Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure (CSRD); Financial Performance; Corporate Reputation.

INTRODUCTION

The institutional context of the emerging economy of Libya has experienced dynamic change over the last ten years (Mateos 2005). The main influential factor that leads to and regulates the attitude and behaviour of Arab societies, including Libya, is the Islamic religion. According to Ali (1996) the Islamic religion organises the social life in family and other social organisations and maintain their endurance and influence. Changes in regulatory environment may have an impact on companies in terms of their disclosures, therefore the level of CSR disclosure has increased since 2000 in Libya compared to previous years (Pratten & Mashat 2009) due to pressures from stakeholders, which in turn may clarify the importance and the benefits of CSRD in the Libyan companies.

This also may refer to develop the concept of CSRD. The development of the concept of CSRD has been passed in the different stages; the first stage is the period 1970-1980. Empirical studies were focus on developing methods to measure the incidence of information disclosure by firms which was voluntary. Most frequently were disclosed about employees and product activities. At that time, managers, accountants, and the majority of their observers were not interested in environmental concerns, because it was invisible. Some empirical studies were used three environmental categories out of twenty seven (Ernst and Ernst, 1978 as cited in Mathews 1997). The second stage is the period 1980-1990. Many changes have appeared due to the focus of the social and environmental accounting literature, with increasing signs of specialization since 1980. For instance, value-added statements attracted a separate

group of adherents and employee reports (Burchell et al., 1985). Environmental disclosure has become of more concern than social disclosure, environmental disclosure and regulation consider an alternative means of reducing environmental damage. Legally enforceable accounting standards, Means of conceptual frameworks, and legislations are features of this period which contribute in the increase regulation of accounting disclosures. Empirical studies in this period were more analytical and less descriptive. The final stage is the period 1991-now. This stage has focussed on environmental issues within accounting on a broad front, including interest from managers as well as accountants. (Gray et al. 1995) argue that this stage has been characterized by the almost complete domination of environmental accounting with research on broader social reporting (including employee and ethical disclosures).

This research presents evidence from interviews with 24 financial managers and 7 information managers on the importance and the benefits of CSRD in Libya. The motivations for this research are that some companies consider CSR activities and its disclosure may bring a competitive advantage and External pressures consider catalyses other companies to engage in CSR activities and its disclosure (Branco & Rodrigues 2008). This research contributes to our knowledge about what the extent of the importance of disclosure of CSR activities information for stakeholders and what the potential benefits to the Libyan organisations that can be obtained from disseminating CSRD. There are few numbers of studies that focus on these questions in quantitative studies; however this research is the first study that depends on both quantitative and qualitative study to explain the importance and the benefits of CSRD in Libya. The research could obtain a deeper understanding on this subject than do prior articles based on interviews. Generally, this research expands the evidence that exists about both the importance and the benefits of CSRD. The majority of interviewees are that CSRD are considered as one of the most important reasons which help the Libyan companies to achieve their objectives, such as enhancing image and reputation; supporting financial performance; improving employee commitment, etc. These benefits gained CSRD the observed importance by different stakeholders. But few numbers of interviewees believe that CSRD is a minor element to improve the business performance in the Libyan context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CSRD has found an increasing amount of attention in both the academic and business organizations. Such disclosure includes the provision of information on human resource aspects, products and services, involvement in community activities and environmental reporting. Gray et al. (1995) state that "... It is not restricted necessarily by reference to selected information recipients, and the information deemed to be CSR may, ultimately, embrace any subject ...". Many quarters have recognized this view of CSR as a broad concept. Cleaner environment and better society for instance is regarded CSR as a concept whereby companies decide voluntarily by The European Commission (2001). The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) (1998) defines CSR as "the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as the local community and society at large" (Holme and Watts, 2000). Currently, making profits and element of CSR and accountability consider the main objective of business organizations in order to maintain corporate reputation and appropriate performance whereas in the previous years, the main objective of business organizations is making profits (Ghazali 2007).

A growth of nonfinancial reporting (disclosure) has relied on the evolution of the concept of CSR. This means, the company is responsible for its action. Indeed, stakeholders are asking companies to disclose their both social and environmental activities and their ability to improve the corporate process through nonfinancial reporting. In this regard, identifying, monitoring, and reporting all social, environmental, and

economic effects of its operation on society at large are concrete evidence that companies are committed to continual, long-term improvement, if they want to gain their stakeholders' trust and build a good reputation in the market (Brammer & Pavelin 2004).

Responsibilities of company differ toward their stakeholders regards economic, legal, and social in order to improve its organisational performance in terms of financial performance, employee commitment, and corporate reputation. In addition, the strategy of Corporate social responsibility is important (policy, programme or process) when it yields substantial business- related benefits to the firm, in particular by supporting core business activities and thus contributing to the firm's effectiveness in accomplishing its mission (Burke & Logsdon 1996). The blending of these responsibilities into complete corporate policy without losing sight of any of its commitment is the main challenge for the company. Additionally, in the long-term, the commitment of the company toward its stakeholders often lead to improved organisational performance, in other words, the economic responsibility of company might conflict with its social responsibility in the short-term, at the same time, they can work together to improve the company's image. Thus, this does not mean that socially responsible of the company cannot be as profitable as others. Currently, the common concept of CSR involves to voluntarily disclose companies about social and environmental concerns in their operations and interaction with stakeholders. It includes some complex issues such as environmental protection, human resources management, health and safety at work, relations with local communities, and relations with suppliers and consumers. In addition, Friedman (2002) presented the most famous definition of CSR as the economic concept of market value maximization that has support from shareholders. He asserts that the profit demands of the owners or shareholders and the basic regulations of society are consistent with the responsibility of a company.

As evidence of adherence of companies to CSR and sustainable development concepts, currently, there is a growth in numbers of multinational corporations as well as small- and medium-sized companies claim their social and environmental reporting practices. In a similar vein, the right way towards an overall comprehension of what practitioners consider efficient and appropriate socially responsible behaviour is represented by reporting-based analyses (David 2005). A company should disclose both the positive and negative impacts of CSR due to its business operation on labour standard, the environment, economic development, and human rights by CSR reporting. Furthermore, as a result of a general growth of the overall number of companies producing CSR reporting, currently there is a growth and expansion of CSR reporting to include a broad focus on social, economic, and governance issues although reporting was focused almost entirely on occupational health and safety and environmental issues (O'Rourke 2004).

CSRD has several roles which are included: Assessing the impacts of CSR activities; Measuring the effectiveness of CSR programs; Reporting on CSR; and External and internal information systems allowing the comprehensive assessment of all corporate resources and sustainability impacts (Jenkins & Yakovleva 2006). Many scholars have been asserted (Gray 2001; Gray et al. 1997; Mathews 1997) that the CSR has identified a number of stages in CSR's development. The first stage is the period 1970-1980. Empirical studies focused on developing methods to measure the incidence of information disclosure by firms which was voluntary. Most frequently were disclosed about employees and product activities. At that time, managers, accountants, and the majority of their observers were not interested in environmental concerns, because it was invisible. Some empirical studies were used three environmental categories out of twenty seven (Ernst and Ernst, 1978 as cited in Mathews 1997).

The second stage is the period 1980-1990. Many changes have appeared due to the focus of the social and environmental accounting literature, with increasing signs of specialization since 1980. For instance,

value-added statements attracted a separate group of adherents and employee reports (Burchell et al., 1985). Environmental disclosure has become of more concerned than social disclosure, environmental disclosure and regulation consider an alternative means of reducing environmental damage. Legally enforceable accounting standards, Means of conceptual frameworks, and legislations are features of this period which contribute to the increased regulation of accounting disclosures. Empirical studies in this period were more analytical and less descriptive. The final stage is the period 1991-now. This stage has focused on environmental issues within accounting on a broad front, including interest from managers as well as accountants. (Gray et al. 1995) argue that this stage has been characterized by the almost complete domination of environmental accounting with research on broader social reporting (including employee and ethical disclosures).

Two different types of motivations can lead companies in order to engage in CSR activities and disclosure. The first motivation is that some companies consider CSR activities and disclosure may bring a competitive advantage. For example, they think that having good relations with their stakeholders will obtain them a good financial performance, employee commitment, and corporate reputation by assisting in developing valuable intangible assets. External pressures (government, shareholders, consumers, etc.) consider the second motivation which catalyses other companies to engage in CSR activities and disclosure (Branco & Rodrigues 2008). These companies think that not doing CSR activities and disclosure will lead them to lose some their profitability, reputation and must be addressed to mitigate their effects. Social responsibility activities and disclosure constitute mainly a legitimacy instrument used by a company to demonstrate its adherence toward stakeholders in order to increase or maintain their financial performance, their image and their relationship with their stakeholders.

THE METHOD

This research method was used both quantitative and qualitative approach. The quantitative approach was employed the annual reports of the period of 2007 and 2009. The qualitative approach was to gather information from face to face of semi-structured interview (see Table 1). In general, the purpose of study is to investigate the perspective of financial managers and information managers of the firms in Libya about both the importance and benefits of CSRD. Data gathered from interviews was recorded by a note and tape recorders with financial managers and information managers of the firms enabled the researchers to gain the deeper insights on this issue in this research. The interviews took place between October 2010 and February 2011. Interviews lasted between twenty minutes to one hour and half. The meetings were held in the manager's office. As a result of the interview can explain issues in depth (Denzin & Lincoln 2000), it considers an appropriate technique for this research. Thus, it plays an important role in explanatory research. Interviews with one of the most important social and environmental stakeholder groups were conducted to help the researchers to gather data relevant to this issue. In addition, knowledge gathered from consulting with other researchers in CSRD and literature reviews enabled the researchers to design an interview guide with common questions in order to ask the interviewees.

Table 1: Profiles of interviewees

Sector Name	Financial Managers	Information Managers	Total
Manufacturing	8	4	12
Services	11	1	12
Banks and Insurance	4	2	6
Mining	1	0	1
Total	24	7	31
Participants rate	77%	23%	100%

THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 The Importance of CSRD In order to obtain a deeper understanding of this phenomenon, the following question was initially asked to interviewees about what the extent of the importance of disclosure CSR activities in their annual reports for stakeholders. Interviewees were also asked their personal opinions about CSRD. All interviewees confirmed that CSR activities and information play an important role toward their companies and society and the responsibility of their companies in society to achieve both social and economic benefits. The majority of interviewees emphasised that their companies attempt to achieve economic objectives through increasing profit, revenues and sales as well as social objectives. Two PhD theses provide the same findings for the responsibilities of the businesses toward society, and the roles of their business in society to be both social and economic are Momin (2006) and Aribi (2009). Aribi (2009) also mentioned that corporate policies for disclosing CSR information are determined very much by the profit objective, but not the only objective of these companies. In this regard, Abdulhamid et al.(2005) demonstrate that disclosure about social and environmental activities in the Libyan annual reports leads to some social and economic benefits which are reflected at the macro level. The interviews of this research believe that their companies should achieve both objectives, when their companies invest their money in any project. One of the information managers states that:

One of the most important goals in the Development Bank is to reject investment in projects that does not take into consideration the adverse impact of the project on the environment and hence this bank obligates the customer to get the agreement of the environmental management in order to obtain the requested loan.

One of the financial managers states that:

Management of the Company when investing in any project, it looks at the goals of economic and it does not disregard the benefits which will be obtained by this project to the community such as participation in addressing the problem of unemployment, employee training, etc., as the company is part of the community and should contribute in social activities for the development of society as a whole

All interviewees confirmed that the importance of CSR information in the annual reports is not less important than CSR activities; both of them can play a significant role to gain the company objectives. Abdulhamid et al. (2005) illustrate that information about CSR activities should reflect the interaction between the society and the management and should recognise the right of different stakeholders. The management also should inform all stakeholders about CSR information. They revealed that CSR information in the Libyan context is directed and limited to some interest from some stakeholders such as the General Assembly, the management (the company's Administration Board) and, the central Authorities (such as the security of Economy, the security of finance, the security of Industry, the Central Bank of Libya and the watchdogs bodies which include the Public Control Office and the Tax Office). However, all interviewees of this research believe that CSR information is one of the most important parts that clarify what the extent of committing their companies to contribute to CSR activities to most stakeholders. Some interviewees mentioned that CSR information are directed to some stakeholders such as employees, management, investors, customers, shareholders, government through annual reports (financial information, CSR information) to determine the following purposes: few employees use annual reports to help their companies to protect their interests. Shareholders use annual reports to know how to

use their funds; Investors use annual reports to help them in making investment decisions; Management uses annual reports to evaluate the company and to address the problems and correct negative deviations in the company through appropriate making a decision, as shown in the following quotations by some financial managers:

The management in this company supports full disclosure for the transparency cause and we review all activities in the annual report, you can apply this to everything when it is related to social activities.

We are preparing the annual report in order to show the real situation of the company either financially or socially, as we know that there are many parties that benefit from using this information to assess the situation of the company and know what the company achieved and its evidences during the year.

On the other hand, Ahmad, N.S.M. (2004) found that the Libyan companies did not inform employees about CSR information due to a lack of importance of this information to their employees, while the remaining stakeholders are interested in social and environmental information. Some interviewees illustrated that while CSR information is important to management, investors and shareholders, there is a lack of ability to comprehend CSR information by employees that in turn, may lead to their disregarding information included in annual reports. This view is obviously stated in the next quotations by some financial managers:

I believe that the information about the activities of social responsibility affect the decisions of management and shareholders and investors... But unfortunately, many employees were not aware of the importance of social activities, only a few employees know the importance of social activities and disclosure of them and their effects on the company.

Some interviewees believe that some Libyan companies are still under privatized. This means that the government companies have limited stakeholders such as government, management, customers, employee and creditors. These stakeholders except for the government cannot affect the policy of the company as the Libyan government possess all shares in these companies, while non-government companies which are listed in the Libyan stock market have all stakeholders such as investors, shareholders, customers, creditors and so on that can influence the policy of disclosure. The following quotation was stated by some financial managers.

Ownership base on the bank has a negative impact on the importance of this information for stakeholders and the financial benefits expected to provide this information.

Abdulhamid et al.(2005) also revealed that stakeholders of the Private companies in the Libyan context see a main influence of the disclosure of CSR information on the environment, in particular manufacturing companies whilst the service companies may perceive little influence of CSR information on the environment. The importance of CSR information differs from one category to another. Most interviewees in banks and insurance sector as well as services sectors considered employee information and customer information in annual reports to be more important than others. In this regard with a simple difference, all interviewees in manufacturing and mining sectors confirmed the importance of employee information, environmental information and customers' information compared with community

involvement information to all stakeholders excepting society. Some financial manager stated in the following quotation:

Service companies such as ours are interested in social activities and information about the employees, and information relating to customers, considering that this information helps the company's decision-making that in turns, is reflected in the improved financial performance for the company and hence these companies disclose this information more.

Another interviewee supported this view in the following quotation:

I believe that the industrial companies such as this company take into account the environmental impacts that may affect their workers and the community, particularly the places that surround it as, it cares about workers and the quality of the product because these activities and these information affect the performance of the organization.

This is general information about the importance of CSR and CSRD for the Libyan companies and the extent of the importance of CSR activities and information to achieve the company objectives. In summary, the main reasons of CSR activities and information are used to achieve the interests of stakeholders. CSR activities and information in annual reports explain the extent of the contribution of the company in CSR activities towards society to stakeholders; to assist the company in order to protect the employees' interests; to make investment decisions and to determine how the management use their funds; and to make appreciate decisions.

4.2 Benefits of CSRD A number of theories in the accounting literature have presented some justifications for disclosing CSR information in annual reports and hence stakeholder theory was used in this study to answer the question regarding what determines that motivates companies to disclose social information. Some benefits were mentioned in the accounting literature for companies disclosing CSR information in developed countries; however, the benefits of CSRD in developing countries are still ignored and ambiguous due to a few of the studies in the accounting literature related to answer the previous question. Interviewees clarified different causes as shown in Table 2.

Most interviewees mentioned that there are two types of benefits for disclosing CSR information in annual reports. The main benefits include an increase in the company profitability, the extent of management attention for disclosing of CSR information, enhancing the company image, helping the management to make decisions, informing stakeholders about the company's contribution to community service and transparency. Thirteen of interviewees believe that providing positive CSR information in annual reports helps a company to support its financial performance. In this vein that twelve stated that the financial support has obtained by encouraging and attracting some stakeholders such as investors and consumers. In addition, twelve see that the growth of social and environmental awareness of the Libyan management has given more attention for disclosing of CSR information in annual reports, because such practices helps Libyan companies to make appropriate decisions. Six of interviewees see that the competition is an involved factor in improving a company performance, whilst only one says that the disclosure of social and environmental information has led to increase productivity.

Table 2: Perception of Interviewees on Causes and benefits for Disclosing CSR information

Number of Interview	The Percents of Interviews	Causes and Benefits of Discloser
Improving Financial Performance:		
13 out of 31	42%	Encourage and attract investors and customers
12 out of 31	39%	Supporting the organisation profit
12 out of 31	39%	Making-decision
6 out of 31	19%	Competition
1 out of 31	3%	Improving productivity
Regulation and Management:		
3 out of 31	10%	Requirements of stock market
3 out of 31	10%	International Accounting Standards
5 out of 31	16%	Environmental law
3 out of 31	10%	Management
19 out of 31	61%	Enhancement / creation of the company's image/reputation
16 out of 31	52%	Informing their stakeholders about the company's contribution to community service
14 out of 31	45%	Transparency
2 out of 31	6%	Improving employee commitment

Table 2 shows the perception of financial managers and information managers about the benefits that motivate the company to disclose CSR information in its annual reports. This is also evident in the following comment:

This company does not prepare annual reports for nothing; it has some reasons and benefits for emerging social activities.

Furthermore, sixteen mentioned that Libyan companies use CSR information for informing their stakeholders about the company's contribution to community service. Moreover, fourteen of the interviewees believe that transparency is considered as one of the most important motivations types that have led to the disclosure of social and environmental information, and it is also one of the most advantages of the top management. More specific, Armitage and Marston (2008) revealed that transparency in emerging CSR information may lead to: promoting integrity within the company and in its dealings with stakeholders; promoting confidence on the part of shareholders and other stakeholders; being part of what is expected of a good corporate citizen; helping non-executive directors to understand the business. Aribi, Z. A. (2009, p. 180) indicated that 'disclosing social responsibility information for the reason of transparency might be considered as a form of motivation for the top management to reveal such information'. Momin (2006) also revealed that companies in Bangladesh have a social obligation, and 'CSR practices are driven by the altruistic motivation of discharging such obligation by providing information to society, accepting that stakeholders have the right to know about the corporation in more detail'. In addition, he indicates that the increase of CSR of awareness has given encouragement to managers to use CSR information. Nineteen of interviewees that CSR practices could enhance/create the company reputation and the company image, and thus the company works to make strong communication with stakeholders, in particular its external stakeholders whom they think important for continuing their operation.

They think that creating or enhancing Reputation and profitability regardless long term or short term are often made by public relation exercises, and are essentially paying attention with investors and consumers. Thus, the effect of CSRD on society has been referred to as tactics that possibly enable the companies to affect this perception (Deegan 2002). Two theses of Momin (2006) and Aribi, Z.A.(2009) also appears that emerging CSR activities in annual reports allow the company to enhance its reputation and its image through focus on its stakeholders or a marketing attention-grabber that is aimed at attracting consumers and investors and this has given benefits in long term and short term. Graham et al. (2005) that

the main motivation for disclosure is a reputation enhancement for transparency. In the same way, Eccles and Mavrinac (1995) stated that the main benefit of disclosure improvement is increased management credibility in enhancing disclosure of quality. Lundholm & Van Winkle (2006) emphasize on the importance of obtaining shareholder confidence to achieve the purpose of disclosure that lead to increasing the share price through reducing scepticism about the company's future. The following comments by financial managers support the perceptions in table 2:

We believe that the company focuses on achieving some goals more than others, when it discloses information about social activities conducted in their annual reports. For example, the company focuses on enhancing the company's image, improving its financial performance and transparency, ...making the right decision... publicizing the company and its activities to all stakeholders....through conveying what has been done during the year to stakeholders such as owners, shareholders, investors and other... and the benefits are greater if the management of the company is convinced of the importance of disclosure of this information.

The secondary benefits that help the management to achieve some objectives are regulation and improving employee commitment. In this regard, Momin (2006) indicates that companies that are not responsive will not be able to survive and therefore companies will comply with regulations and standards. Three of the interviewees stated that Libyan companies which are listed in the Libyan stock market obligates disclosing for CSR information through the requirements of the stock market, while another three said that a company uses international Accounting standards which are considered as one of the main reasons for disclosing CSR information in its annual reports. Five confirmed that applied the environmental laws in a manufacturing company helps in disclosing CSR information. Regarding employee commitment, two see that disclosing CSR information might be considered as one of the forms of benefits for the management to reveal such information. The following comments by financial managers support the perceptions in table 2:

In fact, we believe that the dissemination of this information in the annual report will have a role in supporting the commitment of the employee and, also takes into account the application of law, but the commitment of employees is not non-core with most companies.

On the other hand, interviewees who are working in the manufacturing companies which are listed on the stock market believe that the company is committed to preparing annual reports according to regulations, in particular environmental laws and the requirements of the stock market because if the company did not apply these laws, this will be costly. Therefore, applying these laws can be effective as the most important factor for disclosing CSR information. Some financial managers stated in the following quotation:

Industrial companies such as steel and cement industry specifically committed to the application of laws that are interested in social activities in general and in particular environmental activities, hence it tries to show in the annual reports to avoid negative effects on the share price and reduce the profitability of the investor in the company.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to explain the importance and the benefits of CSRD in the annual reports of the Libyan context, as perceived by financial managers and information managers of the four sectors (manufacturing sector, banks and insurance sector, the services sector and mining sector), using a

theoretical framework which combines stakeholder theory. This framework shows that an importance of CSR disclosure related to four categories (environmental activities, consumer activities, community activities and employee activities) to stakeholders. The focus on this topic is motivated by the emphasis in the prior accounting literature review on the reasons for disclosing CSR information as a primary motivation by which disclosure policy can influence the company performance. Managers and employees increasingly require considering SRD as a signal of improved CSR conduct in those fields because disclosure affects the business performance such as a company's reputation. CSR disclosure also leads to important results in the creation or deletion of other fundamentally intangible resources, and may help build a positive image with employees and managers. By demonstrating that a company does emerge CSR activities for their enhancing organisational performance, whereas non-emerging CSR can destroy organisational performance for a company, hence stakeholders require their companies to disclose CSR activities in their annual reports.

Furthermore, this paper presents some details about the effects of some factors on CSRD in the Libyan environment context. Social, cultural, political, economic and legal factors are considered as the one of the most main effective factors in the business performance and accounting through CSRD. This paper provides evidence from these managers about the importance and the benefits of CSR information for the company. The most important results are consistent with prior accounting research conducted in both developed and developing countries. Our experience with CSRD in Libya suggests that CSRD are often unimportant at being unable to prove the worth of CSR information. The results of this paper should help address concerns often expressed by stakeholders about the importance of dissemination CSR information in the annual reports. In particular, the results of this paper should be of value to managers concerned with the company performance on the whole. The companies can reap the major benefits from disclosing CSR information such as improving its financial performance through attracting some investors and consumers, improving its competition in the Libyan market, supporting the company profit, making-decision and improving productivity. They are also able to obtain tangible benefits such as enhancing the company of image/ reputation, improving the company of employee commitment. The results explains some reasons for disclosing CSR information in the annual reports such as requirements of the stock market, applying international accounting standards, environmental laws, the growth of social and environmental awareness of the Libyan management and transparency.

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THE PRICE OF STOCKS IN LATIN AMERICAN FINANCIAL MARKETS: AN EMPIRICAL APPLICATION OF THE OHLSON MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The emergence of the Latin American market and its growing importance are factors that attract global investors to this region with an eye on profit opportunities, a situation that demands a reliable instrument for the calculation of future stock prices of regional companies. This study examined the reliability and validity of the use of the Ohlson Model to predict Latin American stock prices through an empirical application of a panel data analysis of 1,112 companies from this region with data from 2002 to 2009. The findings identified the countries in Latin America where the model can be used successfully.

KEYWORDS: Ohlson Model, Latin American, Stock Prices

INTRODUCTION

Calculating the value of a firm is of paramount importance; identifying and defining the broad spectrum of factors that influence the prices of stock have been a challenge for the scientific community, who has proposed different models with different approaches. The Ohlson Model attempts to determine the market value of a company's stock from accounting data. This model has attracted considerable attention (Ota, 2002) and has had the greatest impact on the relevant literature in recent years (Larrán & Piñero, 2005). It has the advantage over other models in that the accounting information is available for all the listed companies. Even though much research has been done using the Ohlson Model in the United States and Western European and Asian countries, few research exists about Latin America. Therefore a research opportunity exists in the literature, focusing on probing the validity and applicability of the Ohlson Model to stock markets from Latin American countries, which have great development potential. To fill this gap, this study attempted to answer the following research question:

Can the Ohlson Model be used to determine the stock prices in countries of Latin America?

LITERATURE REVIEW

As Milton Friedman stated in his "Price Theory" (2007), the allocation of resources among different uses sets the price of one item relative to another. Other authors have developed models and theories in their efforts to explain the price of assets. For instance, Sharpe (1964) developed the Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) and Ross (1976) offered the Asset Pricing Theory (APT), while Wei (1988) made an effort to unify these two. There are other models based on dividends and on cash flow, such as the Discounted Cash Flows (DCF's), which have several drawbacks, such as difficulty calculating expected dividends and the fact that cash flows are distributions of wealth instead of creation (Penman, 1992).

The Ohlson Model must be regarded as a breakthrough, with the price based on the expected future earnings (Penman, 1992), and with the condition of the use of clean surplus accounting. The Ohlson Model is presented by of James Ohlson in "Earnings, Book Value and Equity Valuation" (1995), and later

in “Valuation and Clean Surplus Accounting for Operating and Financial Activities” by Feltham and Ohlson (1995). The models developed in both works relate the accounting information to the firm value. Basically they assume that the value of a stock can be calculated from the book value and the net present value of the abnormal earnings; that is, the earnings a company makes above the cost of the money used to make them, discounted at a risk free rate, in an accounting system that is based on the clean surplus.

The Ohlson Model has provided a solid theoretical framework for the market-based studies through the clean surplus approach (Walker, 1997). The literature currently contains several important empirical research studies based on this model. The study written by Ota (2001) had a very clear mathematical development of the Ohlson Model and showed a great concern with the difficulty in estimating the factor for “Other Information” variables that affect the future performance of a firm. A study by Duran, et. al. (2007) attempted to validate the application of the model to Mexico’s companies.

Another study by Giner & Íñiguez (2006) corroborated the predictive ability of the Ohlson (1995) and Feltham Ohlson (1995) models from future earnings. For their study, they took non-financial companies from the Madrid stock market from 1991 to 1999, using book value and earnings. The simplifications they used were the same as those used by Duran, et. al. (2007), using earnings instead of abnormal earnings and discarding financial companies without a proper justification.

METHODOLOGY

Data from the Osiris Data base was used for analysis. First a Pooled Regression was made and compared with the panel data analysis for data from 2002 to 2009 for several countries from Latin America. More than 23,000 observations for 2,912 listed companies in 34 countries were used.

Adopting the Ohlson Model used by Collins, et al. (1999), and taking the model:

$P_t = y_t + \alpha_1 x_t^a + \alpha_2 \gamma_t$ with a few notation changes; that is, $y_t = BV_t$ and $x_t^a = AE_t^a$ we arrive at:

$$P_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 BV_{it} + \alpha_2 AE_{it}^a + \alpha_3 \gamma_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

The variables for this model are expressed in thousands of dollars at the closing date of each year. For this model, P_{it} was “MarketCap0atclosingdatethUSD” as the dependent variable, which is the total value of a company. The Book Value BV_{it} one of the independent variables, “ShareholdersFundsthUSD”, and the abnormal Earnings was estimated by the variable “NetIncomethUSD” as is seen in Duran, et al, (2007). The term γ_{it} , which stands for other information that affects the price, was neglected due to the difficulties in estimating this parameter, (Ota, 2001).

With this model, a panel data analysis, was made because of the considerable advantages that it offers (O’Connell, 2007), such as the control of unobservable firm-specific effects that are difficult to measure. The panel data analysis has the advantage of allowing the identification of countries and/or time periods where accounting conservatism is different (O’Connell, 2007). The use of US dollars in every country gives the advantage of easy comparability, and the cost of money would be the same for all the countries. Observations with no market capitalization or negative market capitalization values were eliminated from the study. The countries that had less than 5 companies left after this adjustment were also discarded. Only 13 countries were left, for a total of 1,112 companies, with a total of 8,896 observations. The first analysis done was a pooled OLS regression. A panel data estimation was used and compared with the pooled OLS regression using a Lagrangian Multiplier test for random effects. The Panel Analysis with

fixed effects was then tested and compared. If both of these analyses were better than the pooled regression, a Hausman test would be used to determine which one is better.

RESULTS

With this pooled Regression OLS, the R square value is 0.6931 and the overall F test was displayed with a 0.0000 value, which allowed rejection of the null hypothesis; therefore, it was concluded that the model is valid. The p values for the individual coefficients, the constant, and the independent values were shown to be statistically significant, with values of 0.000 in each case. All the coefficients were positive, and this was consistent with the theoretical expected values for the Ohlson Model. A panel data analysis allowed control of each company. In this second step, the Generalized Least Square (GLS) random effects estimator was analyzed so that the model assumed that each company had a different constant.

The results of the analysis showed that the R square within, which is, the explained variation within companies, was 0.5064, while the R square between had a value of 0.7317 and the overall R Square of almost .70; this was a very good overall value. All of the coefficients were positive with P values of zero, so the model and the variables were significant and had the expected sign: the model can be used.

To determine whether a pooled regression or random effects, was better, a statistical probe of the null hypothesis could be performed, for this, a test formulated by Breusch and Pagan, known as the Lagrangian Multiplier test for random effects was used. From the results of this test, the null hypothesis can be rejected, given that the P value of the Chi Square was 0.0000. Therefore, it could be concluded that the random effects were relevant; the random effect model was better than the pooled regression model.

Another model that was tested is the fixed effects regression model. The R square values were very similar to the random effects model, and the p value for the F test was 0.0000. Thus it could be assumed that this is a valid model. The values for Shareholder and Net Income variables were positive and statistically significant. To determine whether the fixed or random effect model was better a Hausman test was used. The Test demonstrated that the difference between the fixed and the random coefficients could be used to test the null hypothesis: The null hypothesis was rejected, so the fixed effect model was used.

Then a vector of dichotomic variables was added for each country to see if any country had an important particularity. Every country was analyzed individually to see if the Ohlson Model could be applied to each country, and if there was a significant difference. Tests needed to be done under the fixed effect scope because of the result of the Hausman test. In Table 1 the results of this analysis are presented.

Table 1: Panel Data Analysis with Fixed Effects

Country	Constant	Shareholder	NetIncome	R ²	F
Argentina	823,033***	-0.0505	1.2358	0.7319	1.03
Bermuda	198,927***	0.8419***	1.5339***	0.7045	589.23***
Brazil	508,540**	0.8801***	0.4197	0.767	295.2***
Cayman Islands	34,709	1.3938***	3.0931***	0.4925	232.72***
Chile	-110,718	1.5961***	3.0733***	0.8069	305.74***
Colombia	-1,616,491*	5.0383***	-21.0066**	0.1686	18.68***
Mexico	700,538**	.6397***	5.4558***	0.6316	84***
Panama	-59,122	-1.7667	19.6347**	0.7868	10.69**
Peru	-497,206***	3.5599***	1.4414	0.7116	101.97***
Venezuela	395,628	0.2255	-1.1718	0.0105	0.91

Note. This table shows results for the panel data analysis with fixed effect, separated by country using the STATA statistical program version 11.0. ***, **, * indicate significance at 1,5,10 percent respectively.

El Salvador, Honduras, and Jamaica were omitted because of the lack of observations or collinearity problems. Furthermore, from the F test p values, it can be seen that the Ohlson Model did not explain the

stock prices for the cases of Venezuela and Argentina; the R square values for Venezuela were also very low, with 1% of the variance explained by the model. In these two countries, the independent variables were not significant, given that, in the case of Argentina, the price of the stock had a negative sign in the Shareholder variable, and, in the case of Venezuela, the NetIncome variable was also negative, although none were not statistically significant in both cases.

From Table 1, Bermuda, Cayman Islands, Chile, and Mexico had positive and significant values, as it was expected from the Ohlson Model. In the case of Peru and Brazil, both values were also positive, but, in the case of NetIncome variable were not significant. Colombia had a statistically good model with a 0.0000 p value, but the R square factor was 0.1686. In addition, the value for the NetIncome variable was negative, with more than 95% of statistical significance, meaning that there had to be a difference that did not allow the Ohlson Model to predict the stock value. As a result, as the NetIncome variable increased, the stock price dropped. In the case of Panama, the p value was lower than 0.05, and the R square was 0.7868, which means that the Ohlson Model gave a good explanation of the variance, but the shareholder variable was negative, although it was not significant.

CONCLUSION

The Ohlson Model is a good price estimator for stock in Bermuda, Cayman Islands, Chile, and Mexico, due to the fact that the variable coefficients were both positive and statistically significant. For the case of Brazil and Peru, both of the variables were positive, but the coefficient for the NetIncome variable is not significant. Panama has a p value smaller than 0.05, and the Shareholder Value which was negative even though it was not significant. Colombia had a good model with a low R square, and the NetIncome variable was statistically significant but negative, which is contrary to the theory.

In the cases of Argentina and Venezuela, the Ohlson Model did not work due to the fact that the F test showed that the models were not statistically correct. For Argentina, the R square value was fair with a value of 0.7319, but the only significant value was that of the constant, and there was a negative value in the shareholder variable. In the case of Venezuela, the Ohlson Model did not work as expected. The R square value was 0.0105, which was the percentage of the variance that is explained by the model. The F test p value was not significant, for all of the variables and the model constant. It was concluded that the Ohlson Model is a powerful tool to predict the price of the stocks for most of the Latin American stock markets, with the exception of Venezuela, Argentina, and Colombia.

LIMITATIONS

A limitation of this research was the lack of a deep study of the different regulatory frames for each county and the institutional differences. Another was the use of the US dollar, which simplified the analysis but could have had an impact on the results of the application of the Ohlson Model, due to a possible currency devaluation that could be an adverse factor. Some other limitations of the present study included scale problems, autocorrelation, or heterocedastisity, which could be present; therefore, a more sophisticated analysis is required. Another limitation was the use of net income as a proxy for abnormal earnings. An important modification to the model could be made by estimating the factor, "Other Information", with a different supposition to see if the model improves.

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DO YOU KNOW WHERE YOUR DERIVATIVES ARE?

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ABSTRACT

This paper is designed to assist individuals and organizations in understanding the role and risks of derivatives in two specific areas -- debt management and investing. It further serves as a warning to those who are exposed to derivatives particularly in this post financial crisis era. Individuals and organizations should take the time to educate themselves as to the serious potential risks involved with these instruments.

JEL: M40, G11, G24

KEYWORDS: derivatives, exchange-traded funds, leveraged, futures contracts, counterparty risk, tracking errors

INTRODUCTION

The 2,315-page Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act has been hailed as the solution for preventing future financial meltdowns such as those currently experienced in this economy. Investors should not be lulled into complacency though. This legislation creates a division within the Federal Reserve designed to protect consumers. However, while its goal is to increase the transparency of complex financial products including the oversight of swaps and other derivatives, it is certainly not a substitute for individual and organizational prudence and due diligence. Furthermore, many of the changes in this bill are not expected to be fully enacted until 2015. Boards of directors, management, CPA firms, elected officials and even financial advisors should view this legislation as a tool to eventually help protect their respective organizations and not insurance against future problems.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Debt Management Policies

It is important for all debt issuing organizations, whether they currently use derivatives or not, to have formal written derivatives policies in place that assure that appropriate due diligence procedures be conducted and require prescribed approval protocols for the acquisition and management of all types of derivatives.

What are some of the more common types of derivatives used in debt management?

Derivatives, which include futures, options, forwards and swaps (including credit default swaps), get their name from the fact that they derive their value from an underlying asset, typically an established index or another financial instrument or security. Interest rate swaps have been around for years and are actually quite prevalent in the governmental and non-profit world. There are many types of swaps. "The total notional value of interest rate derivatives including swaps reached nearly \$450 trillion as of June 30, 2010" according to the Bank for International Settlements' June 2010 report.

The most common types of interest rate derivatives are:

- 1) Interest rate swaps are used to synthetically convert variable rate debt to fixed rate and vice versa. *For example*, if a university can efficiently issue variable rate debt but would prefer not to be exposed to potential future interest rate increases, the university could enter into an interest rate swap with another group, called a counterparty, to effectively convert their variable rate debt to fixed rate debt. (Kelley, 2011)
- 2) Interest rate caps are used to limit exposure to interest rate volatility. *For example*, an organization with variable rate debt may be willing to tolerate interest rate increases up to a certain level or believe that interest rates will remain low. However, the organization may wish to limit its interest rate risk by purchasing an interest rate cap, which assures that the organization will not pay an interest rate exceeding the rate prescribed in the cap. (Kelley, 2011)
- 3) Basis swaps are used to manage or change the “basis” on which variable interest rates are calculated. These are more commonly associated with revenue bonds where an organization’s income may be dependent upon a particular interest rate index; yet the debt the organization has issued is based on a different index. *For example*, if revenues are based on the prime interest rate while the interest expense that must be paid is a function of the London Interbank Offered Rate (LIBOR), and the traditional correlations between these two indices digresses; a basis swap will protect the entity from market dislocations. LIBOR is used in determining the price of many financial derivatives, including interest rate swaps. This is the average short-term deposit rate that banks participating in the London money market exchange offer each other. (Kelley, 2011)
- 4) Rate locks, which are based on interest rate swaps, are used to hedge “lock in” a rate for an upcoming bond issue. These are really nothing more than institutional versions of an interest rate lock fee that one might pay to lock in an interest rate when applying for a home mortgage. (Kelley, 2011)

However, there are risks associated with derivatives. There are certain fundamental risks associated with the utilization of derivatives, which should be carefully considered by organizations and addressed in their Derivative Policy statement.

- 1) Counterparty/credit risk is that the entity on the other side of the transaction might not be able to fulfill their obligation.
- 2) Basis risk is that the interest rate that an organization is trying to hedge does not track exactly with the derivative. Hence, the organization may not get the full benefit that they are anticipating from the derivative.
- 3) Termination risk is the circumstances under which either the buyer or seller of the swap can terminate and how are the termination costs calculated?
- 4) Credit downgrade risks are the consequences of a credit downgrade or default of either party.

Investments with Embedded Derivatives

Derivatives are not only used in debt management but can also be incorporated into investments which may not be as readily apparent. Many organizations believe that they are not exposed to derivatives in their investments because they do not directly purchase derivative contracts. Derivatives, however, are being incorporated into many investment products which are not being fully disclosed or understood by even many experienced financial advisors. Few people are aware that some mutual funds and many

exchange traded funds (ETFs) use derivatives to hedge risk or to magnify market or security movements. Many of these ETFs have labels such as Short, Ultra, 2X, Double Long, or Inverse among others.

Derivatives are actually used in a number of ways in our economy, and for the most part they can be beneficial. Airlines often hedge the price of the fuel they are using for their jets by using futures contracts, a type of derivative. Hence, if fuel prices increase significantly, your favorite airline will not be at risk of losing money on passenger tickets that were sold months ago. Basically, they are locking in a price for their fuel cost using derivatives.

ETFs are not index funds. They trade on stock exchanges similar to stocks and may hold physical assets such as stocks, commodities or bonds. However, unlike index funds, ETFs typically range between two categories. The first category owns at least some of the physical assets they seek to track. The second category known as synthetic ETFs, are funds that earn a return by investing in derivatives. These derivatives are typically asset swap agreements with a counterparty which strive to replicate the performance of the index or asset it tracks. There are now more than 1,000 ETFs that track major indices such as the S&P 500, industry sectors, commodities and currencies. "Not everything is (a) suitable (investment for all people)," according to John Gabriel, Morningstar ETF analyst. "You need to understand what you own. People let research end with the name of the fund. That can get you into lots of trouble." For example, some ETFs are leveraged, meaning they invest with borrowed money, which makes them more risky. "Fund performance can be the opposite of what investors expect," Gabriel further stated. (Guste, 2010)

The SEC is also concerned that investors do not understand the risks associated with more complex ETFs and the "abbreviated" disclosures that provide a false sense of security to investors pertaining to the scope of a fund's reliance on derivatives. "... some funds employing this type of disclosure, in fact, appear to invest significantly in derivatives," wrote Barry Miller, an associate director in the SEC's division of investment management. According to Paul Justice, CFA, an ETF strategist, he commented in his January 22, 2009 Morningstar article after returning from an 'inside ETF conference', that he was "shocked to learn how many people have a misconception as to how these funds work. And this sampling was not of novice day traders –these are professionals and financial advisors."

This is such a huge potential problem that the SEC on October 19, 2011, has deferred consideration of new requests for ETFs that utilize significant investments in derivatives. Mary Schapiro, the current SEC Chairman, stated in an SEC press release dated March 25, 2010, that "It's appropriate to engage in a more thorough review of the use of derivatives by ETFs and mutual funds given the questions surrounding the risks associated with the derivative instruments underlying many funds". Existing ETFs and mutual funds that use derivatives are so far unaffected. While the SEC is studying the use of derivatives as of April 1, 2010, there were 151 US listed inverse and leveraged ETFs with assets of \$29.9 billion according to investment bank Morgan Stanley. ETFs in the United States have grown to account for approximately \$1 trillion in assets, or approximately 10 percent of the long-term U.S. open-end investment company industry, with U.S.-domiciled ETFs making up approximately two-thirds of global offerings. (Rominger, 2011)

One popular use of derivatives is to create *leveraged* or inverse ETFs. Inverse funds utilize a variety of strategies to achieve their investment objectives including short selling, trading derivatives such as futures contracts, and other leveraged investment techniques. Leveraged ETFs are marketed as a way of doubling or tripling returns on the movement of underlying indexes and benchmarks such as the S&P

500. Hence, if the S&P were to increase by 10%, one would expect a 2x leveraged ETF to increase 20%. Inverse ETFs supposedly provide investors with a vehicle to get a leveraged benefit if the targeted index declines.

Most investors understand that borrowing money creates leverage, which can be used to magnify returns, which is how they *think* a leveraged ETF operates. However, the 1940 Investment Company Act placed restrictions on how much investment funds could borrow. ETFs, consequently, obtain their leverage with the use of derivatives. The Investment Company Act could not have contemplated the use of these complex types of investments. "... the Act, while in fact being 70 years old, is being challenged and stretched in ways that were inconceivable when it was enacted, but which we in the Division of Investment Management are dealing with today" stated Andrew J. Donohue, Director of the SEC's Division of Investment Management in June 3, 2010 SEC Staff Keynote Address at the ALI-ABA Compliance Conference. It could be argued that leveraged ETFs are circumventing the intent of the Investment Company Act by using derivatives to achieve leverage that would otherwise be prohibited.

Policy Considerations For Investments With Derivatives

The popularity and complexity of these new ETF investment vehicles requires that investment policy statements be updated to specifically address their unique characteristics and their associated risks similar to the debt management example above.

Risks of Exchange Traded Funds

There are two primary risks associated with ETFs that utilize derivatives such as interest rate swaps or futures. The first major risk is reliance on a counter party to make good on their commitment. For a derivative to function there is reliance on the performance of the entity on the other side of the transaction. If that entity does not perform because of credit problems, legal issues or outright fraud, then the derivative and most likely the investment will suffer a loss. In this worldwide economy, it is easy to imagine situations where systemic risk could cause such large losses that the counterparty no longer has the liquidity to pay. This counterparty risk also became painfully obvious with the collapse of Lehman Brothers and the AIG bailout. One way of mitigating much of this risk is for the derivative to be collateralized. However, it is not practical for an individual investor in an ETF to monitor the liquidity and market value of the collateral. "ETFs that use swaps to clone stock, bond or currency returns have been criticized by regulators and firms including Fidelity Investors, which say clients risk losing money should the banks writing the derivatives become insolvent." (Xydias, 2011).

The original prospectus of an ETF may state that the fund may use derivatives to carry out its investment objectives. To know if the ETF you are holding or considering purchasing utilizes derivatives, and to what extent, it is important to go directly to the particular fund's website and click on the link for their daily holdings. Most funds will indicate if their holdings include swaps or other derivatives. The websites of most funds disclose their holdings, including the amount of swaps (See Table 1 example).

The second primary risk of ETFs that use derivatives is commonly associated with leveraged ETFs, which are mainly managed by firms like Direxion, Rydex and ProShares. A popular example of a leveraged ETF is an *inverse* ETF which is engineered to deliver a positive return that is a multiple of any declines in the designated benchmark. The risk is a function of the daily compounding calculations of leveraged funds caused by the mark-to-market of derivatives on a daily basis. For example, one

would expect a triple inverse ETF on the S&P 500 to increase 30% if over time the market declined by 10%. The unexpected reality in a volatile market might be that this ETF actually declines rather than increases. It should be pointed out that leveraged inverse ETFs should only be considered for very short-term daily investment purposes since the mathematical impact of *daily* compounding in a volatile market could result in the opposite of what an investor hopes to achieve. Over longer periods of time, such as weeks or months, results could be significantly different from what an investor is expecting particularly in volatile markets. "It pays to look beyond the cover," says Matt Hougan, editor of ETF Web site IndexUniverse.com. In August 2009 the SEC and the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority (FINRA) issued an Alert warning investors about extra risks involved with leveraged and inverse ETFs. Two "real-life" examples provided in the Alert were:

- Between December 1, 2008, and April 30, 2009, a particular index gained 2 percent. However, a leveraged ETF seeking to deliver twice that index's daily return fell by 6 percent—and an inverse ETF seeking to deliver twice the inverse of the index's daily return fell by 25 percent.
- During that same period, an ETF seeking to deliver three times the daily return of a different index fell 53 percent, while the underlying index actually gained around 8 percent. An ETF seeking to deliver three times the inverse of the index's daily return declined by 90 percent over the same period.

There are a wide variety of ETF choices with different index compositions and methodologies. Not only do leveraged ETFs depend on the use of derivatives but certain types of commodity ETFs also rely on leverage to meet their investment objectives. On October 19, 2011 Eileen Rominger, director of the Securities and Exchange Commission's Division of Investment Management testified before a Senate subcommittee that a certain small group of so-called "inverse, leveraged ETFs" are made up of derivatives and other securities and can have an effect that that can be magnified in volatile markets. She further stated that leveraged, inverse, and inverse leveraged ETFs approximated \$48 billion in assets.

With the future of the US economy in question, those investors seeking to purchase investments that move in the opposite direction of the market (inverse ETFs) or to hedge their existing investments should be cautious. As Figure 2 illustrates, inverse ETFs may not necessarily deliver the results anticipated by investors. The problem is that many retail investors as well as many professionals do not understand that these leveraged and inverse ETFs compound daily and can produce these skewed results. Leveraged ETFs should typically be held for less than one day and definitely not treated as index funds. This is because of the effects of compounding (sometimes called "beta slippage"). This issue has attracted much public attention now that these ETFs have been increasingly used by less experienced investors. The Securities and Exchange Commission and FINRA had issued a warning on the leveraged and inverse ETFs. (2009) The SEC is seeking comments currently on ETFs that invest in derivative products to provide input as it evaluates the acceptable level of risks for investors. (2011) If an investor purchased ProShares ETF 2x Dow Jones U.S. Real Estate Index (SRS) in February 2007 and held it until August 2010, he would have expected an 88% gains based on the fact that the Dow Jones Real Estate Index decreased 44%. However, an unpleasant surprise would have been the realization that the ETF 2x decreased by 92% due to daily compounding in volatile markets. (Figure 2)

A random internet search of leveraged and inverse ETFs will still show individuals touting leveraged ETFs as a way to bet against the market. Investors should be wary and educate themselves as to the risks of these leveraged and inverse ETFs. There are now lawsuits from misinformed investors. RBC Capital is being sued by Massachusetts for selling leveraged and inverse exchange-traded funds to clients who did

not understand what they were buying and subsequently suffered losses. (Condon, 2011) Other law firms have received publicity for investigating FINRA brokerage firms who had advised customers to purchase leveraged and inverse ETFs including those issued by Direxion, ProFunds (ProShares) and Rydex. (De Veire, 2011)


ETF POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

Because of the inherent risks associated with ETFs that use derivatives, an organization's investment policy should state that every effort should be made to determine the extent of derivative use and its associated risks before investing in ETFs. Furthermore, if the organization does invest in ETFs, these ETFs should be constantly monitored to see if they are in fact actually performing as anticipated in relation to their benchmark. For leveraged or inverse ETFs, this monitoring should be done daily. Tracking errors for a variety of reasons are a significant risk for ETFs.

CONCLUSION

Derivatives can be useful tools whether they are interest rate swaps or components of investments. Just as investors found though that complex instruments created from subprime mortgages like collateralized debt obligations (CDOs) and CDOs-squared, if you do not understand the mechanics of how these instruments really work, there is the potential for some startling surprises. "Education, obviously, is always the key to being a successful investor," says Kevin Quigg, head of the ETF strategy and consulting group of State Street Global Advisors. "Investors need to ask questions and read carefully about the exact structure of any prospective exchange-traded product purchase." (Shari, 2011). ETFs need to be thoroughly understood in order to be properly incorporated into an individual's or organization's overall asset allocation, risk tolerance, and liquidity goals for their investment portfolio.

Table 1: Example of a Fund Showing Holdings with Derivatives

	UltraShort Real Estate			ProShares: UltraShort Real Estate seeks daily investment results, before fees and expenses, that correspond to twice (200%) the inverse (opposite) of the daily performance of the Dow Jones U.S. Real Estate IndexSM.
	Security Description	Notional Value	Market Value	Shares/Contracts
	DJUSRE SWAPS	(324,697,672.94)	-	(4,114,685.30)
	Net Other Assets / Cash	-	161,693,221.83	161,693,221.83

As of 11/11/11 at www.proshares.com/fund/srs_daily_holdings.html

Table 2: Sample Data

Period	\$ Value of Index	% Change In Index	"Double the Inverse"	\$ Value of 2X Inverse ETF w/compounding
START				
1	\$100			100
2	\$95	-5.00%	10.00%	110
3	\$80	-15.79%	31.58%	144.74
4	\$95	18.75%	-37.50%	90.46
5	\$75	-21.05%	42.11%	128.55
6	\$90	20.00%	-40.00%	77.13
7	\$80	-11.11%	22.22%	94.27
8	\$90	12.50%	-25.00%	70.7
9	\$100	11.11%	-22.22%	54.99
10	\$90	-10.00%	20.00%	65.99
11	\$100	11.11%	-22.22%	51.33

Figure 1: Graph showing index vs EFT

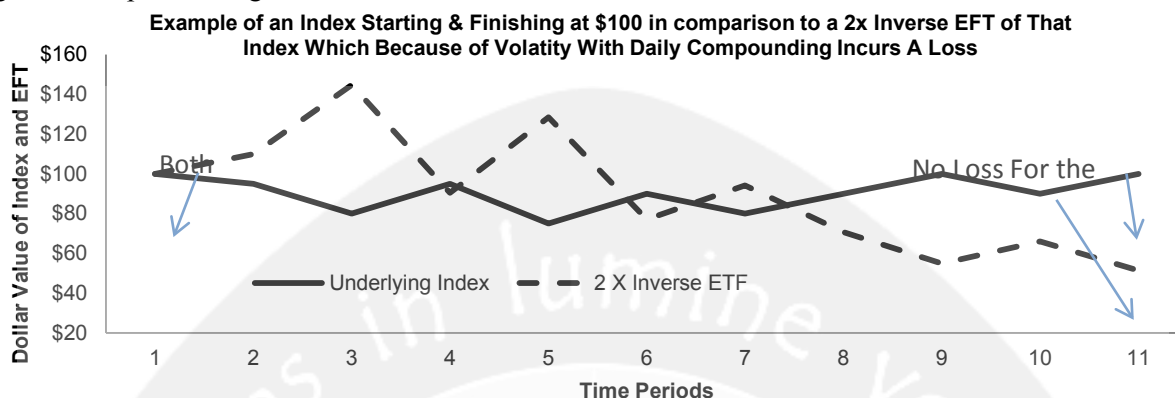
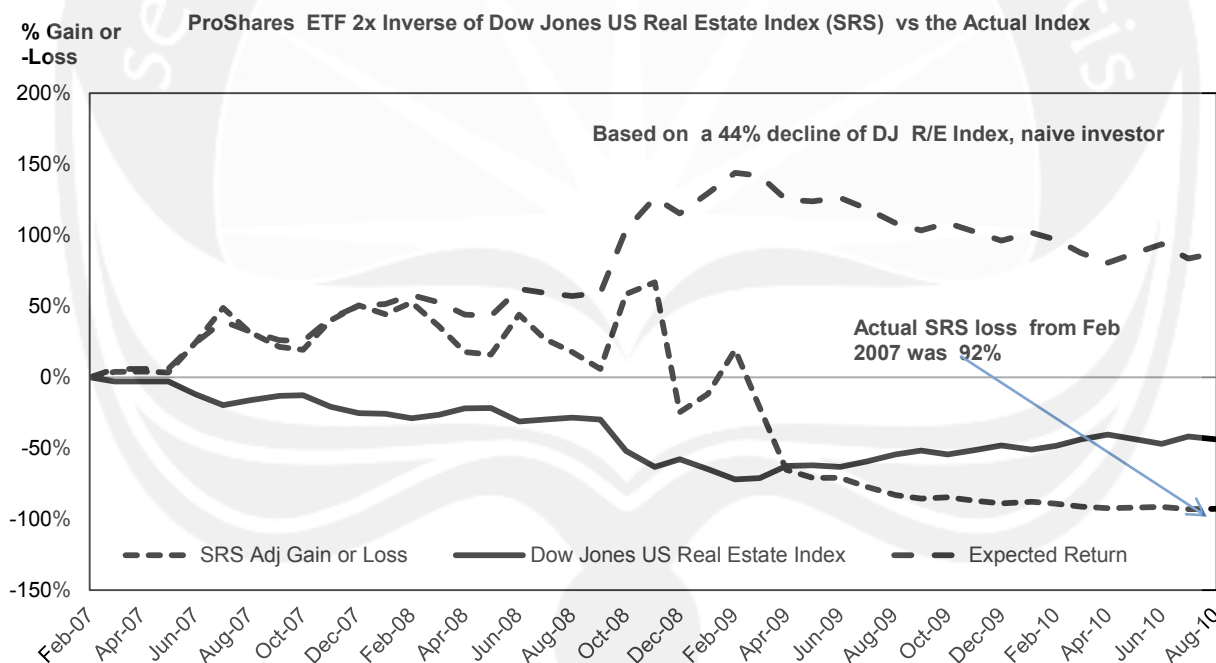


Table 2 and Figure 1 illustrate period by period how compounding causes severe tracking errors for a 2X Inverse ETF versus its index. Logically, the expectation would be that over a given period of time if the index returned to where it began, the ETF would also. However, in this example if you just "bought the index" you would end up exactly where you started. The leveraged ETF on the other hand lost 50% of its value.

Figure 2: Proshares ETF 2x Inverse of Dow Jones US Real Estate Index (SRS) vs the Actual Index



Investor deposited \$10,000 on March 1, 2007 into ProShares ETF 2x, which inversely tracks the Dow Jones Real Estate Index. There was a 44% decline in the Dow Jones Real Estate Index from February 2007 until August 2010. Given that his investment was a 2x inverse, this investor expected his ETF to INCREASE 88%. Inverse ETFs embed derivatives that are marked to market and are thus compounded daily. Therefore, mathematically, the 88% increase does not happen in actuality. This investor actually experienced a 92% DECLINE, resulting in his \$10,000 investment now only being worth \$800 as of August, 2010. Hence, policies and guidelines must be in place for investors who invest in these products. They should also not be purchased by small individual day traders due to the risk involved.

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BIOGRAPHY

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CALIBRATION AND COMPARISON OF SPECTRAL RISK MEASURES FOR A PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION

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ABSTRACT

Recently, new coherent, law-invariant and comonotonic additive risk measures known as spectral risk measures (SRM) have been proposed as interesting complements to the regulatory-standard VaR. While such risk measures allow various attitudes towards risk to be specified by the risk manager through a risk spectrum, there has not been proposed to date any practical way of calibrating them but arbitrarily. It is not clear neither how a risk manager could supplement VaR or CVaR with such risk measures in its risk assessment process through a realistic methodology. In this paper, we propose a methodology to both calibrate and compare SRMs. For that, we rely on concepts of relative entropy optimization allowing us first to build a data-implied distortion as a reference measure for calibration and second to define an entropic risk measure that we use for comparison. Finally, we apply the methodology to real market data and assess four SRM through various specifications of the historical probability measure.

JEL: C6, D81 D84, G11, G17, G32.

KEYWORDS: risk management, spectral risk measures, distortion risk measures, minimum relative entropy, economic capital, backtesting, decision theory.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CORPORATE ACCOUNTING MALFEASANCE AND RESTATEMENTS FOR 100 COMPANIES WITH FINANCIAL AND MARKET IMPACT AND ANALYSIS OF MONITORING CHARACTERISTICS

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ABSTRACT

This study examines corporate accounting malfeasance from an exploratory and empirical perspective for 100 companies to determine if there is an association between the Jenkins recommendations SOX requirements. The exploratory perspective discusses the types of corporate malfeasance and gives the dollar impact for the financials and the market dollar impact (\$140 and \$857 billion respectively) of 100 companies with publicly announced malfeasance. In addition to the dollar impact, the results of the exploratory study supports previous studies which found that revenue was the most common area of corporate malfeasance and actual theft was the least. The exploratory study was followed with an empirical examination of corporate malfeasance using internal (corporate governance) and external (auditor and financial analysis) monitoring characteristics by matching the malfeasance companies with non-malfeasance companies. The results of the empirical study did not find any significant differences in the monitoring characteristics of malfeasance as compared to non-malfeasance companies even though these characteristics were chosen based on an examination of recommendations/requirements for business reporting for SOX and several accounting committees over the years.

THE VALUATION OF THE SMALL LOCAL BUSINESS IN A DIVORCE: A CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The discounted economic income method has increasingly been used for valuing small businesses. This paper discusses the questions arising from the use of that method in the context of the valuation of a small business for marital dissolutions. The paper is based on a case study. A real Finnish divorce case, which ended up to the court, is used to illustrate the pitfalls of using the discounted economic income method in valuing a small business for non-transactional situations. This study reveals that one of the pitfalls is the subjectivism of the final value, depending on how the measure of the economic income and the present discount rate is selected. It can sometimes result in an unrealistically high final value of the business. Secondly, the method is based on the economic income expected in the future. In a divorce, the aim of the valuation is to define the value of the business at the date of the partition. This means that when valuing a small business in marital dissolutions it is essential to take both the accounting and the legal point of view into consideration.

KEY WORDS: Valuation, small business, divorce, discounted economic income method

INTRODUCTION

The valuation of a small business in a divorce is problematic, because one needs both the accounting and the legal knowledge. In a divorce, it is common that the spouses are not able to agree the value of the business and the case may end up to the court. The court gives the judgment about the value of the business usually basing it on an expert's statement. The problem is that the judge is not often an expert in accounting or finance. On the other hand, the expert, who has given the statement, may not be familiar with the marital law neither jurisdiction nor how to interpret it from a valuation point of view.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the questions arising from using of the discounted economic income method in the context of valuing a small local business in a divorce. A real Finnish divorce case is used to illustrate the pitfalls of using that method in valuing the small business in marital dissolutions. The main questions arising are on the one hand related to the method itself. On the other hand, they are related to the legal point that should take into account in valuing business in a divorce. The method related questions are dealing with measuring the economic income and selecting the discount rate and the influence of the terminal value. In addition, a very important question is if the characteristics of the business have sufficiently been taken into account in valuation.

The very essential questions from the legal point of view are related to the marital assets. One is the inclusion and measurement of goodwill as marital assets. The other is the question of to which extent the future income belongs to the marital assets. This is interesting, because the discounted economic income method is based on the income expected in future. The point is if the method is applicable in marital dissolutions or is it too much directed to the future. The next section discusses briefly the basis for valuing small businesses in a divorce. The third section presents the case: the characteristics of the business and the lawsuit. The fourth section describes the experts' valuation using the discounted economic income

method. The fifth section focuses on pitfalls of using the method in the context of a divorce. The last section concludes.

BACKGROUNDS

The traditional valuation approaches in business valuation are market approach, income approach and asset-based approach (Hitchner 2011, Anderson 2009, Feldman 2005, Pratt et al. 1998, Fodor and Mazza 1992). The valuation methods are determined according to them. The market approach means that the valuation is relying on prices of similar assets traded in the open market. This kind of information is seldom available about small businesses, so market approach is not often suitable for valuing small businesses. Therefore, the two possible ways in valuing small businesses are asset-based approach or income-based approach. The asset-based approach is based on a business's net asset, relying primarily on accounting records. According Houghton (2002) asset-based approach has usually been applied for example in valuing businesses where the future of the business is highly dependent on the owner-manager's personal relationships with providers of work. Versus according Gasson (2002) asset-based valuation are used only where the value of the business is easily expressed in terms of its assets. Anderson (2009) points out that the asset approach is theoretically weak as a valuation method, because records based on the historical cost cannot be expected to predict the value that investors place on the future earning power of business.

The income-based approach is using a discounted economic income to summarize the current value of the future income. This approach contains a large number of measures of income, methods of projecting them into future and applications of discount rate. The income-based approach and the valuation methods relying on it, particularly the discounted cash flow method, is widely accepted for valuing the small businesses (Anderson 2009, Fernández 2007, Pratt et al. 1998, Fodor and Mazza 1992). In the financial literature, the discounted cash flow method is presented as the most theoretically pure and constant of all valuation methods. On the other hand the weakness of the method is its' dependency on forecasts (Martins 2011, Gasson 2002, Pratt et al. 1998). In addition, the validity of the valuation process depends on two essential inputs – the expected income and the discount rate used in making the time adjustments (Dukes et al. 1996). Both the asset-based approach and the income-based approach are accepted in Finnish legal literature when valuing business in a divorce. According Aarnio and Helin (1992) the adjusted book value derived from adjusted balanced sheet is an applicable basis for valuation. In addition, one should take into account factors that affect the income such as goodwill.

Pratt et al. (2000) define the goodwill “the propensity of customers to return for repeat business”. Goodwill in small businesses is either practice (institutional) goodwill or professional (personal) goodwill. Practice goodwill is an intangible asset of the business as an institutional entity. It consists of intangible elements such as location, operation procedures and client base. Personal goodwill is associated primarily with the individual owner of the business (Pratt et al. 1998). According to Finnish legal literature and judicial precedents, the personal goodwill does not belong to marital assets. Välimäki (1996) questions the use of the adjusted book value as basis for valuation when the business is going concern. Instead of it, he would rather base the valuation on the use of the discounted economic income method. If the personal goodwill exists, the amount equivalent to the personal goodwill should depreciate from the final value at the end. At the beginning of a valuation process one must define the standard of value that applies to the specific situation. The standard of value defines for the analyst the type of value being sought (Pratt et al 1998). The most widely encountered standards of value are fair market value, investment value, intrinsic or fundamental value and fair value (Hitchner 2011, Anderson 2009, Pratt et

al. 1998). Fair market value has been often defined in the financial literature according to U.S. Internal Revenue Service (IRS) Revenue Ruling 59-60. It is the price at which property would change hands between a willing buyer and a willing seller. Neither of them is not under any compulsion to buy or sell and both parties have reasonable knowledge of the relevant facts (Anderson 2009, Pratt et al. 2000, Fodor and Mazza 1992). The investment value is the value of an asset to a specific owner whereas the intrinsic or fundamental value is a real value of the assets. The definition of the fair value in turn is depending on the context of its use (Pratt et al. 2000).

Law or other legal documents can legally mandate the standard of value. The standard of value can also be a function of the wishes of the parties involved. In the context of marital dissolutions, however, the applicable standard of value is generally less clear than for any other appraisal purpose (Hitchner 2011, Pratt et al 1998). This is the case also in Finland. In marital dissolutions, the applicable standard of value is not clear in Finnish legislation. The law is silent with regard to standard of value and little judicial precedents exist. According to Finnish legal literature, for example Aarnio and Kangas (2010), Välimäki (1996), Aarnio and Helin (1992), the applicable standard of value as a basis is fair value. The problem is that the expression fair value is ambiguous and no exact definition exists. According to above-mentioned literature, fair value means a value, which is equivalent to the amount at which the business would change hands between seller and buyer in the open market. However, when valuing small local businesses the lack of free market makes the valuation difficult.

THE VIB CASE: THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BUSINESS AND THE LAWSUIT

This study is a case study basing on a real Finnish divorce case. In the case, a great deal of the marital assets consisted of a small local business, which the spouses owned together. In a divorce, they could not agree on the value of the business and a legal battle followed. Finally, the Supreme Court decided the value of the business relying on the statements made by two different experts. The study is a critical analysis of the valuation from the accounting and the legal point of view. All the material, the calculations, statements, briefs and other documents in the study originated from the files of the Supreme Court. In Finland, the Supreme Court mainly relies on written evidence when deciding on a case, as it did also in this case. Hence, this study has exactly the same material than the Supreme Court had when deciding the case. The business in the case was a small vehicle inspection business, hereafter named with the fictitious acronym of “VIB”. VIB was situated in a remote small locality and had approximately €85,000 profit per year. It was officially a partnership owned by the husband (70%) and the wife (30%), but virtually it was like a professional practice. There were no employers; the husband was working as a vehicle inspector. He was also taking care of the secretarial work and the cleaning and the wife was apparently helping him. He worked long days and did not take vacations. Then the husband and wife divorced. The couple was arguing about the business and the husband tried to sell the business to some larger businesses in the same industry, but they were not interested. They all said that it would not be profitable running the business by hiring extra staff. It would also be very hard to find an entrepreneur to run the business with such a remote location. Running the business like that alone would demand exceptional commitment to the business.

Therefore, the husband decided to carry on the business himself, but he and the wife could not agree on the value of their marital property including the value of the business. They applied to court to assign an estate distributor to value and distribute their property. According to husband the value of the business was €40,000. The wife had obtained a statement of the value of the business made by an expert and referring to it, she claimed that the value was €120,000. The expert's statement will be introduced in the

next section. The estate distributor decided that the valuation method, which the expert had used, was not applicable to a small “one man” business. The estate distributor valued the business himself. He based his valuation on both the assets and the income. He appraised the machinery and equipment to their current value instead of the value in the balance sheet. He determined that the net asset value was zero. However, the estate distributor thought that because the business is still operating it has a goodwill value. It consisted of the constant clientele, business location and working machinery. According to the estate distributor, this value was indisputable although the immediate buyer could not be found. The point was that as long as the business was going concern the value was in the hands of the husband.

The estate distributor based his valuation on the financial statements from the years 2003-2006. He adjusted the profit by reducing it with the amount equivalent to the reasonable wage to the owner. It was €4,000 per month in 2003, €4,500 per month in 2004 and €5,000 per month in 2005 and 2006. The key figures he used are presented in the table 1.

Table 1: The Key Figures in the Estate Distributor's Valuation

Year	2003	2004	2005	2006
Profit, €	63 000	77 000	100 000	100 000
Owner's wage, €	-48 000	-54 000	-60 000	-60 000
Adjusted profit, €	15 000	23 000	40 000	40 000

From the basis of the key figures, the estate distributor considered that the economic income, which he took into account in valuing the business, was €20,000 per year. Two reasons for reducing the income existed. One was that a part of the profit resulted from the professional goodwill of the husband. According to Finnish legal system, professional goodwill is not a distributable marital asset and that must take into consideration in measuring the economic income. The other one was that, according to Finnish law, the vehicle inspection business is a licensed trade. The estate distributor decided that it also reduced the economic income per year. The estate distributor considered that the income should take into account for three years time. Thus, he multiplied the income €20,000 per year three and resulted in the final value of €60,000. The wife disagreed and appealed to the District Court claiming that the value should be €120,000 according to the expert's statement. She also presented a new statement of the value made by another expert. According to it the value was €106,500 – 156,400. The statement will be introduced in the next section. The District Court however affirmed the estate distributor's value €60,000 and the wife appealed again. The Court of Appeal determined that the valuation should be based on the discounted economic income method, which both the experts had used. The Court of Appeal admitted the subjectivism of the method. It resulted to very different values when changing lightly the variants. That is why the Court of Appeal pointed out that the valuation should not be based only on the experts' statements. One should also take into account that the business had been deeply depended on the abilities and the work of the husband. That was why the value should be reduced. Therefore, the Court of Appeal decided that the value of the business was €90,000.

Now the husband appealed to the Supreme Court claiming that the discounted economic income method, which had been used in valuation, had been developed for larger firms and was not applicable to small businesses. He claimed that the valuation method should be asset-based instead and the value of the business should be €60,000 as the estate distributor had decided.

The Supreme Court admitted that the husband was partly right. The fact that the business was small and depended on the husband's work and ability favored for the asset based method. However, the Supreme

Court determined that because of the going concern assumption, the valuation should be based on the discounted economic income method. The business was still operating and saleable. It had been profitable in the ownership of the husband, so it would also be profitable in the ownership of someone else. There will be a realistic possibility to a business acquisition. If selling the business the price will probably be determined according to the future income. The future income will be assessed according to previous income, which mainly was based on the husband's work. If he stopped working after the acquisition, it will be uncertain if the income remains as equal as they had been. The prospective buyer will probably think that this decreases the price. Because of that, the Supreme Court determined that the final value must be less than in the experts' statements. Therefore, the Supreme Court upheld the value the Court of Appeal had determined. Thus according to the Supreme Court the final value of the business was €90,000.

THE EXPERTS' VALUATION

As it was mentioned earlier, two different experts prepared statements about the value of the business, hereafter called expert A and expert B. They were both Authorized Public Accountants. They both used the discounted economic income method in their valuation. Both the experts calculated the adjusted income and used it as a measure of the economic income as well. They based their statements exclusively on the financial documents, mainly to the financial statement and the balance sheet. Expert A based his analysis solely on the financial statements in years 2004-2006. Expert B made forecasts for expected income for years 2007-2011 basing them on the financial statements in years 2004-2006.

The Value of the Business According to Expert A

Expert A decided that year 2006 represented financially a typical year of the business. Therefore, he based his calculation of the economic income on the adjusted income in year 2006 as follows:

The adjusted profit in 2006	84 539
Reasonable wage to the owner including statutory cost, 4 725 €/ month	- 56 700
Profit before tax	27 839
Tax	- 6 400
Profit after tax	21 439

The adjustment of the profit was because of the depreciation differences. Taxes and the wage to the owner were not included in costs in financial statement. In Finland, in partnership, they usually do not pay wage to the owner and the owner himself pays the taxes. Expert A decided according to his calculation that the expected income was approximately €20,000 per year. He calculated the present value of the expected income for three years and the terminal value of the business at end of the year of that time using the 15% discount rate and the following formula:

$$PV = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{E_i}{(1+r)^i} + \frac{E_i/r}{(1+r)^{n+1}} \quad (1)$$

where:

PV=Present value

Σ = Sum of

E_i = Expected economic income in the i th period in the future

r = Present value discount rate

n = Last period for which the economic income is expected

i = Period in the future in which the economic income to be discounted is expected to be received

Thus according to expert A the final value of the business was comprised of the following amounts:

Present value	€45,660
Terminal value	€76,226
Final value	€121,886

The final value of the business in the statement of expert A was determined minimum €120,000 assuming the business will operate as a going concern.

The Value of the Business According to Expert B

Expert B used the discounted economic income method as well. He made forecasts for expected income for years 2007-2011 basing them on financial statements in years 2004-2006. He calculated the mean of the adjusted profit from years 2004-2006. He adjusted the profit by reducing the wage of the owner, €4500 per month and it was raised 5% per year. The mean of the adjusted profit was as follows:

	Mean
Revenue	€165,900
Operating profit	€ 89,000
Profit	€ 86,300
Adjusted profit	€32,300

Expert B made forecasts for expected income for years 2007-2011, which based on mean of the adjusted profit from the years 2004-2006. The forecasts are presented in the table 2.

Table 2: The forecasts for expected income for years 2007-2011 according to expert B

Year	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Revenue, €	174,000	182,900	192,000	201,600	211,700
Operating profit, €	93,400	98,100	103,000	108,200	113,600
Profit, €	91,000	95,500	100,300	105,300	110,600
Adjusted profit, €	34,300	36,000	37,800	39,700	41,600

Expert B used these forecasts and made several alternative calculations for the present value of the adjusted income using different rates and periods. He used the following formula, but unlike expert A, he did not calculate the terminal value.

$$PV = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{E_i}{(1+r)^i} \quad (2)$$

The present values in different rating and timing that he calculated are presented in table 3.

Table 3: Present values in different rating and timing according to expert B

Time	Rate 10 %	Rate 12 %	Rate 15 %
3 years	€98,300	€96,600	€94,200
5 years	€156,500	€151,300	€144,100

According to expert B, there were also non-operating assets in the business about €12,300 and he added them in the final value of the business. The final value of the business in the statement of expert B was determined €106,500 – 156,400.

THE PITFALLS OF USING OF THE DISCOUNTED ECONOMIC INCOME METHOD IN THE CONTEXT OF A DIVORCE

The study revealed that the use of the discounted economic income method in the context of a divorce could be fraught with difficulties. First, the problems related to the method itself. One problem is the subjectivism of the discounted economic income method. The final value is deeply dependent on how the future economic income is measured and the discount rate is selected. Therefore, it is very important when using this method to acquire an adequate amount of information about the economy and industry conditions that affect the business. In addition, one must carefully examine the past earnings, project the future earnings and then discount them (Anderson 2009, Fodor and Mazza 1992). One should also take into account the characteristics of the business.

In the VIB case, both experts based their calculations on quite inadequate economic and operational information of the business. They both based their analysis solely on the economic information taken mainly from the income statement and balance sheet. They both ignored the facts that the prospective buyers, the larger vehicle inspector firms, had pointed out. They claimed that the location of the business was remote and the profitability of the business was strongly dependent on the husbands work and ability. In addition, the machinery of the business was quite simple and old, and that was why the selection of the services the vehicle inspection business served was restricted. Without this essential information, the experts assessed the future income. This is problematic particularly when using the method where small differences in the variants produced remarkable changes in the final value. The calculations made by expert B showed this clearly.

The other problem in the experts' statements in the VIB case was the discount rate. The importance of selecting the discount rate is emphasized in the financial literature (see for example Martins 2011, Gasson 2002, Pratt et al. 1998, Fodor and Mazza 1992). However, neither of experts explained how they had determined the discount rate. Expert B made calculations with even two different rates, but did not clarify the difference between them. Without knowing how the discount rate was selected it is difficult for a judge to estimate if it is appropriate. It seems that the experts just relied on rules of thumb and used the commonly used 10 or 15 % discount rates.

Expert A also calculated the terminal value using the same expected future economic income (€20,000) and discount rate (15%) as he had used when calculating the present value. According Copeland et al. (2000) a high quality of estimating terminal value is essential, because the terminal value often accounts for large percentage of the total value of the business. For example, Mercer and Harms (2008) notes that in a typical five-year DCF forecast, the terminal value will account for 60% to 80% or more of the total present value for the method. Also Martins (2009) and Mercer and Harms (2008) warn that the impact of the terminal value may turn to be a caveat. In expert A's statement the terminal value (€76,226) was approximately 64 % of the final value (€120, 000). He did not validate the key figures he had used in the calculation. In VIB case, the terminal value seems to be overvalued regarding the characteristics of the business mentioned above. In addition, the study illustrated that the difficulties of using the discounted economic income method emphasize in the context of non-transactional situation such as a divorce. At

first, it is very important to notice the difference in establishing a value and setting a price for the business. According to Carland and White (1980), the value is the assessment of the worth of the business by whoever is performing the valuation whereas the price is negotiated value agreed upon by the buyer and seller. Also Sliwoski and Jorgenson (1996) point out that in many instances the value is really a suggested selling price or purchasing price.

In business transactions, the computed value of business provides a starting point for the selling price negotiations. One could assume that the “right” price for the business in business transaction is the price at which the business changes hands. Thus, the final value, the price, is “tested” in transaction. If the price is not appropriate, no transaction happens. This certain kind of control of the final value does not appear in non-transactional situations. In the context of divorce, the court usually decides the final value based on the experts’ statements. From the legal point of view, two issues relating to the marital assets are important. One is the treatment of the professional goodwill. No mention of professional goodwill included in the experts’ statements in the VIB case. They both adjusted the income by reducing the amount of the owner’s reasonable wage. It remained unclear if they meant that the professional goodwill included to that. Because the professional goodwill does not belong to marital assets in Finland, it should exclude from the value of the business.

The other issue in valuation in a divorce context is the fact to which extent the future income belongs to the marital assets. It relates to the purpose of the valuation in a divorce. The aim of the valuation in a divorce is to define the value of the business at the date of the partition, not in the future. That might be in contradiction with the discounted economic income method, because the method is based on economic income expected in the future. When accepting the use of the discounted economic income method in the VIB case the Supreme Court might not sufficiently took into account the purpose of the valuation.

According to Pratt et al. (1998), some analysts also are afraid that the discounted economic income method impounds the results of future efforts of the operating spouse (which are not marital property) into the present value to the business. If this is the potential issue, Pratt et al. continue, one should be careful to reflect only the income that would reasonable expected from running the business with an employed, non-owner manager. In the VIB case, the Supreme Court indeed concluded that the value of the business should be less than in the experts’ statements. That was because the income was mainly basing on the husband’s work. However, reducing the final value at the end may not be the correct way, if the final value originally was unrealistic high.

CONCLUSION

This study revealed that when valuing a small business in a divorce it is essential to take into account both the accounting and the legal point of view. From the accounting point of view, careful consideration should take into the valuation method. The discounted economic income method has increasingly been used in small business valuation. However, some questions are arising when using it in the context of a divorce. The method is very sensible giving different final values when changing lightly the variants. It is also subjective. The final value is depending on the how the future economic income is predicted and the discount rate selected. Therefore when using this method, one needs an adequate amount of information about the economy and industry conditions that affect the business. It is also very important to take notice to the characteristics of the business. Valuation in the context of a divorce differs from valuation in business acquisitions, because no control of final value appears in a divorce context. From the legal point of view, one should bear in mind that the professional goodwill might not belong to the marital

assets. According to Finnish legal system, it does not. In that case it must not include in the final value. The other point is that the purpose of the valuation in a divorce is to determine the value of the business at a certain date. In Finland, the valuation date is the date of the partition. The income after that date does not belong to the marital property. Hence, the valuation should not be based too much on the future income. The more important is the value that the business has in the hands of the owner at the date of the valuation.

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BIOGRAPHY

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THE DEFENSES OF LIFO AS AN ACCEPTABLE ACCOUNTING METHOD

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The Last in First out Method (LIFO) is presently under severe scrutiny from the financial community which may soon culminate in its repeal as an acceptable accounting method. There are pressures from the SEC in conjunction with the International Financial Accounting Standards Board (IFRS) to standardize accounting standards worldwide. In addition, there is political pressure imposed by the US Obama administration to raise additional revenues. Both groups strongly oppose LIFO, raising a strong possibility that its complete elimination as an accounting method will occur by as early as 2014. This paper will address the reasons defending LIFO as an acceptable accounting method.

First, from an accounting theory perspective, it satisfies the principles of historical cost, conservatism, reliability, matching, the temporary difference aspect of deferred taxes and the income statement economic reality of LIFO presentation. Second, from the perspective of the US government, tax loopholes are many and LIFO is but one small example. If the US government eliminates these many tax loopholes at the expense of lowering the tax rates, as indicated, the result will be a tax neutral revenue situation which does nothing to help the deficit. Third and lastly, IFRS and US GAAP are in the process of convergence, which is far different than having identical accounting standards. Differences between the two entities in financial reporting will remain in effect after 2014. The result is that the need to eliminate LIFO is not necessary from taxation, political or financial reporting position.

A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON OF ONLINE CUSTOMER REVIEWS

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we describe both cultural and lingual factors have impacts on customers' online reviewing behaviors. In order to investigate the difference between customers' reviews in English and Chinese, 20 reviews for each of three products (e.g., a cell phone, a camera and a computer external hard drive) on both amazon.com and amazon.cn have been chosen and compared. Qualitative study has been conducted to compare the difference between English and Chinese on these aspects. Coding schemes were extracted based on the results of the qualitative study, and English and Chinese reviews were further studied in quantitative methods. Our results show that Chinese reviews focus more on negative aspects than American reviews, and American customers give more recommendations to others than Chinese customers. Furthermore, Chinese and American customers focus on different aspects of products. The results of this study can be used to improve customer service, product marketing and promotion in multinational business.

JEL: M3 - Marketing and Advertising, M30 – General

KEYWORDS: online customer reviews, cross-culture perspectives, lingual difference, multinational business, amazon.com, amazon.cn

INTRODUCTION

When consumers search for product information and buy potential products on the Internet, they could browse online reviews written by other customers. These customer reviews are displayed in different formats and content, for example, they may present as star-rating style, personal comments, product functional reviews and so on. Prospective customers will read these product reviews and make their own purchase decisions, and these consumers' final selections will also affect the sales of retailers and aspiration of other potential customers. What's more, online customer reviews can be defined as peer-generated product evaluations posted on company or third party websites. Retail websites offer consumers the opportunity to post product reviews with content in the form of numerical star ratings and open-ended customer-authored comments about the product [1]. The mere presence of customer reviews on a website can improve customer perception of the website [2]. Sites such as Amazon.com elicit customer reviews for several reasons, such as to serve as a mechanism to increase site "stickiness," and to create an information product that can be sold to other online retailers. Reviews that are perceived as helpful to customers have greater potential value to companies, including increased sales [3-6].

Recent research has examined the role of online customer product reviews, specifically looking at the characteristics of the reviewers [7, 8]. The cultural dimensions were also found to vary across the different countries and different products [9]. However, despite the obvious importance of cultural factors, only a few studies have been performed on cross-cultural issues [10]. This is partly because any such study must confront the difficulty of explicitly identifying and measuring the intangible concept of

culture in the context of a particular system [11]. In this paper, we will try to compare customer reviews written in two different languages (English and Chinese) for three distinct products and collect data from Amazon.com (US-based) and Amazon.cn (China-based) website.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Individualism-collectivism [12] is one of the most commonly used dimensions in cross-cultural studies. Members of individualist cultures (e.g., American) tend to hold an independent view of the self that emphasizes separateness, internal attributes, and the uniqueness of individuals, while those of collectivist cultures (e.g., Chinese) tend to hold an interdependent view of the self that emphasizes connectedness, social context, and relationships. As a result, there are attitudinal and behavioral differences between the two cultures, which are listed in table 1 [13].

Table 1: Relative Attitudinal And Behavioral Differences Associated With Individualism Versus Collectivism

	Individualism (e.g., United States, Australia, Canada)	Collectivism (e.g., Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan)
Self-construal	Defined by internal attributes, personal traits	Defined by important others, family, friends
Role of others	Self-evaluation (e.g., standards of social comparison, sources of appraisal regarding self)	Self-definition (e.g., relationships with others define self and impact personal preferences)
Values	Emphasis on separateness, individuality	Emphasis on connectedness, relationships
Motivational drives	Focus on differentiation, relatively greater need to be unique	Focus on similarity, relatively greater need to blend in
Behavior	Reflective of personal preferences and needs	Influenced by preferences, needs of close others

Members of collectivist cultures tend to form attitudes about individuals on the basis of both dispositional traits and contextual factors. However, members of individualist cultures form attitudes about individuals solely on the basis of dispositional traits [14]. We believe these cultural differences will also influence people's attitudes and behaviors on online products reviewing. One of our research questions is to determine whether there are any differences on the review content. Thus, we first hypothesize that:

H1: American customers comment on products focused more on products' specific traits than Chinese customers.

Online reviewing is a way of expressing people's opinion. Huang [15] conducted a cross-cultural study to explore the effects of cultural conditions, particularly the dimension of individualism/collectivism, and the effects of individual motives on opinion expression by drawing two probability samples from the United States and Taiwan, two countries with different scores on individualism/collectivism. Results show that incongruence between one's own and the perceived future majority opinion and a lack of efficacy reduce Taiwanese people's willingness to express their opinions. For Americans, it is only motives for not expressing opinions that make them less willing to express their views. We believe that Americans are more willing to give feedback to products as reviews:

H2: Americans tend to express more of their own opinions about products than Chinese.

In a collectivistic culture like the Chinese, the self is bound by relationships with others. The Chinese are

more inclined to behave in accordance with personal preference and social demand than with objective standard. Such concepts as “renqing” and “guanxi” have impact on how people persuade and influence others. Meanwhile, the major cultural values of Americans are individualistic which have the emphasis upon independence and individual rights. In the process of persuasion, persuaders are believed to have the right to choose whether or not to comply. Individuals are socialized to make rational decisions and prefer to use the factual-inductive style of persuasion [16]. Hence, we hypothesize that Americans and Chinese use different persuading styles in their customers’ reviews:

H3: American and Chinese customers using different persuading styles in their reviews.

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this part, we will explore and try to answer these 3 following questions when we design our research: How do we design our research to capture main culture factors in terms of English and Chinese online product reviews? How do we choose products and reviews? And what kinds of data should be collected?

Design Research To Capture Main Culture Factors

In order to reflect two different culture backgrounds, two most popular websites in their own countries have been chosen:

- (1) www.amazon.com (US-based)
- (2) www.amazon.cn (China-based)

The reasons that we chose these two websites are not only because they did look so similar in layout and they are actually owned by one company, the main point is we are trying to eliminate other factors but cultures, because our research design is to capture main culture factors in terms of English and Chinese on these two B2C websites.

Choice of Products And Reviews

Again, in order to minimize other factors effect on our research, we narrow down to randomly select 3 distinct products in the category of electronic devices: A cell phone (Nokia 5530), a camera (Sony DSC-W350 in black color) and a hard drive (Toshiba 2.5-Inch 320 GB External Hard Drive). Besides, we need to make sure there are enough customer reviews on both websites for these selected products to be analyzed. So for this study, we first order these reviews by “Most Helpful First” option and then we select 20 reviews from US website (www.amazon.com) and 20 reviews from Chinese website (www.amazon.cn) for each product discussed above.

Data Collection

We collect 120 customers’ reviews from these two business-to-customer e-commerce web sites on three different products. So, there are 20 reviews in English and 20 are in Chinese, totally there are 40 reviews for each product. We firstly apply qualitative analysis: we review all the 120 customers review, and analyze and compare reviews in two languages to figure out the similarity and differences, as well as find

characteristics in both of them. And then based on the findings from qualitative analysis, we start to build coding schemes. We capture such factors in our scheme: Total number of sentences; Overall review; Price; Features; Recommendation to Consumers; Promotions (E.g. Accessories); Genuine; Location of Manufactory; Others (E.g. Customer services, shipping and returning issues). For example, table 2 is the scheme template for one of our products – camera (Sony DSC-W350). The frequency of how many times the reviewer comments on these aspects will be coded and the frequencies of reviews in two languages will be compared.

Table 2: Example of a Scheme Template For Camera Product

Reviews	Total number of sentences	Overall review	Price	Features	Recommendation to Consumers	Promotions (E.g. Accessories)	Genuine	Location of Manufactory	Others
R1	35	1	2	27	1	0	0	0	4
R2	16	1	0	14	0	0	0	0	1
R3	11	3	1	5	0	0	1	0	1
R4	4	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
R5	9	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	2
R6	13	1	1	9	0	0	0	0	3
R7	23	1	0	13	2	0	0	0	7
R8	4	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1
R9	8	2	2	3	0	0	0	0	2
R10	9	1	0	8	0	0	0	0	0
R11	12	1	0	10	0	0	0	0	1
R12	5	1	1	4	0	0	0	0	0
R13	9	1	2	6	0	0	0	0	1
R14	9	1	0	8	0	0	0	0	0
R15	4	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
R16	6	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0
R17	4	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
R18	6	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
R19	7	2	0	5	0	0	0	0	1
R20	9	1	0	7	0	0	0	0	1

RESULTS

120 reviews were first carefully compared and analyzed by us. Some valuable conclusions have been drawn based on the comparison, which are presented in the following section. The data coded have been analyzed through Chi tests and t tests, and the results are also presented in this part.

Qualitative Analysis Results

Based on ours comparison of Chinese and English reviews, 7 conclusions have been drawn as follows:

(1) Praise vs. criticism

Chinese reviews focus more about negative aspects, e.g., “~~啊这有~~ 听谁说话都是感冒一样的声音。(In English: There is a problem with the handset, so everybody’s talk voices are the same that looks like they all get cold)”, “~~还要硬盘 加密的内容 这叫什么加密?~~ (In English: I am so regret that the encrypted content should be opened by the hard disk, what kind of this encryption?)” However, English reviews have more positive aspects, e.g., “I find it to be very functional - I have not had a dropped call or any problems with the interface itself. The touch-screen is very easy and fun to use.”

Previous study has verified that culture has impact on feedback behaviors [17]. According to individualism and collectivism theory, people in collectivistic cultures care about group harmony more than in individualistic cultures, and they are less likely to show their dissidence directly. However, our finding is not consistent with it. We believe it may be due to the special online environment. Firstly, customers use IDs when they provided their feedback, or even anonymously. Hence it is impossible to identify them, and they are more willing to express their true opinions. Secondly, online customers are not familiar with each other, thus they may do not have strong sense of group.

(2) Persuading behaviors

American customers tend to make some direct recommendations to others, while Chinese customers do not make recommendations to others. For example, online product reviews are coming from American customers like: “For anyone who is planning to buy this phone I won’t recommend it”; “I don’t recommend to buy this cell phone ever”; “I recommend to others”. We did not see many recommendations like those sentences in Chinese reviews.

Hence, our hypothesis three – *H3: American and Chinese customers use different persuading styles in their reviews*, is supported in this context.

(3) Concerns

Both Chinese and American pay much attention on product functions, features, quality, and price. However, Chinese customers complain much more on customer service of the website than American customers, such as product packing problems and delivering qualities. It reveals that amazon.cn needs to improve their localized customer services. Besides, Only Chinese customers make comments about whether the product is genuine or not, and only Chinese customers make comments on manufactory location. We believe it is because of the Chinese market environment is not as mature as American. Counterfeit digital products are in some kind of degree indeed available in Chinese market.

(4) Motivation to give feedback

We have chosen top 20 most useful reviews in both Chinese and English for each product. However, it seems that Americans are more willing to provide their feedback, and the length of American reviews is

much longer than Chinese reviews. It is not clear why Americans are more motivated to provide more feedback. It could be related to the operation strategy of those two localized web sites.

Quantitative Analysis Results

We also qualified the reviews of three products with the same nodes. The data have been analyzed in the following ways.

(5) Number of review sentences

We have compared means of review sentence numbers, which is presented in figure 1. T-test results are shown in table 3. As the result shows, English reviews are significantly longer than Chinese reviews for three products, and all the reviews in total.

Figure 1: Means of review sentence numbers

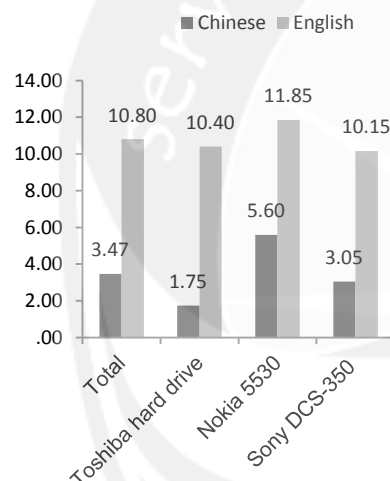


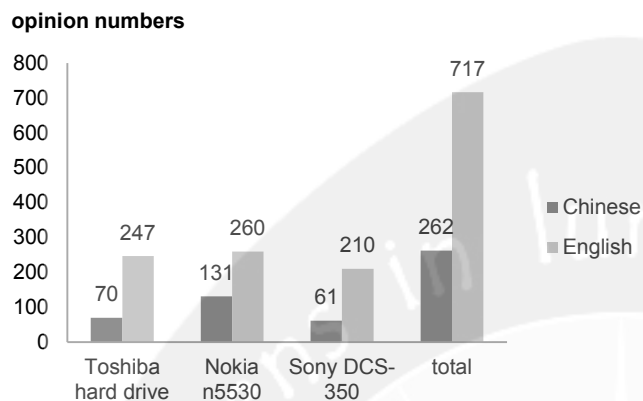
Table 3: T-test of means of review sentence numbers

	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
total	-6.576	<0.001
Toshiba hard drive	-6.426	<0.001
Nokia 5530	-2.487	<0.01
Sony DCS-350	-4.122	<0.001

Those results support hypothesis two – H2: Americans tend to express more of their own opinions about products than Chinese.

(6) Opinion numbers

Figure 2: Opinion numbers of Chinese and English reviews



We also compared opinion numbers, which are presented in figure 2. As the result shows, English reviews have more opinions for three products, and all the reviews in total. This also support hypothesis two particularly – *H2: Americans tend to express more of their own opinions about products than Chinese.*

(7) Customer concerned aspects

Chi-Square tests have been conducted to see whether American customers and Chinese customers focus on the same aspects of products.

1. Product: Toshiba hard drive

Table 4: Frequencies and percentages of concerned aspects (Toshiba hard drive)

	Overall comment	Price	Features	Recommendation to Consumers	Accessory Promotion	Genuine	Location of Manufactory	Others	Total review number
Chinese	20(29%)	6(9%)	35(50%)	3(4%)	1(1%)	4(6%)	1(1%)	0(0%)	70
English	56(23%)	11(4%)	96(39%)	8(3%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	76(31%)	247

Table 5: Chi-Square test result(Toshiba hard drive)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	47.035a	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	60.076	7	.000
N of Valid Cases	317		

The frequencies and percentages of customer concerned aspects in table 4 and Chi-Square test result in table 5 indicate Chinese and American customers' focused aspects are significantly different. Besides the total number of opinions for English reviews is much larger than that of Chinese reviews.

2. Product: Nokia 5530

Similar to the results for the product of Toshiba hard drive, the frequencies and percentages of customer concerned aspects in table 6 for Nokia 5530 and Chi-Square test result presented in table 7 indicate Chinese and American customers' focused aspects are also significantly different. American customers' reviews are mainly focus on features of products. However, Chinese customers pay much attention on other aspects rather than the products themselves.

Table 6: Frequencies and percentages of concerned aspects (Nokia 5530)

	Overall comment	Price	Features	Recommendation to Consumers	Accessory Promotion	Genuine	Location of Manufactory	Others	Total review number
Chinese	7(5%)	8(6%)	52(40%)	0(0%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	1(1%)	61(47%)	131
English	23(9%)	11(4%)	202(78%)	6(2%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	18(7%)	260

Table 7: Chi-Square test result (Nokia 5530)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	98.114 ^a	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	97.924	7	.000
N of Valid Cases	391		

3. Product: Sony DCS-350

We did the same research for the third product of Sony DCS-350. Again, the frequencies and percentages showed in table 8 and Chi-Square test result in table 9 indicate Chinese and American customers' focused aspects are significantly.

Table 8: Frequencies and percentages of concerned aspects (Sony DCS-350)

	Overall comment	Price	Features	Recommendation to Consumers	Accessory Promotion	Genuine	Location of Manufactory	Others	Total review number
Chinese	15(25%)	11(18%)	11(18%)	1(2%)	14(23%)	3(5%)	1(2%)	5(8%)	61
English	24(11%)	13(6%)	141(67%)	3(1%)	0(0%)	1(0.5%)	0(0%)	28(13%)	210

Table 9. Chi-Square test result(Sony DCS-350)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	92.497 ^a	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	87.938	7	.000
N of Valid Cases	271		

4. For all three products

Finally, we did the research for all these products and would like to get the results in general. Just like the previous 3 experiments, the frequencies and percentages of customer concerned aspects in table 10 and Chi-Square test result in table 11 indicate Chinese and American customers' focused aspects are significantly different.

Table 10: Frequencies and percentages of concerned aspects of three products

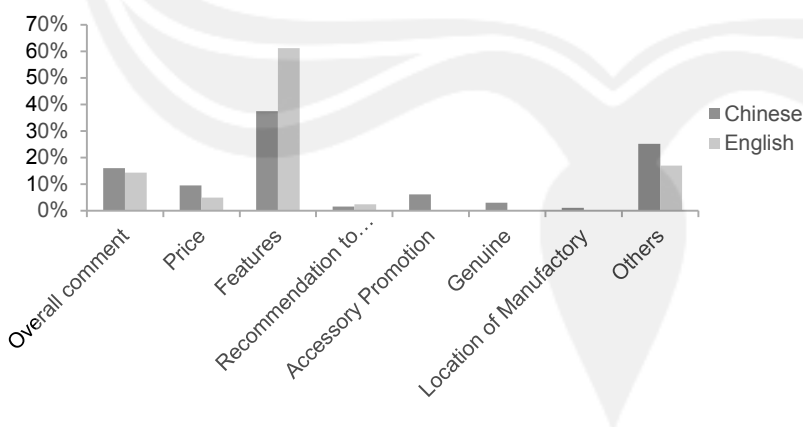
	Overall comment	Price	Features	Recommendation	Accessory	Genuine	Location of Manufacturer	Others	Total review
Chinese	42(16%)	25(10%)	98(37%)	4(2%)	16(6%)	8(3%)	8(3%)	3(1%)	262
English	103(14%)	35(5%)	439(61%)	17(2%)	0(0%)	1(0.5%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	717

Table 11: Chi-Square test result of three products

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	104.049 ^a	7	.000
Likelihood Ratio	100.586	7	.000
N of Valid Cases	979		

Figure 3 below compares the percentages of Chinese and English reviews focused aspects. And we can get the conclusion that more than 60% of American customers' reviews are about features; on the other hand, less than 40% of Chinese customers' opinions are about features.

Figure 3: Comparison Of Percentages Of Chinese And English Focused Aspects



From figure 3, it also validates our hypothesis one that is about customers' focused aspects:

H1: American customers comment on products focused more on products' specific traits than Chinese customers.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In our research, 120 pieces of customer online reviews of three electronic products from Amazon.com (US-based) and Amazon.cn (China-based) have been carefully collected, coded, and analyzed through qualitative and quantitative study approaches. We initially propose 3 hypotheses at the beginning part based on related studies in this area. After studying customer's persuading behaviors in online reviewing, our research results finally well support these hypotheses:

"H1: American customers comment on products focused more on products' specific traits than Chinese customers", "H2: Americans tend to express more of their own opinions about products than Chinese" and "H3: American and Chinese customers using different persuading styles in their reviews".

To conclude our study results, we list them as follows:

- (1) Chinese reviews focus more on negative aspects than American reviews, which may reveal different styles in two cultures of giving feedback.
- (2) American customers give more recommendations to others than Chinese people, which also indicate that people have different persuading styles in two cultures.
- (3) Chinese and American customers focus on different aspects of products. The results can be used to improve customer service, product marketing and promotion in the future.
- (4) American customers write more number of sentences in their feedbacks, and they express more opinions than Chinese customers. It indicates that American customers are more willing to provide feedbacks than Chinese customers.

There are some limitations we will discuss below and some future research to be explored. First, we used sentence number to indicate the willingness of customers to provide feedbacks online. However, there may have some problems with this method. The expression power of Chinese and English is different, for example, one Chinese sentence can be translated into several English sentences. Besides, there might be some other factors rather than willingness that have impact on sentence numbers, such as the encouragement of the web sites. Even though, we still believe the results are significantly differences between the sentence numbers in two languages. Besides, we have only focused on whether customers concern certain aspects, and we have neglected the sentiment trends of Chinese and English reviews. Opinion analysis, such sentiment analysis, may be used here to help us. For example, when we study customers' reviews and we have found that Chinese customers tend to provide more negative feedback than American customers. However, further research need to be studied in order to support our hypothesis. Also, we did not take the differences between two languages into consideration, such as sentence structure, syntax, etc., which are also our future research topics.

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CASE STUDY ON SUCCESSIVE PLANNING

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We prepare, a case study on a real life situation on successive planning involving two shareholders of a privately held business. The issues explored are as follows:

- 1- *reasons for successive planning*
- 2- *Failures resulting by not having a successive plan in place*
- 3- *Types of Successive plans(The 2 types of Buy-Sell agreements)*
- 4- *Taxation aspect of each plan*
- 5- *Other advantages and disadvantages of each plan*
- 6- *Valuation methods to value business and the need to revalue*
- 7- *Discount for marketability and Liquidity*
- 8- *Funding the plan*
- 9- *Types of insurance used to fund a successive plan*
- 10- *How to pay the premiums to maximize Estate and Income Tax aspects*
- 11- *Accumulated Earning Tax Penalty(IRC 529)*
- 12- *Disability aspect in the Buy-Sale Agreement*

We present the actual financial statements (change of name of course) of the company, and ask a series of questions on the above points. Generally, there will be a recommended answer which will not be exact due to the inexact science of valuation and more than one recommended solution may be viable, depending on assumptions and needs of the company and/or owners. In this case however, there will be one recommended solution as the owners are the same age, the company has much money to fund the plan and the owners agree on the method which will yield the most beneficial tax benefit from both: estate and income tax purposes.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING AS COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

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ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the different theoretical framework for organizational learning from two aspects, the individual to the organization and from the perspective of the organization to the individual. The most significant finding is intended to highlight the guidelines for each of the authors concentrated per cluster, and note, that different authors present guidelines for processes, individual skills, changes in the environment, teamwork and competitiveness. The insight gained, considers that organizational learning is a process, not routine. It allows you to create, acquire and transfer knowledge. This will always be limited to the internal capabilities developed during the course of the timeline, identifying skills and competencies generated in accordance with the requirements presented by the different environments. Organizational learning is associated with both the change in organizational behavior and creation of a knowledge base to support it. The information was derived from books, magazines and important links on the web, which analyzed and identified concepts, dimensions and levels of organizational learning. This exploratory study allowed for an adequate approach to the issue under study.

KEYWORDS: organizational learning, organizational processes, models of competitiveness, smart organizations.

OPTIMALIZATION OF LIQUIDITY STRATEGY: POLISH NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS CASE

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ABSTRACT

In dependence of kind of realized mission, sensitivity on risk, which is a result of decision about liquid assets investment level and liquid assets financing. The kind of organization influence the best strategy choice. The organization choosing between various solutions in liquid assets needs to decide what level of risk is acceptable for her owners and capital suppliers. That choice results with financing consequences, especially in cost level. It is a basis for considerations about relations between risk and expected benefits from the liquid assets decision and its results on financing costs for both nonprofit or for profit organizations. The paper shows how in author opinion decisions about liquid assets management strategy and choice between kind of taxed or non-taxed form inflow the risk of the organizations and its economical results during realization of main mission. Comparing the theoretical model with empirical data for 1000+ Polish nonprofit organization results, suggest that nonprofit organization managing teams choose higher risky aggressive liquid assets solutions than for-profit organizations.

JEL: G31, L31, M21

KEYWORDS: liquidity value, short-run financial management, financial liquidity, liquid assets, working capital

INTRODUCTION

As is widely believed, the advantage of commercially driven businesses is more effective management than in government controlled organizations (Nowicki, 2004, p. 29). In that paper we study the nonprofit organization liquid assets management. That group of organizations face specific incumbent needs, which are the result of higher unemployment and other similar factors (Zietlow, 2010, p. 238-248). The main financial aim of the nonprofit organization (NPO) is not the maximization of organization value but the best realization of the mission of that organization (Zietlow, 2007, p. 6-7). But for assessment of financial decision NPO, should be used analogous rules like for for-profit organizations (Brigham 2006, p. 524-536). One of that rules is fact, that the higher risk is linked with the higher cost of capital rate which should be used to evaluate the future results of decisions made by nonprofit organizations. That is also positively linked with the level of efficiency and effectiveness in realization of the NPO mission. Cost of financing net liquid assets (working capital) depends on the risk included to the organization strategy of financing and/or investment in liquid assets.

Managing team of non-profit organizations has a lot of important reasons for which their organization should possess some money resources reserves even if current interest rate is positive (Michalski 2010, Kim 1998). The reasons may be classified into three main groups: the necessity of current expenses financing (transactional reason), fear of future cash flows uncertainty (precautional reason), future interest rate level uncertainty (speculative reason). Liquid assets, especially cash, understood as money resources in organization safe are not a source of any or small interests. Maintaining liquidity reserve in the non-profit organization is a result of belief that the value of lost income on account of interest will be recompensed by the benefits for incumbents of non-profit organization (Kim 1998, Lee 1990). The hypothetical benefits are from higher profitability that organization mission will be completed, thanks adequate liquidity level. There is a point corresponding with the optimal (critical) liquidity level, up to which the amount of liquid assesses in the non-profit organization may be increased at a profit (Washam 1989, p.28; Henderson 1989, Lee 1990).

Financing of the liquid assets has its cost depending on risk linked with liquid assets strategies used by the financed organization. If we have higher risk, we will have higher cost of financing (cost of capital) and as result other Organization efficiency growth. There are no free lunches. Cost of financing of liquid assets depends on kind of financing, next on level of liquid assets in relation to sales and last but not least risk exposition.

According to kind of financing we have three strategies: an aggressive strategy with the most risky but the cheapest, mainly short-term financing, a compromise strategy with compromise between risk and costs of financing or a conservative strategy with the most expensive long-term financing and with the smallest level of risk. Choosing between various levels of liquid assets in relation to sales, we use one from three strategies: a restrictive strategy when management use the most risky but the cheapest, the smallest as possible, level of liquid assets, a moderate strategy when management moderate between risk and costs of holding liquid assets, or a flexible strategy when management use the most expensive and rather high levels of liquid assets wanting to hedge the organization before risk of shortage of liquid assets (Michalski 2010).

Risk exposition depends on position of the organization in its business branch. If the risk exposition should be higher, then more smart is to choose more flexible and more conservative solutions to have better results. It works in opposite direction also, the safe organization with near to monopoly positions can use more restrictive and more aggressive strategies to have better results.

STRATEGIES IN LIQUID ASSETS INVESTMENT AND LIQUID ASSETS FINANCING

Current assets investment strategies are the set of criteria and specific code of conduct revolved around attaining multiplication of efficiency of using donors money for realization of the mission. Organization managing team implement such strategies into practice while making the crucial decisions concerning obtaining sources for financing current and future needs and defining ways and directions of utilization of these sources, taking into consideration at the same time: opportunities, limitations and business environment that are known to the board today. It is possible to apply one of the three liquid assets financing strategies (or their variations): aggressive, compromise or conservative. Aggressive strategy consists in the significant part of the organization fixed demand and the whole organization variable demand on liquidity-linked financing sources coming from short term financing. The Compromise version of liquid assets financing strategy aims at adjusting the needed financing period to the duration of period for which the organization needs these assets. As a result, the fixed share of current assets financing is based on long term capital. However, the variable share is financed by short term capital. The conservative liquid assets financing strategy leads to the situation where both the fixed and the variable level of current assets is maintained on the basis of long term financing.

Liquid assets financing strategy to risk relation. There is a relationship between the three above mentioned approaches based on the relation between expected benefit and risk. In case of capital providers for organizations that have introduced this specific strategy it is usually linked with diversified claims to the rate of return from the amount of capital invested in the organization. The connection of these claims with the chosen way of financing may be insignificant. Nevertheless, it also might be important to such a considerable degree that it will have an effect on the choice of strategy.

Example. XYZ organization managing team is pondering over the choice of current assets financing strategy. Need to be chosen the best strategy provided by the aim which is to minimize cost of financing liquid assets and maximize organization efficiency. Fund capital/engaged capital ratio is 40% $\{E/(E+D) = 40\%\}$. Anticipated annual sales revenues (CR) are 2000. Forecasted earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT) for XYZ will amount to about 50% of sales revenues (CR). Fixed assets (FA) will be going for around 1400, current assets (CA) will be constituting almost 30% of forecasted sales revenues (CR), property renewing will be close to its use (NCE = CAPEX), and changes in relations of net liquid assets constituents will be close to zero and might be omitted ($\Delta NWC = 0$). The organization may implement one of the three liquid assets financing strategies: the conservative one with such a relation of long run debt to short run debt that ($D_s/D_l = 0,1$), Compromise one ($D_s/(D_l) = 1$) or the aggressive one ($D_s/(D_l) = 2$). Accounts payable will be equal to 50% of current assets.

It is necessary to consider the influence of each strategy on the cost of organization financing capital rate and on organization efficiency. In the first variant, one must assume that capital providers seriously consider while defining their claims to rates of return the liquid assets financing strategy chosen by the organization they tied in.

Let us also assume that the correction factor CZ depends on D_s/D_l relation.

CZ1 variant. We assume here that capital providers take into consideration the organization liquid assets financing strategy while defining their claims as regards the rates of return. Of course, aggressive strategy is perceived as more risky and therefore depending on investors risk exposition level, they tend to ascribe to the financed organization applying aggressive strategy an additional expected risk premium. To put it simply, let us assume that ascribing the additional risk premium for applied liquid assets financing strategy is reflected in the value of β coefficient. For each strategy, the β coefficient will be corrected by the corrective coefficient CZ corresponding to that specific strategy in relation to the situation $D_s/D_l = 0$. XYZ risk premium will amount to $9\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to foreign long term capital and $12\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to short term debt level. Risk free rate is 4%, rate of return on market portfolio is 18%.

If our organization is a representative of A sector for which the non-leveraged risk coefficient $\beta_u = 0.77$. On the basis of so called Hamada relation (Hamada 1972), we can estimate the fund capital cost rate that is financing that organization in case of each of the three strategies in the first variant.

$$\beta_l = \beta_u \times \left(1 + (1-T) \times \frac{D}{E}\right) = 0.77 \times (1 + 0.81 \times 0.66) = 1.19 \quad (1)$$

where: T – effective tax rate, here the assumption is taken that the NPO uses the tax-exempt debt and as a result there have about the same effective cost of debt as for profit organizations (Brigam 2000, 30-5,7,20), D – organization financing capital coming from creditors ($D_s + D_l$), E – organization financing capital coming from owners, β – risk coefficient, β_u – risk coefficient linked with assets maintained by the organization (for an organization that has not applied the system of financing by creditors capital), β_l – risk coefficient for an organization that applying the system of financing by creditors capital (both the financial and operational risks are included).

For aggressive strategy (CZ = 0.2):

$$\beta_{l_{AGR}} = \beta_u \times \left(1 + (1-T) \times \frac{D}{E}\right) \times (1+CZ) = 0.77 \times (1 + 0.81 \times 0.66) \times 1.2 = 1.43 \quad (2)$$

where: CZ – risk premium correction factor dependent on the net liquid assets financing strategy

For compromise strategy (CZ = 0.1):

$$\beta_{l_{CMP}} = \beta_u \times \left(1 + (1-T) \times \frac{D}{E}\right) \times (1+CZ) = 0.77 \times (1 + 0.81 \times 0.66) \times 1.1 = 1.31 \quad (3)$$

For conservative strategy (CZ = 0.01):

$$\beta_{l_{CNS}} = \beta_u \times \left(1 + (1-T) \times \frac{D}{E}\right) \times (1+CZ) = 0.77 \times (1 + 0.81 \times 0.66) \times 1.01 = 1.2 \quad (4)$$

Thanks to that information, we can calculate cost of fund capital rates for every variant.

$$k_{e_{AGR}} = \beta \times (k_M - k_{RF}) + k_{RF} = 1.43 \times 14\% + 4\% = 24\%; \quad k_{e_{CMP}} = \beta \times (k_M - k_{RF}) + k_{RF} = 1.31 \times 14\% + 4\% = 22.3\%; \quad (5)$$

$$k_{e_{CNS}} = \beta \times (k_M - k_{RF}) + k_{RF} = 1.2 \times 14\% + 4\% = 20.8\%$$

$$k_{e_{CNS}} = \beta \times (k_M - k_{RF}) + k_{RF} = 1.2 \times 14\% + 4\% = 20.8\%$$

where: k – rate of return expected by capital donors and at the same time (from organization's perspective) – organization cost of financing capital rate, k_e – for capital coming from owners (cost of fund capital rate), k_M – for average rate of return on typical investment on the market, k_{RF} – for risk free rate of return whose approximation is an average profitability of Treasury bills in the country where the investment is made.

Hence, since the risk premium for XYZ accounts for $9\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to foreign long term capital, we can get long term debt cost rates:

$$k_{d_{AGR}} = 24\% - 9\% \times 1.2 = 13.2\%; \quad k_{d_{CMP}} = 22.3\% - 9\% \times 1.1 = 12.4\%; \quad k_{d_{CNS}} = 20.8\% - 9\% \times 1.01 = 11.7\% \quad (6)$$

where: k_{dl} – for long term debt rate, i.e. capital coming from long term creditors,

And consequently for short term:

$$(7)$$

$$k_{d_{AGR}} = 24\% - 12\% \times 1.2 = 9.6\%; \quad k_{d_{CMP}} = 22.3\% - 12\% \times 1.1 = 9.1\%; \quad k_{d_{CNS}} = 20.8\% - 12\% \times 1.01 = 8.7\%$$

where: k_{ds} – for short term debt, i.e. capital coming from short term creditors,

However, for each strategy, this cost rate will be on another level. Cost of capital and changes in organization efficiency (or economic efficiency nonprofit organization) depending on the choice of strategy, give us results for cost of capital financing organization (CC): 14.8% for aggressive, 14.2% for compromise and 13.9% for conservative strategies. In result of such costs of capital levels, organization efficiency growth (ΔV) is 5057 for aggressive, 5342 for compromise and 5494 for conservative strategies. Cost of organization financing capital rates are different for different approaches to liquid assets financing. The lowest cost of capital rate is observed in conservative strategy and the conservative strategy gives in CZ1 case the most effective organization efficiency growth.

In the CZ2 variant, we will also assume that capital providers while defining their claims to rates of return take into consideration the organization liquid assets financing strategy to a lesser extent. Obviously, the aggressive strategy is perceived as more risky and therefore, depending on their risk exposition, they tend to ascribe an additional risk premium for an organization that implemented this type of strategy. For conservative strategy, XYZ risk premium is equal to $9\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to long term debt and $12\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to short term debt. Risk free rate of return is 4%, rate of return on market portfolio is 18%.

Our NPO is a representative of a sector for which non-leveraged risk coefficient $\beta_u = 0.77$. On the basis of Hamada relation, we may estimate the cost rate of fund capital financing this organization in case of each of the three strategies.

We are given all necessary information to assess cost of organization financing capital rate for the organization applying the given type of liquid assets financing strategy. For each strategy the organization efficiency growth will be on another level. Cost of capital and changes in organization efficiency (or economic efficiency nonprofit organization) depending on the choice of strategy, give us results for cost of capital financing organization (CC): 13.15% for aggressive, 13.3% for compromise and 13.81% for conservative strategies. In result of such costs of capital levels, organization efficiency growth (ΔV) is 5905 for aggressive, 5819 for compromise and 5541 for conservative strategies. Taking into consideration the risk premium resulting from implementation of a certain liquid assets financing strategy has an additional impact on the organization financing capital. Organization financing capital cost rates are different for different approaches to liquid assets financing. In this variant, the lowest level is observed in aggressive strategy. As a consequence, the highest organization efficiency growth is characteristic for aggressive type of strategy.

In the third CZ3 variant, we also assume that capital providers to a lesser extent consider while defining their claims to rates of return the liquid assets financing strategy chosen by the organization they invested in.

For conservative strategy, XYZ risk premium amounts to $9\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to long term debt level and $12\% \times (1+CZ)$ in relation of fund capital to short term debt. Risk free rate is 4%, rate of return on market portfolio is 18%. Our NPO is a representative of sector W for which non-leveraged risk coefficient $\beta_u = 0.77$. On the basis of Hamada relation we may estimate organization financing fund capital cost rate in case of each of the three strategies. We have all necessary information to assess the organization financing capital cost for the organization applying the given type of liquid assets financing strategy. Cost of capital and changes in organization efficiency (or economic efficiency nonprofit organization) depending on the choice of strategy, give us results for cost of capital financing organization (CC): 13.7% for aggressive, 13.6% for compromise and 13.8% for conservative strategies. In result of such costs of capital levels, organization efficiency growth (ΔV) is 5591 for aggressive, 5653 for compromise and 5546 for conservative strategies. Here the best is compromise strategy.

EMPIRICAL DATA

Data collected about Polish NPO show their liquidity strategies for 2009 and 2010 years. If we compare it with for profit Polish organizations results, we can see that the average length of operating cycle and net operating cycle (cash cycle) is shorter than for average for profit organizations. Observation of NPO data can inform us about interesting customs of NPO managing teams. Generally, basing on the data collected from Opolskie area in Poland, for 2009 and 2010 years, also average operating cycle for such group of organizations vary differ, in 2009 was short

(about 5,89 days for 2009 data, with standard deviation = SD = 22,69 days) and in 2010 was shorter (about 3,59 days for 2010 data, with SD = 9,35 days). The data delivered from 80 selected nonprofits in Opolskie (Bopp 2011) suggests also that is no hard link between operating cycle and ROA and ROE results. Operating cycle policy must be first of all a slave of the best realization of the mission nonprofit organization. The economic results are important, but the second or even third in the queue of the aims.

According to data received from 1000+ Polish NPOs, the average NPO investment in liquid assets is more aggressive than in for profit organizations. Average Polish NPO accounts receivable period for 2009-2010 data is about 23 days (5.8 days using winsorized mean and 5.8 days using truncated mean). Average Polish for profit accounts receivable period for 2009-2010 data is about 46 days (Dudycz 2011). Average Polish NPO inventory period for 2009-2010 data is about 4.7 days. Average Polish for profit inventory period for 2009-2010 data is about 39 days. The observation delivered from data of over 1000 selected nonprofits in Poland (Bopp 2011), suggests that here, in Polish NPO case we have situation typical for small risk sensitivity. Is it small risk exposition or rather smaller aversion of managing teams? Unfortunately, author believe that rather the second. That point will be the subject of next findings.

CONCLUSIONS

As was shown in our findings, depending on kind of realized mission, sensitivity on risk, NPOs should chose liquid assets investment level and resulting from that liquid assets financing. The kind of organization influence the best strategy choice. If an exposition on risk is greater, the higher level of inventories, accounts receivable and operating cash should be. If the exposition on that risk is smaller, the more aggressive will be the net liquid assets strategy and smaller level of inventories. The organization choosing between various solutions in liquid assets needs to decide what level of risk is acceptable for her owners and capital suppliers. That choice results with financing consequences, especially in cost level. It is a basis for considerations about relations between risk and expected benefits from the liquid assets decision and its results on financing costs for both nonprofit or for profit organizations. Decisions about liquid assets management strategy and choice between kind of taxed or non-taxed form inflow the risk of the organizations and its economical results during realization of main mission. Comparing the theoretical model with empirical data for 1000+ Polish nonprofit organization results, suggest that nonprofit organization managing teams choose higher risky aggressive liquid assets solutions than for-profit organizations. That observation suggest us that here, in Polish NPO case we have figure 6 situation with smallest risk exposition solution in managing team mind. But in fact probably there is not a smaller risk exposition but rather smaller aversion of managing teams.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The research is financed from the Polish science budget resources in the years 2010-2012 as the research project NN113021139

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THE UNCERTAIN FUTURE OF LIFO

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ABSTRACT

The Last in First out Inventory Method, (LIFO) is under intense scrutiny from many various groups, which may result in its complete elimination in the near future. There are pressures from the SEC to standardize financial reporting standards in light of the ongoing worldwide financial and economic unrest, in conjunction with the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB), coupled with the political pressures imposed by the U.S. Obama Administration to raise additional tax revenues; both of whom strongly oppose LIFO, resulting in its possible elimination by as early as December 31, 2014. A critical review of LIFO is examined, and its shortcomings addressed, which include: The “tax loophole” aspects of LIFO, leading to faulty asset management decision making processes, Balance Sheet and Income Statement limitations and the imposition of political pressures. Assuming a complete repeal of LIFO, recommends a host of tax and managerial opportunities available to the taxpayer to help ease in this transition.

FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT IN AFRICA: SECURING CHINESE'S INVESTMENT FOR A LASTING DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

At the end of the 20th century, when the investors were actively seeking for a favorable and secure place of their capital investment, the African continent has almost never appeared on their schedule. The most recent uncertainty experienced by financial markets as well as capital markets around the world and the increased demand of natural resources forced investors to focus on Africa. The most important investors turned permanently to the mainland unusually shortlisted. This situation, for over a decade, has put the whole of Africa, the developing countries as well as the industrialized ones, in an embarrassing position with a little high rate of foreign investment in the world. Regarding China's presence in Africa, it is not easier to discuss about African development without referring to the currently Chinese investment in Africa. In these past twenty years, its interest in Africa is growing significantly and arouses intense debates within the international community because it has a noble ambition to establish long term relationship with its African partners. This new state of affairs will inevitably generate a legal protection's problem of the interests of each part. This article has examined the impact of the Chinese's investment in African countries development regarding the foreign direct investment, how Chinese investors face challenges in Africa and what legal protection the host country provides to the investors to secure their profit and at the same time protect their own interest.

JEL: K33

KEYWORDS: Foreign direct investment, foreign protection of international investment, developing countries and regional integration.

INTRODUCTION

Historical evidence shows that the African continent has never appeared on the program of foreign investors, when they were actively seeking a favorable and secure place of their capital investment. The fundamental reason was the legal and judicial insecurity that prevailed in Africa after the 1960's. But, the most recent uncertainty experienced by financial markets as well as capital markets around the world and the increased demand of natural resources forced investors to focus on Africa. The most important investors turned permanently to the mainland unusual shortlisted. This situation, for over a decade, has put the whole of Africa, the developing countries as well as the industrialized ones, in an embarrassing position with a little high rate of foreign investment in the world. As it relates to China's presence in Africa, it is not easier to discuss about African development without referring to the currently Chinese investment in Africa. China has become the leading country on foreign direct investment in Africa. For the last two decades, its interest in Africa is growing significantly and arouses intense debates within the international community because its foreign direct investment has increased exponentially and also for its noble ambition to establish long term relationship with its African partners. But China is not a new player in Africa, since it has invested in few African countries before such as Sudan. But during that time, the investment was very low and it is not worrying about protection. This new state of affairs will inevitably generate a legal protection problem of the interests of each part because the foreign investment is

subjected to the law and administrative control of the host country and it therefore means that the guarantees afforded to the foreign investors must not jeopardize the States' right to legitimate regulation. The purpose of this paper is to examine and explore the increasingly important economic impact of the Chinese's Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in West African countries development as it relates to the foreign direct investment, how Chinese investors face challenges in Africa and what legal protection the host country can provide to its foreign investors to secure their profit and at the same time protect its own interest.

China's economic growth is leading China to increase its investment activities in Africa and makes it all the more relevant to African countries. It has become a "new" lender for African countries. This position is not determinate by the duration of its presence on the continent, but the exploding increase in amounts lent to African countries and by its importance as a lender outside the existing hegemony of development actors as Western donors. Then, there are needs to protect its investments to allow continuity for foreign direct investment.

This paper will review the evolution of Chinese Foreign Direct Investment in Africa by identifying the model of Chinese partnership with Africa, the prospects for China's role in developing Africa's infrastructure within the context of China's new trend investment engagement in Africa before analyzing the various obstacles and challenges faced by Chinese investors and finally the setup of laws and regulation of the investment policy in the regional integration organization to improve, increase and protect foreign investment as well as Chinese investment in the region.

THE TRENDS OF CHINESE FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT IN AFRICA

The last two decades, China has been rapidly becoming an important source of outward foreign direct investment and the recent profound increase has made an important change in Chinese foreign investment policy as well as in the world economy and geopolitical competition. Historically, China has had a long economic and political relationship with African countries which as far back as 500 years old. The landmark Bonding Asia-Africa conference in 1955 is seen as the foundation stone of Sino-African modern relationship. Despite some important economic projects, the relationship orientation between 1955 and the mid 1990's was mainly political. But the important period of their relations started when Chinese Government policy was initially the main determinant of outward foreign direct investment. Since 1990, the forces unleashed by the China Open Door Policy of 1979 created a significant momentum in China's interest in the mainland continent. Presently, the primary focus is economic growth. Most Chinese companies have been moved into African countries in the last 5 years. In the context of China's growing role as an investor in Africa, concerns over China's investment behavior are being raised and Chinese enterprises are under increasing pressure to be more responsible global players and such efforts have been encouraged by the Government. Our purpose is to establish the Chinese "model" is a harbinger of a new international economic regime or a continuation of old ideas with a more modern dimension.

China's presence in Africa: a new economic partner for Africa development

Africa is the world's second-largest and second-most populated continent after Asia. It comprises of 54 independent countries with many cultures, heterogeneous customs and languages; but it is also known to be the world's poorest inhabited continent despite its natural resources. China's interest in trade and investment with African-home to over 1 billion of the globe's poorest people and the world's most formidable development challenge presents a significant opportunity for growth and integration of the Sub-Saharan continent into the global economy. China is not a new player in African continent and its economic and political presence, also its impact has grown exponentially in the last few years. This

argues African countries to face a lot of new challenges for the China's role on the continent. Like other parts of the world, Africa is really affected by the phenomenal growth of the Chinese economy. In the view of China aid strategy in Africa, the main motive for its partnership with African countries is to gain access to the abundant raw materials of Africa. This is the political foundation principle, which governs its establishment and development relations with African countries and regional organization. China's contemporary policy for Africa is to focus on few factors that are important, such as its need for energy security driven by its domestic development strategy; new market and investment opportunity to establish export markets for its light manufacturing, services, agro-processing, apparel and communication offerings; diplomatic and development support for its "The one-china" principle; and forging partnership strategic. In its main co-operation driver's way, "China will continue to strengthen solidarity and cooperation with African countries in the international arena, conduct regular exchange of views, co-ordinate positions on major international and regional issues and stand for mutual support on major issues concerning state sovereignty, territorial integrity...."

China is the world's second important consumer of oil and energy, with its limited national resources, its dynamic economic growth fuels an ever-increasing need for energy and strategic minerals. Africa is the best place to get these resources. China is attracted to Africa's relatively underexploited petroleum and other natural resources since 1993 when it changed its policy from a net exporter to a net importer of oil. Sudan is the first African country that receives firstly Chinese investment for the oil in 1994. Ten years later, China was consuming 5.46 million barrels a day (bbl/d), outstripping Japan's 5.43m bbl/d but still some distance from the United States's 19.7m bbl/d. On investigation reports show that Chinese interest in Africa is for the foray into the continent's energy business.

Another important reason of Chinese presence in Africa is economic interest, which aims to establish a new market and investment opportunities. Despite the small consumers market for African goods, the Africa trade relationship with China has had a significant impact on African economic growth and development.

China has been able to find a market for low-value consumer goods brought in by Chinese-dominated import companies and sold through a growing informal network of trading posts across urban and rural Africa. "Chinese products are well suited to the African market. At the time, China is in a position to manufacture basic products at very low prices and of satisfactory quality." The Chinese private companies are actively investing in Africa with flexible and diversified means to invest. The number of private enterprises investing in Africa accounts for more than 70 percent of the total number of foreign enterprises investing in Africa. In the last decade, there are officially 820 Chinese enterprises being established in Africa and the trade volume between Africa and China is more than 29 billion Euros. China is now the second commercial partner of Africa since 2005. Its growing population and energy demand is pushing it to forge joint-partnerships with several African states rich in natural resources where China invests capital and develops the country's infrastructure in exchange for employment and favorable terms for extracting raw materials to China. Agricultural investment in Africa has been encouraged by the government. Chinese investors have also established, in the textile and agro-industries, joint ventures whose aim is to export goods to the West at concessional rates by using the special provisions of the United States' African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) and the European Union's Continuo Agreement.

During the radical revolution movement period which saw China's youths lose a generation education for ten years, a slow economic production and trade, and virtually severed China's relations with the rest of the world. As a result China's desire to be an economic power was set back significantly. This situation has made a critical change on the China's foreign policies and led it to open the trade relations with the

West. Since then, it started playing an active role in international organizations, and diplomatic relations were established with countries willing to recognize the People's Republic as the government of China rather than the Nationalist government on Taiwan. On January 1st, 1979 China full diplomacy was recognized to the detriment of Taiwan. China's insistence on recognition of its "the One-China" policy by African has forced it to provide deeply aid and investment to the mainland. Its economy had become the fastest growing economy in the world, in spite of not changing its communist political stance and it needed cheap resources that led it to Africa. Regarding how the relationship changed over time, what is the Chinese strategy to increase its investment in Africa?

Chinese Investment Model in Africa

Many factors have made China and Africa relationship to be distinct compared with the West relationship with Africa. China kept up an active menu of aid projects in more than forty-five African countries and its investment assistance to Africa in the form of building infrastructure boasts a long history. The Chinese model of investment in the continent brings in essence economic growth objectives and foreign policy together guiding trade and invest decision in Africa along with zero or near-zero percent interest financial and technical assistance. Chinese bid competitively for resource and construction projects using investment and infrastructure loans. Many Africans view Chinese investment in the continent as different from western investment. The neo-liberalism reform usually required by the World Bank under its "conditional provision" does not conduct Chinese investment model which aid by contrast comes without strings attached. China is having a profound impact on African economies by building a network of trade, aid and investment and some important infrastructures with close to fifty countries. Chinese investment in Africa is not only benefits to the Africans, but also to the Europeans and the Americans. China investment model by financing development projects in Africa as direct investment has very little interest for the western. In order to grow, African economies need some important infrastructures as well as Chinese investment, which helps these African countries to build roads, railways, hospitals and schools. In Africa, China is playing an important role by financing and providing much expertise development needed by the continent. The main trends of Chinese investment in Africa are:

- Chinese FDI structure which is based on the noble intention to establish long term relationships with African government is very different of Western countries model which is to involve private investors and does not undertake a long-term presence in the continent.
- Chinese investment encourages the development of infrastructure in Africa.
- Improved infrastructure facilitates the access for the African products to regional and international markets. African's exports to China are increasing; while the trade between the other major continent markets and Africa is stagnated or regressed.
- Actually African's imports from China are more diversified than its exports. There are three main types of products imported: machinery and transport equipment; manufactured goods and handicrafts products for improving local consumption and then contributed to the emergence of a consumer society in Africa.
- The creation of special economic zones exploited by the Chinese in African countries since 2006 should focus on value-added manufacturing by building the capacity of many African countries.

But Africa still has challenges in its relations with China because the Chinese's trade does not seem to be directed towards an African, but it is consistent with China's policy as well as to reduce the country's strain energy and the open markets opportunity for its light manufactured goods.

New trend of Chinese investment in Africa

Africa provides China is a good opportunity to secure a sustainable access to raw materials, which are necessary for its growth. Africa is now a "laboratory" for Chinese manufactured goods. The breakthrough of the Chinese presence in Africa following four phases: firstly the oil, then minerals and construction, and finally exports with private operators, which is not necessarily related to the state apparatus. The fourth and last aspect constitutes the focal point of the trend of the new Chinese investment model in Africa. Recent developments of the Chinese presence on the continent focused on investments in the private sector and SMEs. With the Chinese government encouragement policy "Going out", many private companies have turned to Africa in recent years. In terms of number of projects, the vast majorities are not in natural resources areas. These investments provide favor to the business model and distribution that promotes not only an easier access of foreign companies, but also to promote and support the local economy development. Actually, the majority of Chinese enterprises in Africa are private companies. There are five factors leading them to invest and operate in Africa: the first one concerns the access to local market; the second one is the intense competition in domestic markets; the third is the transfer abroad of excessive domestic production capability; the fourth is the entry into new foreign markets via exports from host and the fifth one is its ambition for taking advantage of African regional or international trade agreements.

The Chinese enterprises are feeble to the risk than their Western counterparts. They are not subject to the same social and environmental safeguards. Most Africans are welcoming Chinese investment and products. The history of traditional Western aid and investment in Africa is one of a nagging "I correct you because I want what's best for you" parental-like stronghold over the continent. Tired of "the politically motivated, finger-wagging approach of western governments," Africans have welcomed China's emphasis on pure business. Some of the key areas of Chinese investment, which align with improving the efficiency of resource extraction, are telecommunications, energy and physical infrastructure. These areas have traditionally been ignored by donors in Africa, who have instead favored social development programs such as education and health. Chinese companies are using some countries for its re-exports, particularly in the textile industries.

Reasons for investing in Africa

As we mentioned above, the primary evidence of the Chinese private investment in Africa resulted of the both domestic and global factors. Since 1990, China had started an economic restructuring with recognizing the need to upgrade its manufacturing capacity for increasing its international competitiveness. The success of this economic restructuring policy led many new entrants into the market. But the inability to find sufficient domestic consumption had created excess production capacity and led many firms to look to establish operations overseas in new less challenging markets. On the order hand because both China and Africa are developing countries, Chinese private companies feel comfortable in investing in Africa and the commercial opportunities in Africa are so profound. Also, the introduction by the US government in the late 1990s of preferential textile quotas for Africa encouraged some Chinese firms to establish operations in African countries to exploit this opportunity.

INVESTMENT RISK IN AFRICA

Risk is the potential that a chosen action or activity will lead to a loss. A common definition for investment risk is deviation from an expected outcome. The notion implies that a choice having an influence on the outcome exists. Potential losses themselves may also be called "risks". Almost any

human endeavor carries some risk, but some are much more risky than others. People invest money to earn a return on their money, but often they receive less than expected—indeed, sometimes the return can be negative, when the investor receives less than the initial investment. With some investments, the entire investment can be lost. Investment risk is the chance that you will receive less than expected return from an investment, and differs according the type of investment. There are many types of risk that are caused by different factors, or which affect different investments to varying extents. Some factors affect most investments and are called systematic risks. Other risks, such as sector risks affect only a particular sector of the economy. Some risks are specific to a business or asset, and are called nonsystematic risks, or diversifiable risks, because such risks can be lowered by diversified investments. In general, the more active the investment strategy, the more an investor will need to pay for exposure to that strategy.

When investors are looking for a good profit, they also think about the potential risk associated to their investment in the host country. It is well known that investors make decisions based on a function that includes the rate of return and the risk of any investment choice: the higher the risk, the higher the required rate of return. Each investment carries its own particular risk-return ratios. However, in Africa, a number of environmental factors, external to the individual investment, tend to raise the risk, and thus, for any given rate of return, reduce the rate of investment. The African continent is considered as a high risk place for investment and there is a few reasons supporting this statement according to our understanding:

Political instability

Most African region is politically unstable because of the high incidence of wars, frequent military interventions in politics, and religious and ethnic conflicts. Except Ethiopia, Liberia and South Africa, the other African countries came to political independence later and more rapidly than those of other developing regions. The historical politic evolution of sub-Saharan Africa countries proved that in 1966 the average independent state in Africa had held sovereignty for 10 years less; its counterparts in the rest of the developing world had been independent for the better part of a century. Colonial structures of political control were both arbitrary and effective because of the boundaries cutting across historical patterns of politics and trade raison. This has contributed greatly to the various regional conflicts on the continent between neighboring nations, wars often tribal, ethnic, etc.

There is some evidence that the probability of war is very high in the region. Recently, Rogoff and Reinhart (2003) had computed regional susceptibility to war indices for the period 1960-2001 when they found that wars are more likely to occur in Africa than in other regions. Their study also pointed out that there is a statistically significant negative correlation between FDI and conflicts in Africa.

Benno Ndulu, Lopamudra Chakraborti, Lebohang Lijane, Vijaya Ramachandran, and Jerome Wolgin (2007) also argued that in the last two decades or so, Africa has experienced a debilitating descent of states into persistent internal conflict that has become an all-too-familiar phenomenon across the region. In fact, conflicts are now arguable the single most important determinant of poverty in Africa. Conflicts affect the economy through reduced investment in both physical and human capital, as well as through the destruction of existing assets, including institutional capacity, and these are reflected in reduced economic growth.

The incidence and severity of conflicts in Africa have had a robust, negative effect on the growth rate of income. The evidence showed that the countries that experienced civil wars had an average income 50 percent lower than that of countries that experienced no civil war and sometimes, the indirect cost of the war could be very higher than the direct cost because conflicts have always caused serious reversals in

health and other human development aspects. As we see, political stability is one of the most important determinants of FDI in Africa.

Macroeconomic instability

Despite the fact that the macroeconomic stability has been achieved in most African countries now (low inflation, low public deficits), the investment environment is still uncertain because of investing in Africa is still riskier than doing so elsewhere. Instability in macroeconomic variables as evidenced by the high incidence of currency crashes, double digit inflation, and excessive budget deficits, has also limited the regions ability to attract foreign investment. More riskier in business, therefore more profitable. There is no doubt that firm investments are very low in Africa, pointing to other forms of uncertainties (political, regulatory, contractual, infrastructure). Investment and growth are higher in more stable countries in Africa and more recently evidence based on African data suggests that countries with high inflation tend to attract less FDI.

Lack of policy transparency

In most sub-Saharan African countries, it is not very easy to accurately identify the specific aspects of government policy because of the political regime changes in several countries, also regional policy changes and lack of transparency in macroeconomic policy. The consequence of the lack of transparency in economic policy in a country is the increases in transaction costs due to strict regulation while reducing the incentives for foreign investment. In Africa, the situation is one of concern and needs to be contained.

The Chinese lending is generally suitable for Africa and often help to financing infrastructure and other projects which are the main needs of African countries. Unfortunately, we see that the Chinese lending is more willing to countries that have large debts outstanding or only in the resources rich countries. This increases the risk to debt sustainability of poor countries and lack of transparency in the process of negotiating loans with China. The loan agreements between China and African countries are not open to the public as well. This leaves a lot of power in the hands of a few African leaders and taints the process of transparency “effort already sick”. The lack of transparency makes the conditions and the assessment of the debts very difficult. It also increases the risk that funds will not be used as intended and might be cases of illegitimate debt in the future. The lack of a favorable investment climate also contributed to the low FDI trend observed in the region as inhospitable regulatory environment. In the past, domestic investment policies were not conducive to the attraction of FDI. But since 1980, extensive efforts have been directed at generating economic recovery in West Africa. Much attention has been given to the need to promote investment because investment is essential in all West Africa country to promote the regional integration.

Information imperfections

If investment projects with high social returns exist in Africa, securing financing for them requires overcoming informational frictions. We trust that investment projects with high social returns exist in Africa and socially productive investment opportunities also exist on the continent, but it is not sufficient, the securing financing for them requires overcoming informational frictions. It is also necessary that potential external creditors be aware of such opportunities. Frictions are the most important variables explaining the geographic distribution of cross-border equity flows. The information-related variables explain a large share of the variance in the allocation of cross-border equity flows, with countries from which information flows freely receiving larger flows than those that are relatively more opaque. Informational frictions play also a prominent role in the literature on home bias in the allocation of

financial portfolios, as well as in the analysis of herding and contagion in international capital markets. Information costs have also been cited to help explain why investors holding highly diversified international portfolios tend to react aggressively to “news” in the form of market rumors.

At least, informational frictions may help to explain why international lending by banks tends to have a regional bias. The information costs may represent an independent obstacle to investment in Africa. Informational frictions may be particularly severe in the case of Africa because of distance, isolation and poverty. The effects of distance and isolation are self-evident.

High protectionism

The low integration of Africa into the global economy as well as the high degree of barriers to trade and foreign investment has also been identified as a constraint to boosting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) to the region. The relationship between openness and FDI flows to Africa must be very positive and suitable to the continent. There are also other factors that increase the low FDI flows to the region like the high dependence on commodities, the intensification of competition due to globalization which has made an already bad situation worse in Africa because globalization has led to an increase in competition for FDI among developing countries. The Weak law enforcement stemming from corruption and the lack of a credible mechanism for the protection of property rights are possible deterrents to FDI in the region. Foreign investors always prefer to make investments in countries with an effective legal and judicial system to guarantee the security of their investments. Investors can choose globally where to put their money and countries shouldn't make it too difficult for foreign investors if they want to get a benefice from that money. Sometimes, the African governments stifle investment by their regulatory policy whereas companies can only invest in big projects in countries where there is certainty and security for their profits and operations.

Table 1: African governments stifle investment

Some selected West African countries	How much it costs to build a company			
	Number of procedures	Time requested (days)	% of cost's income	% of the minimum capital for income
Benin	9	63	189.2	377.6
Burkina Faso	15	136	325.2	652.2
Cote d'Ivoire	10	77	143.1	235.2
Mauritania	11	73	109.7	896.7
Niger	11	27	446.6	844
Senegal	9	58	123.6	296.1
Some selected Asian countries				
Korean, Rep.	12	33	17.9	402.5
Malaysia	8	31	27.1	0
Singapour	7	8	1.2	0
Thailand	9	42	7.3	0

Source: <http://rru.worldbank.org/DoingBusiness/default.asp>. The table above shows the selected West Africa countries with some challenges that foreign companies may have to face for investment or start business in these selected countries.

Africa represents incredible potential. While capital flows have occurred quite successfully elsewhere, most notably in Asia, Africa has been left behind. Despite Africa's enormous potential, low cost labor, and vast natural resources, investors, quite frankly, remain reserved. They are afraid of putting their money in a place which is often perceived as a continent affected by war, famine, AIDS, and corruption.

Although specific financial mechanisms are necessary, they cannot address all the risks that confront businesses in Africa. Like everyone, Chinese investors also are facing all these challenges in Africa.

Since then Sino-African trade has continued to grow at an exponential rate, with China displacing the UK as Africa's third largest trading partner behind the US and France. China accounts for nearly 20 per cent of Africa's total exports and more than half of Africa's exports to Asia. Across the continent the Chinese are multiplying investments in infrastructure, telecommunications and agro-businesses.

The uncertainty of the business environment in Africa and the fact that all or part of the investment costs are "sunk", the Chinese investor may also like all traditional investors adopt an attitude of "wait and see attitude". To avoid this situation at a time when the African continent need to raise the level of development, African countries need to innovate in the field of legislation and regulation of investment policies in order to make the business environment conducive.

LEGAL PROTECTION OF INVESTMENT IN WEST AFRICA

The provision of a legal protection to improve Chinese investment in West Africa must be a new challenge for this economics West Africa region (ECOWAS). China has pledged continuing development assistance and government-backed FDI to African countries. It pledged to double its investment in Africa by 2009 and to give Africa US\$2 billion in preferential buyers' credits over the next three years. Chinese investment in Africa has focused on two main areas: infrastructure and human development. Chinese aid provides funding for highly visible and, to many minds, important infrastructure projects, which Western donors have long since stopped financing.

ECOWAS Investment policy Framework

Investment policy framework is a tool, providing a checklist of issues in policy domains for consideration by any national/regional government interested in creating an environment that is attractive to all investors and in enhancing the development benefits of investment to society.

Considered one of the pillars of the African Economic Community, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) is a regional integration organization which was founded in order to achieve "collective self-sufficiency" for its member states by creating a single large trading bloc through an economic and trading union. It also serves as a peacekeeping force in the region. The ECOWAS consists of two institutions to implement policies, the ECOWAS Secretariat and the ECOWAS Bank for Investment and Development, formerly known as the Fund for Cooperation until it was renamed in 2001. The region is a vast area of 5.1 million square kilometers with an estimated population of 300 million; its huge unharnessed water resources, arable land and large market make it an attractive place for investors. So it is a good place for Chinese investments and it has to provide a security panel for these investments. The Foreign Direct Investment's issue has emerged in Africa as one of the flashpoints of the negotiations on the Economic Partnership Agreements context with European Union.

There are a number of actions that ECOWAS countries might take at the international level to help attract greater flows of Foreign Direct Investment. These are solely focused on getting investment to come, and have little to do with assuring the quality of the investment, or helping ensure that it fosters sustainable development in countries. These options involve signing some sort of international treaty committing to certain types of treatment for investors.

Investment policy framework gives a list of questions under each theme to encourage policy makers to ask appropriate questions about their economy, their institutions and their policy settings and to help governments determine whether their policies are likely to encourage or discourage investment.

In the last two decades, the Member States of the community have become more determined to address the problem of low investment inflows into the region. The Economic Community of West African States has become more accommodating toward foreign direct investment as evidenced inter alia by changes in the regulatory regimes of most of the countries towards overseas investors and their investments.

As mentioned above, foreign investment is governed primarily by national law of the host state and this economic integration community is expected to provide a single economic space in which business and labor operate in order to stimulate great productive efficiency, higher levels of domestic and foreign investment, increased employment and growth of intra-regional trade and extra-regional exports. Recently, most countries in West Africa, in appreciation of the impact of the regional investment climate on national fortunes, have begun to adopt policies that improve their investment climate. The quality of investment policies directly influences the decisions of domestic and foreign investors. Transparency, property protection and non-discrimination are investment policy principles that underpin efforts to create a sound investment environment for all.

Investment policy principles under ECOWAS

The West Africa regional Community has adopted some important elements of a more coherent and comprehensive investment policy framework including the followings:

- ❖ Reviews of its policies and rules affecting investment and private sector development with a view to improving the investment climate in their individual countries;
- ❖ Greater adherence to relevant rules and instruments on Corporate Governance;
- ❖ Reviews of costs and benefits of investment incentives and exchange views and experience on their use and economic impact;
- ❖ Intensified actions to remove obstacles to business development, in particular regulations and administrative practices that obstruct or delay investment;
- ❖ Greater emphasis on partnership in building human capacities and skills necessary for acquiring and spreading the benefits of investment in the region;
- ❖ Efforts and initiatives to develop a framework for the competitive functioning of their markets which would include effective competition laws and the reform of economic regulations;
- ❖ Initiatives to strengthen the capacities of investment promotion agencies to disseminate information and to provide services to investors and encourage co-operation among these agencies at regional and international levels;
- ❖ Programs and projects to support small and medium sized enterprises and encourage their co-operation in regional projects; and
- ❖ Consultations between business groups, private sector associations, social partners and civil society organizations to explore the development of investment opportunities and to provide input to the decision making process on investment policies, laws and regulations.

The investment policy must set of laws and regulation to focus on issues as property and contractual rights, including intellectual property rights; the equal treatment of both foreign and national firms; removing the administrative obstacles to investment and Cost-benefit assessment of investment incentives.

Investment security in West Africa

For many observers, the capacity of African countries to attract foreign direct investment is principally determined by their natural resources and the size of their local markets. The apparent lack of interest of foreign multinationals in African countries that have attempted to implement policy reforms has contributed to support this argument. The continent has been much less favored than Asia and Latin America over the past decade in attracting FDI. It has been argued that the reforms in many African countries have been incomplete and thus have not fully convinced foreign investors to develop activities that are not dependent on natural resources and aimed at regional and global markets. It takes time for a country to modify its image, especially when the State has a long tradition of policy intervention, and when the reforms have been mostly symbolic with the adoption of new texts. As market size and access to natural resources are crucial determinants in the foreign multinational decision processes, so is the investment security important.

The successful European integration model has considerable attraction and impact as an example for many other regional agreements like ECOWAS. EU is assisting ECOWAS in its harmonization of its various national investment policies into a regional one. Some established arrangements in ECOWAS region have already provided legal and regulatory framework for investments within the Community to operate, in order to access economies of scale in preparation to compete at multilateral level. To secure the Chinese investments in West Africa, it is now necessary to harmonize national laws of ECOWAS member States with a regional focus which will permit to abolish the uncertain and irrelevant provisions to promote transparency, and improve competitiveness of the regional economy.

With the putting in place of the regional investment code, locational choices of ECOWAS firms are now wider within an integrated regional market and investments of firms originating from non-ECOWAS member countries are now equally attracted to serve and exploit the consequent economies of scale and scope in the community. The codification of the regional investment policies is equally expected to mobilize investment as a driving force for economic growth and development of ECOWAS Community.

ECOWAS Investment Code seeks to provide the framework for designation of the region as a single investment location and is expected to enhance the regional investment climate.

CONCLUSION

It was discovered that West African countries have become more accommodating towards FDI over the last two decades, as evidenced inter alia by changes in the countries regulatory regimes. This changing stance towards FDI has also given rise to proliferation of investment promotion agencies, special economic zones and other targeted mechanisms by which ECOWAS countries aspire to attract foreign investors. It seems important and crucial firstly for the West African region to protect its domestic and foreign investments as well as Chinese.

Good laws are a very essential promotional tool and provide confidence to Investors and Government. Good laws clarify the role and responsibilities of private investors and Government, bind them to their respective rights and obligations, reduce the scope for discretionary decision-making, ensure transparency in administrative processes and certainty for investors, provide a basis for dispute resolution. Investment promotion is absolutely necessary but incentives should not distort regional competition for investors. ECOWAS shall create regional structures for implementing Community Investment Rules in promotion and facilitation of investments. The harmonization of the investment policies in the region into a single code is to simplify the investment regulatory regime.

The prospects for attracting and sustaining enhanced investment can be significantly improved when commitment to ECOWAS regional integration and the harmonization of investment policies based on a

high level commitment to the key principles and best practices for successful investment policies prevail. So such simplification involves not only a business process but also cultural change in how ECOWAS nation states view those whom they regulate, and how those who are being regulated perceive the value and effectiveness of the regulatory processes.

In conclusion, our main question here will be to know if Chinese presence in Africa provides an advantage for the development of the regional organization or if the relationship between China and Africa is suitable for the regional organization or for some selected countries?

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INTEREST RATE RISK: SEVERAL STATISTICAL ANALYSES

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ABSTRACT

We introduce a macroeconomic system which we use for interest rate determination. Then we generate the interest rate risk premium. Considering this risk premium function, we investigate, test, and determine the macro-variables which affect the interest rate risk premia by using a GARCH (p,q) and an AR?H-M model. The empirical results examine ten different interest rate risk premia and fifteen factors. Factors with significant effects on risk premia are, the real risk-free rate of interest, the inflation rate, the unemployment rate, the growth of GDP and industrial production, the growth of national debt and current account deficit, the money supply growth, the yield differentials on S-T and L-T securities and other variables.

CASE STUDY ON INVENTORY MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

We will prepare a case study of a real scenario high end restaurant (chain) which sells fish and liquor. Actual financial statements of the company will be the basis for evaluation. The case will center around effective inventory management for this high cost inventory-fish and wine. We will present the pros and cons of inventory buildup from different perspectives including the taxation and accounting inventory choices which will address including an analysis of the tax advantages of LIFO and LIFO buildup (LIFO Reserve), the cost of carrying inventory, the investment return on this investment as well as stock out costs. Models such as the Economic Order Quantity (EOQ) and Just In Time (JIT) will be considered in this evaluation. This case study which will be interdisciplinary in nature can be used in a hospitality course capstone at the graduate or undergraduate level as well as a quantitative analysis, operations management and a taxation class.

COMPARING FINANCIAL SYSTEMS IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD

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ABSTRACT

This study compares two basic types of financial systems in a global framework. It especially focused on the question if countries with an important stance of the capital markets set different incentives for international investors than a system where banks are the leading part in financing projects. It could be assumed that in countries where the capital markets are huge and liquid the investor protection is better too and therefore create an incentive for foreign long- and short-term investors to place a corresponding investment. Moreover the type of the financial system should have an impact on the international trade of goods, particularly if you treat the financial system and in connection with that the capital access as a component of the production function of an economy. Because of an expected dissimilar access to capital and different rates of innovation, the integration in the global trade could be different between economies with a significance of stock and venture capital markets and those with major banking systems. The same may be true with respect to the volatility of the business cycle, due to different degrees of specialization and a more or less probability of banking crises. Furthermore the study analyses the globalization of banks and shed light into that research area. Former studies show that profitable banks are doing direct investments abroad. Structural aspects like the size of the capital market and the market concentration could determine the profitability of banks and hence their engagement in the world. Last but not least this research work also has a look on the deposit holding and the life insurance penetration, which should differ in general owing to differences in asset holding and the social security net and the price of life insurance products in particular. Altogether the study detects several varieties in the above mentioned variables and shows that the type of financial system is important for them.

JEL: E32; F40; G15; G21; G22

KEYWORDS: Business Cycle, Financial System, Globalization, Life Insurance.

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IS THE IRS A SORE LOSER?

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ABSTRACT

Like all administrative agencies, the Internal Revenue Service is given a fair amount of authority to enforce the laws enacted by Congress. Taxpayers often question the amount of authority granted to the IRS, and whether such authority is abused. In some situations this questioning of authority leads to litigation, resulting in both wins and losses for the IRS. From time to time, the IRS will respond to losses by creating a new rule or amending an existing one. Recent examples in the judicial system highlight the issue of administrative authority, and beg the question: Is the IRS a sore loser?

INTRODUCTION

Congress delegates certain authority to the Treasury Department through the Internal Revenue Code (Code). For example, Congress states that “the administration and enforcement of [the Code] shall be performed by or under the supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury.” In addition, “the Secretary shall prescribe all needful rules and regulations for the enforcement” of the Code. It is pursuant to these grants of power from Congress that the Treasury Department and the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) issue regulations. Taxpayers have questioned the IRS’s powers in a series of recent cases, and the IRS has responded by exercising even more authority.

RECENT CASES

FICA and Medical Residents

In recent years the IRS has been battling with hospitals over whether stipends paid to medical residents are subject to Federal Insurance Contributions Act (FICA) taxes. A “student” that works for a “school, college, or university” is exempt from FICA under an exception in the Code, and many hospitals have claimed that their residents are students and are therefore eligible for the exemption. The argument rests on the fact that the purpose of a residency program is to train new doctors and provide them with the experience necessary to obtain their licenses to practice medicine.

Regulations previously in effect expanded on the statutory language. The prior regulation stated that the determination of whether an employee was a student would be based on “the relationship of [the] employee with the organization for which services are performed.” Further, an individual who performed services “in the employ of a school, college, or university, as an incident to and for the purpose of pursuing a course of study at such school, college, or university” would be considered a student. In addition, the prior regulation held that the term “school, college, or university” should be “taken in its commonly or generally accepted sense.”

Mayo Foundation is a not-for-profit organization having medical education and scientific research as its charitable purposes. Under the umbrella of Mayo Foundation is the Mayo Graduate School of Medicine which operates roughly 150 residency programs. Approximately 1,000 residents participate in the programs at any given time, with a typical residency lasting from three to seven years. Residents are required to attend lectures, read, and take examinations, however the bulk of their learning is clinical in nature and occurs from doing rounds with attending physicians. Residents spend anywhere from fifty to

eighty hours each week doing rounds. They are not hired or fired, but rather must apply and be admitted into the program. Further, there is no expectation of continued employment after the residency program is completed. Residents do not pay tuition but instead receive a stipend, which for the years at issue ranged from \$40,000 to \$60,000. The taxation of these stipends was the issue in *Mayo Foundation v. U.S.*

Both Mayo Foundation and the IRS agreed that the stipends were subject to income tax. However, they disagreed as to whether the stipends were subject to FICA. Mayo Foundation believed that the residents were within the student exception and the stipends were not subject to FICA. Mayo Foundation argued that it was a “school, college, or university” and that its residents were “students,” as those terms are used in the Code and interpreted by Treasury Regulations then in effect. Since the regulations provided that the term “school, college, or university” should be taken in its generally accepted sense, Mayo Foundation provided dictionary definitions to show that it easily fell within the terms. It also provided credible testimony from residents that the only reason they enrolled in the residency program was to learn.

The government argued, on the other hand, that a “primary purpose” test should be applied in order to determine whether an organization is a school, college or university. Since Mayo Foundation’s primary purpose was patient care, argued the government, it should not be treated as a school, college or university. With regard to whether residents could be considered students, the government argued in the negative because the services performed by the residents were not “incident to learning” as the regulation required. The government argued that the opposite was true; because the residents worked between fifty and eighty hours per week, the learning was incident to the services, and therefore the statutory exception was not satisfied.

The Federal District Court for the District of Minnesota held for the taxpayer. Mayo Foundation was considered by the court to be a school, college or university and the residents were considered to be students. Therefore, the stipends paid to them were not subject to FICA. In its opinion, the court specifically rejected the arguments put forth by the government. First, the district court pointed out that a “primary purpose” test shouldn’t be read into the regulation because it did not in fact contain such requirement. The court further note that *even if* a “primary purpose” test applied, the taxpayer would satisfy the test because the taxpayer is a non-profit institution having medical education and scientific research as its charitable purposes. With regard to the government’s argument as to why residents could not be considered student, the district court stated that “[t]ime alone cannot be the sole measure of the relationship between services performed and a course of study.”

Within a few months of its loss in *Mayo Foundation*, the IRS issued amended regulations. Pursuant to the amended regulation, an organization is a school, college, or university as that term is used in the Code “if its primary function is the presentation of formal instruction, it normally maintains a regular faculty and curriculum, and it normally has a regularly enrolled body of students in attendance at the place where its educational activities are regularly carried on.”

The amended regulation also changes the definition of student. Although the regulation still states that an employee shall be treated as a student if the services provided are incident to and for the purpose of pursuing a course of study, it now says that the educational aspect of the relationship between the employer and employee must be “predominant.” The regulation expands on this predominance factor, stating that “[t]he evaluation of the service aspect of the relationship is not affected by the fact that the services performed by the employee may have an educational, instructional, or training aspect. Further, the

regulation states that a full-time employee – defined as someone who regularly works forty hours or more per week – cannot be considered a student because the services of a full-time employee are not incident to education.

It is interesting to note that the IRS's new interpretations of the terms "school, college, and university" and "student" were those specifically rejected by the Federal district court in *Mayo Foundation*.

Statute of Limitations

The IRS is currently litigating an issue relating to the statute of limitations for audits. Generally, the IRS has three years from the filing of a Federal income tax return to assess an additional tax. However, the Code provides that the statute of limitations is extended to six years when a taxpayer "omits from gross income an amount properly includible therein which is in excess of 25 percent of the amount of gross income stated in the return." If a taxpayer improperly overstates the tax basis of an asset, the result is an understatement of income from the sale of the asset. The issue in these cases is whether the understatement of income that results from an overstatement of basis is considered an omission of income, thereby triggering the six-year statute of limitations.

The U.S. Supreme Court addressed this issue in 1958 in *Colony v. Commissioner*. *Colony* involved a corporation in the real estate business which overstated the basis of land it sold. The result was an understatement of gross income that was more than twenty-five percent of the gross income shown on the return. The IRS argued that the extended statute of limitations applied, and the Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit agreed. However, the U.S. Supreme Court reversed on appeal. The Court examined the legislative history of the statutory language and determined that Congress intended the extended statute of limitations to apply only in situations where a taxpayer "actually omitted" an item of income and not when there are "errors in computation arising from other causes." The Court further explained:

Congress manifested no broader purpose than to give the Commissioner an additional [number of] years to investigate tax returns in cases where, because of a taxpayer's omission to report some taxable item, the Commissioner is at a special disadvantage in detecting errors. In such instances the return on its face provides no clue to the existence of the omitted item. On the other hand, when, as here, the understatement of a tax arises from an error in reporting an item disclosed on the face of the return the Commissioner is at no such disadvantage. And this would seem to be so whether the error be one affecting "gross income" or one, such as overstated deductions, affecting other parts of the return.

Accordingly, the Court held that the extended statute of limitations does not apply to understatements of gross income due to overstatements of basis.

In 2007, the U.S. Tax Court addressed whether *Colony* applies outside the context of a trade or business in *Bakersfield v. Commissioner*. *Bakersfield* involved a limited partnership which overstated its basis in oil and gas property. The IRS claimed that *Colony* only applied in the context of a trade or business, and since *Bakersfield* involved an investment the six-year statute of limitations should apply because the taxpayer's basis error resulted in a substantial omission of gross income. However, the Tax Court held against the IRS on the basis that it was bound by *Colony* and therefore the three-year statute of limitations applied. The IRS appealed to the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit, which affirmed the Tax Court. In so holding, the Ninth Circuit noted that the Supreme Court in *Colony* "did not even hint that its

interpretation of [the Code] was limited to cases in which the taxpayer was engaged in a ‘trade or business.’ There is no ground for suggesting the Court intended the same language...to apply differently to taxpayers in a trade or business than to other taxpayers.”

The IRS didn’t give up, however. In 2009, the IRS asked the Tax Court to reconsider its *Bakersfield* holding in *Intermountain v. Commissioner*. The taxpayer in *Intermountain*, a partnership, filed its 1999 Federal income tax return on September 15, 2000 which contained a loss which was overstated due to an overstated basis. On September 14, 2006, just one day less than six years later, the IRS issued a notice of Final Partnership Administrative Adjustment (FPAA). The taxpayer claimed that the FPAA was untimely because the three-year statute of limitations had long expired. Further, the taxpayer cited *Bakersfield* for the proposition that an overstatement of basis does not trigger the six-year statute of limitations. The IRS, however, claimed that the Tax Court had incorrectly decided *Bakersfield*.

The Tax Court disagreed with the IRS, stating that *Bakersfield* “is directly on point.” Expressly declining the IRS’s “invitation to overrule it,” the Tax Court reaffirmed its holding in *Bakersfield* and held once again that the six-year statute of limitations is not triggered by an overstatement of basis.

The IRS issued temporary regulations in September 2009, less than a month after the Tax Court ruled against it in *Intermountain*. The temporary regulations state that “an understated amount of gross income resulting from an overstatement of unrecovered cost or other basis constitutes an omission from gross income” for purposes of the extended statute of limitations.

QUESTIONS PRESENTED

Is the IRS permitted to create or change a rule following a loss in the judicial system? If so, can the new rule reflect a position that contradicts a court’s previous interpretation of a statute?

DISCUSSION

The U.S. Supreme Court recently answered the first question with a resounding “yes.” The Court was not troubled at all in *Mayo Foundation v. U.S.* by the fact that the Treasury Department changed the regulations relating to the student exception to FICA as a response to adverse litigation. To the contrary, the Court stated that it “found it immaterial to [its] analysis that a ‘regulation was prompted by litigation.’” The Court amplified the point by noting that in the past it has “expressly invited the Treasury Department to ‘amend its regulations’ if troubled by the consequences of [its] resolution of the case.”

The Supreme Court has stated that an administrative agency’s interpretation will be upheld if Congress did not speak directly to the question at issue and if the regulation is a permissible interpretation of the statute. It has been noted, however, that more than one permissible interpretation can exist. Accordingly, the Treasury Department can amend an otherwise reasonable regulation in response to adverse litigation as long as the amended regulation is also a permissible, albeit different, interpretation.

Ultimately, *Mayo Foundation* was resolved by the Supreme Court in favor of the government. The Court concluded that the amended regulation is a reasonable interpretation of the statutory language. The result is that medical residents are not students, and the stipends they receive are subject to FICA.

The current status of *Intermountain* also favors the government. Reversing the Tax Court opinion, the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia recently upheld the current regulation which states that an overstatement of basis triggers the six-year statute of limitations. Given the current split among the circuits, however, this issue is far from over.

UNRESOLVED ISSUE

What if the court that had previously interpreted the statutory language was the Supreme Court of the United States, and it had held that the statutory language is clear and unambiguous such that an administrative interpretation is unnecessary? Can the IRS still issue a regulation in response to the adverse litigation? Such is the situation in *Intermountain*. The current regulation appears to conflict with the Supreme Court's holding in *Colony*. The IRS argues that no conflict exists because *Colony* involved an overstatement of basis within the context of a trade or business, whereas *Intermountain* occurs outside of such context.

This statute of limitations issue has arisen in other factually-similar cases in several circuits with varying results. In January 2011 the Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals held for the government in one such case, *Beard v. Commissioner*. Following its loss, the taxpayer in *Beard* filed a Petition for a Writ of Certiorari with the U.S. Supreme Court. On July 29, 2011, the government filed an acquiescence, which means that although it agrees with the Seventh Circuit's holding, the government concurs that the Supreme Court should hear the case. Given this acquiescence, it is expected by some that the Supreme Court will grant Certiorari in *Beard*, thereby resolving the question for all circuits.

CONCLUSION

The Supreme Court has recently reiterated that the IRS is permitted to create or amend a regulation following a loss in court. As long as the regulation is a reasonable interpretation of the statute, it is not inappropriate for the new regulation to conflict with a court's previous holding. Whether that also applies to holdings of the High Court remains to be seen. The Supreme Court will respond to the Petition filed in *Beard* when it resumes in October.

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THE IMPACT OF IFRS FOR SMES ON THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION, EVIDENCE FROM FIJI

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At the turn of the millennium, the many corporate collapses, business failures and fraudulent financial reporting scandals tarnished the reputation of accountants, giving rise to a credibility crisis for the accounting profession. The profession struggled to rebuild its reputation and desperately searched for a solution. At the same time, the growth of financial markets, resulting in increased investment opportunities in capital markets and the international orientation of businesses created the need for a common reporting framework, which would provide reliable and comparable accounting information across borders. The constantly changing information needs of users of financial reports and the increasing use of fair value added to the many challenges facing the accounting profession. All this resulted in a major restructure in the financial reporting framework leading to the development of the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) and the International Financial Reporting Standard for Small and Medium-sized Entities (IFRS for SMEs) by the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB). Almost 66 jurisdictions around the globe have already adopted or plan to adopt IFRS for SMEs as their principal financial reporting standard for small and medium sized reporting entities, with or without revisions (IFRS Foundation, 2010). Fiji is not far behind from other developed countries when it comes to adoption of international reporting standards as this is evidenced by the early adoption of IFRS by large reporting entities beginning January, 2007 and IFRS for SMEs by small and medium-sized entities from January, 2011.

Prior literature has mostly examined the impact of IFRS for SMEs on small and medium sized entities (see, for example, Eierle & Haller, 2009; Alp & Ustundag, 2009; Paseková, et al., 2010), but so far, there has been no published work examining the impact of the standard on the accounting profession. The decision by the Fiji Institute of Accountants to adopt IFRS for SMEs so early since the enactment of the standards will obviously bring about a number of challenges to the accounting profession in Fiji and affect the future of the profession in a number of ways. Although accountants in Fiji have demonstrated that they can deal with the full suite of IFRS, the adoption of IFRS for SMEs, a much simpler form of reporting, will pose a set of challenges that the profession did not face when dealing with IFRS. This study therefore aims to examine the challenges faced by the accounting profession in Fiji in adopting IFRS for SMEs in terms of benefits, limitations, preparedness, capacity, educational resources, training support and overall transition to the new reporting framework. Understanding the impact of adopting globalised accounting standards in emerging economies would help us identify the benefits and limitations of such adoption as well as identify the potential factors that are necessary for a successful transition, thereby allowing us to better prepare ourselves for the adoption. We conducted in-depth interviews in order to get perceptions of practitioners on the issue. These practitioners were randomly selected from the big 4 and the non-big 4 accounting firms in Fiji.

The results indicate that the adoption of international reporting standards by emerging economies are important decisions, which require considerable thought on the part of standard setters and regulatory bodies. While benefits from adoption of such reporting frameworks are imminent in developed countries, it is still too soon to comment on whether such benefits would be realized in emerging economies like Fiji. The institutional and regulatory frameworks in developed economies is significantly different from

that in emerging economies and for that reason, reporting standards developed in these economies may still be complex for reporting entities in emerging economies. Thus, adequate revisions are necessary to ensure that the requirements of the standard are applicable and suitable to our reporting environment. The transition to IFRS for SMEs from Fiji Accounting Standards is likely to pose a number of challenges for practitioners in Fiji, including meeting training and educational requirements, SME information needs and justifying to SMEs the need for a globalised reporting framework among many others. The results also indicate that the big 4 have a competitive advantage over the non-big 4 in adopting international standards as their international counterparts provide substantial resources, expertise and training support to them. The big 4 firms are hence in a much better position to adopt international standards like IFRS for SMEs. However, small and medium sized reporting entities are more concerned about the costs associated with the transition rather than the perceived benefits from such an adoption. While the results merely summarize the perceptions of accountants on the issue concerned, it may not be advisable to draw conclusions on the matter so early in the transition.

In conclusion, a single set of reporting standards for all small and medium sized reporting entities should result in a more transparent principles-based reporting that enhances comparability and consistency. While SMEs in many jurisdictions have been subject to reporting under national accounting standards, such standards deter comparability of financial statements and are usually out-dated. A number of jurisdictions around the globe have therefore adopted IFRS for SMEs and in doing so; have faced quite a number of challenges. These challenges have particularly affected the accounting profession in such jurisdictions in a number of ways. Further, the reporting requirements under IFRS for SMEs are such that most of it may still not be applicable to SMEs in emerging economies like Fiji. This suggests that wherever guidance is not provided under the new reporting framework or is provided but not applicable to the current reporting environment, practitioners may refer to the old set of standards for guidance. In other words, careful consideration must be given in deciding whether the full set of IFRS for SMEs should be adopted by emerging economies, or should they use IFRS for SMEs as a reference point in developing their own standards or should such economies adopt IFRS for SMEs with necessary modifications to suit their reporting needs. For that reason, it is advisable for regulatory bodies in emerging economies to give considerable thought to the adoption of IFRS for SMEs and engage in wider consultations before deciding on the matter.

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PREFERENCES FOR PERFORMANCE BASED EMPLOYEE REWARDS: EVIDENCE FROM SMALL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENTS

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ABSTRACT

Rewarding and motivating employees is extremely important to organizations because employees are a critical resource for success. The primary objective of this paper was to determine if there are gender based employee preferences for performance rewards in small business environments. The results of this research indicate that social rewards were more valuable than economic rewards that would be valuable to small business owners and managers to develop programs to reward and motivate their employee.

INTRODUCTION

Employees are a critical resource for small business owners and managers. They need to be motivated and rewarded so they recognize how vital they are to the organization. This in turn will inspire employees to contribute to the company's ability to grow and expand; increasing retention and decreasing turnover. However, small businesses typically have limited resources for providing incentives and performance rewards for their employees. The opportunity for an employee's advancement may also be constrained in a small business because there is typically no organizational chart or corporate ladder to climb. The combination of a small business owner's limited resources and their dependence on highly motivated employees makes it extremely important that the employer provide incentives and rewards that the employee values. Understanding gender influences in this respect can assist in developing reward and incentive programs that are of value to the employee. There have been several studies conducted over the past 50 years that explored the differences between male and female perceptions regarding work satisfaction, work-related rewards and values (Kovach, 1995; Marini, Fan, Finley, and Beutel, 1996; Mottaz, 1986; Ross and Mirowsky, 1996; Schul, Remington, and Ben, 1990). This topic was first considered due to the increase in the number of females in the workforce during the post-World War II era. During the feminist movement of the 1960's and 1970's, the driving force behind these studies was the lower-paying positions afforded to most females. As women continued to attain higher level positions and commensurate higher pay, the focus shifted to potential differences in leadership styles of female managers in contrast to their male counterparts, as well as motivational factors for female employees as compared to those for males. The primary objective of this study was to determine if there are gender based employee preferences for performance rewards in small business environments.

All of the studies referenced focused on larger companies or specific sectors of industry. There is limited research that looks at how gender influences employee preferences for performance rewards and motivational incentives in the small business environment. In addition, the information available is not current with the most recent studies occurring during the late 1990's. Since small business as a vital part of the United States (US) economy, additional current data to assist small business owners and managers related to reward programs is needed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In evaluating intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, organizations need to understand that “to change employees’ behavior and motivate them to improve their performance, you must influence their perception of how you reward them for their behavior and performance” (Bragg, 2000). The relationship between what employees (of either gender) value and consider motivational versus what supervisors believe should motivate the employee is also important to consider. Kovach (1995) compared results of three surveys distributed to industrial employees concerning employee and supervisory rankings of ten motivational items. This study was originally conducted in 1946, repeated in 1981, and conducted again in 1995. Differences were noted in the rankings for employees between 1946 and 1995. In 1946, US citizens had recently experienced a depression and war. In 1995, after 35 years of relative prosperity, the list of what workers wanted from their work had changed significantly. As part of the same survey, supervisors were asked to rank the list of job rewards as they believed the employees had ranked it. There was virtually no change in the responses from the 1946, 1981, and 1995 surveys. The supervisor rankings were:

1. Good wages
2. Job security
3. Promotion and growth in the organization
4. Good working conditions
5. Interesting work
6. Personal loyalty to employees
7. Tactful discipline
8. Full appreciation of work done
9. Sympathetic help with personal problems
10. Feeling of being in on things.

Based on the responses from the supervisors and employees, it was clear that there was a significant disconnect between what employees valued and what supervisors believed employees valued. It appeared that rewards and incentives supervisors offered did not correspond with what workers desired. Kovach (1995) also looked at several subgroup comparisons, including male versus female responses. He found that there was no significant statistical difference in the ranking of rewards found between men and women. In terms of the actual ranking of values, females ranked “full appreciation of work” in first place while men ranked it in second place. “Sympathetic help with personal problems” was ranked seventh by females and tenth by males. The author suggested that female employees may place greater importance on interpersonal relationships and communication than male employees. The conclusion drawn by Kovach (1995) was “Employee motivation is a key factor in determining long-term employer success levels. Yet, ironically enough, it is an area overlooked by many organizations . . . in most organizations, the time to address this issue was yesterday” (p. 107).

Schul, Remington, and Ben (1990) examined potential gender differences in an industrial sales force and the relationship between a set of supervisory behaviors (i.e. reward and punishment behaviors) and three key performance outcomes: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work motivation. Work motivation was analyzed in terms of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The influential factors for extrinsic motivation included money, promotions, and praise from a supervisor. Intrinsic motivation came from the satisfaction a person gets from the task itself, or in completing the task successfully. Schul et al. (1990) found that for both males and females, supervisory contingent reward (CR) behavior positively affected job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Supervisory CR behavior consisted

of giving praise, recognition, and acknowledgement to employees based on effective performance of the task. CR behavior positively influenced females' extrinsic work motivation, but had no effect on either the male salespeople's extrinsic work motivation or the intrinsic work motivation of either gender. According to Schul et al. (1990) non-contingent reward behavior had no effect on male or female salespeople's job-related outcomes. This type of behavior (granting of approval and recognition without making it contingent on performance) was not viewed as overly negative by either male or female respondents. The authors also found that contingent punishment positively influenced male salespeople's extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation, while it had little effect on females. However, supervisory non-contingent punishment negatively influenced male salespeople's job satisfaction, work motivation and organizational commitment, with only limited effects on female salespeople's work-related attitudes. The authors believed that when a manager exhibits arbitrary behavior (non-contingent reward and/or punishment), the employee's identification with the job, relationships with people on the job, and the organization were weakened. Ultimately, the study conducted by Schul et al. (1990) identified more similarities than differences among male and female industrial salespeople in terms of how they respond to supervisory reward and punishment behavior.

Mottaz (1986) conducted a study that focused on the following related issues: (a) the extent that men and women differ in overall work satisfaction, (b) possible gender differences in perceived work rewards, (c) possible gender differences in work values, and (d) possible gender differences in the determinants of work satisfaction. Based on his study, Mottaz (1986) concluded that there was no significant difference between men and women in their rating of overall work satisfaction. With regard to work related values, men assigned greater importance to promotional opportunities while women regarded task involvement along with friendly and supportive supervision as more important. He also found that there was a difference in the determinants of work satisfaction for men and women. For men, task autonomy was a significant predictor of overall work satisfaction; for women friendly and supportive relationships with supervisors were significantly more powerful determinants. However, he qualified the results of his study with the following statement, "It is clear that the pattern of gender differences in work is considerably influenced by the type and sample studied and the area of work considered" (p.374).

Ross and Mirowsky (1996) conducted a study to examine interpersonal work rewards as potential alternatives to economic rewards. The purpose of the study was to determine if the theory of compensating differentials, which was used to explain why women choose jobs that pay less, was valid. The theory suggested that subjective utility, measured as psychological well-being and personal control of earnings, was greater for men, whereas interpersonal rewards were of greater importance for women. The researchers tried to understand if non-economic rewards, rather than earnings, contributed significantly to the work satisfaction of women, knowing working women earn approximately 70% of the salary of working men. According to the theory of compensating differentials, the employer must offset the negative effect of working conditions with sufficient pay to make the overall utility of the job positive for men. However, because women were willing to accept lower paying jobs, it was believed that these jobs must offer benefits other than high pay. It was concluded that men must value money more than women if the theory is true. However, the results of the authors' study did not support the theory of compensating differentials. Their study found that men and women valued pay equally highly, and that men and women agreed on the characteristics of a good job. Both men and women ranked the feeling of accomplishment, high income, chance for advancement, job security, and short working hours identically (most to least preferred). They also concluded that women value money slightly more than men, not less; men value fewer work hours slightly more than women, not less. Ross and Mirowsky (1996) concluded that although women did not value economic rewards less or noneconomic rewards more than did men,

women get economic rewards less and noneconomic rewards more than men do. Compared to men, women received more appreciation for their work and more recognition from others while getting lower earnings.

As can be determined from the existing literature, not only have the studies of gender influences on reward and motivational preferences provided mixed results, but there is a notable lack of recent research in this area, limiting the applicability of early research in today's workplace. Further, the subjects used in the research were primarily from large companies or institutions. It is not clear if the results and conclusions presented in these studies will hold true in the small business environment. All of the studies referenced focused on larger companies or specific sectors of industry. There is limited research that examines how gender influences employee preferences for performance rewards and motivational incentives in the small business environment. In addition, the majority of information available is not current. While small business is a vital part of the US economy, more current data to assist small business owners and managers with reward programs for their employees is needed. It is clear that additional research is needed in the area of gender preferences for rewards in the small business environment. Since the resources available to small businesses are more limited than for larger organizations, a better understanding of the effect of gender on reward and incentive preferences may assist with the development of a targeted and effective reward and incentive program for employees.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The primary objective of this paper was to determine if there are gender based employee preferences for performance rewards in small business environments. Information from this research are useful to owners, leaders, and supervisors of small businesses. Generally speaking, both male and female employees were concerned with economic issues such as job security, good wages, and good working conditions. This may be a result of the current economic conditions. However, when discussing specific situational reward preferences, social rewards (thank you from the boss) consistently ranked higher than monetary rewards. This indicated that employees valued rewards that do not place an additional financial burden on the company. It is important that supervisors develop a greater awareness of what employees want; they may be surprised to realize that actions can be taken to reward and motivate employees that have little or no economic costs. It is imperative that supervisors and organizations understand that what motivates one individual may not motivate another.

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THE EVOLUTION OF THE MARKETING CONCEPTS: THEORETICALLY DIFFERENT ROADS LEADING TO PRACTICALLY SAME DESTINATION!

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ABSTRACT

This work is part of a larger study on market orientation and business performance. The evolution of the marketing concept from the pre-industrial revolution, down to our day is critically reviewed. The marketing concept as a business philosophy is traced from its origins as a business belief where efficient production was the emphasis to the current belief which emphasizes customer needs as a means of long-run business success. The concept has theoretically evolved over the last century. The underlying assumption of all the concepts, irrespective of the era in which they were dominant, is to provide stakeholders' interests – including customers, producers, shareholders and society. The paper acknowledges that the different concepts of marketing are seen as different roads leading to the same destination, because each concept served important purpose of creating profitable customer. Thus, the development of a new concept would not necessarily mean abolition of old concepts. New concepts may build on old ones to make a business more successful in serving the interests of its stakeholders, especially, the creating and serving of profitable customers. Similarly, some old concepts may work well for some businesses and industries better than even new concepts depending on the type of product and industry.

KEYWORDS: Marketing concept; Organizational objective, profitable customers; organizational performance

INTRODUCTION

The marketing concept is the known concept for explaining organisation's philosophy of doing business. Since the 1900s, different business philosophies have been adopted by organisations, all aiming at creating and retaining profitable customers. The particular marketing concept over specific business era defines the customer's involvement in product development decision. While some concepts gave minimal or no attention to customers involvement in product design decisions, others recognize the customer as an important factor in product design decision (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008; Ride and Ferrell, 2008; Kotler and Keller, 2009; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009; Kotler and Armstrong, 2009). At least six concepts have emerged since 1850 to date. Businesses have since adopted production philosophy (Ferrell, 2008); product philosophy (Fullerton, 1988); selling philosophy (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008), marketing philosophy (Day and Wensley, 1983; McGee and Shapiro, 1988); societal marketing philosophy (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008); and the holistic marketing philosophy (Kotler and Keller, 2009).

While each of the six business philosophies has received some form of criticisms, knowledge of these concepts reminds the marketer of the shifts of business thinking over the years. History it is said, 'is a good starting point' to understand today and plan the future. Marketers are in a good position to understand and better practice marketing now and even anticipate new and better ways of practicing marketing in future as they learn about the different stages that marketing has evolved. Moving from the early concepts to the latest, businesses are thought a great lesson of where marketing was, where it has gotten to and where it is heading towards. One may appreciate the argument that organisation's

movement from earlier philosophy to latter ones constitutes improvement in business practices to meet the market needs (Keith, 1960; Kotler, 1994). Yet, it is evident that the different concepts of marketing are different roads leading to the same destination (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008; Ride and Ferrell, 2008). The evolution helps appreciate that changes in customer characteristics and preferences with time, is inevitable; and that companies must be aware and operate their businesses in harmony with the changing needs of the market.

Thus, in the view of this paper, new concepts may build on old ones to make a business philosophy more relevant. Again, some old concepts may work well for some businesses and industries today, better than even new concepts, depending on market conditions, production goals, as well as product design and customer types. The issue of hierarchy and superiority might not be too relevant a consideration in an objective analysis of the concepts. Such a view has the potential to miss the point of the importance of individual business thinking that might not work well for the achievement of business objectives (creating and retaining profitable customers) in different marketing eras. The paper addresses the different concepts that have been developed over time, highlighting their primary assumptions. The paper also puts the arguments related to the different concepts into perspective. This should help appreciate that in theory the concepts may seem different, but in practice they might all aim at achieving the same business objective of creating and retaining profitable customers.

EVOLUTION OF THE MARKETING CONCEPT

The academic discipline of marketing has two main schools of thought, where marketing is considered as either a philosophy or a function. Greater emphasis has been put on marketing as a philosophy or concept rather than a function. The marketing concept represents business thinking, and started developing since 1850s. Businesses have since adopted production philosophy (Ferrell, 2008); product philosophy (Fullerton, 1988); selling philosophy (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008), marketing philosophy (Day and Wensley, 1983; McGee and Shapiro, 1988); societal marketing philosophy (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008); and the holistic marketing philosophy (Kotler and Keller, 2009).

The Production Philosophy

Pride and Ferrell (2008) trace the production philosophy back to 1850s, through to the 1900s. This was the period of industrial revolution in the United States. At this period the country witnessed growth in electricity generation, rail transportation, division of labour, assembly lines, and mass production. These made it possible to produce goods more efficiently with new technology and new ways of using labour. Though production of goods increase with these emerging ways of production, there was heavy demand for manufactured goods (Ride and Ferrell, 2008).

The production philosophy is premised on the assumption that consumers will favour product that are available and highly affordable (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008). This required that businesses' concentration were directed toward product improvement and efficient distribution of goods. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2009:5), the production philosophy assumes that "consumers are mostly interested in product availability at low prices; its implicit marketing objectives are cheap, efficient production and intensive distribution". Miller and Layton (2001) observed that in the production era, the manufacturers typically concentrated on increasing output with the assumption that customers would look for, and buy, reasonably priced, and well made products. The production philosophy worked for businesses in the 1950s onward to achieve their business objectives. Today, such a business

orientation may only make sense when the objective of the company is to expand the market. However, production orientation hardly works for many of today's businesses. Companies with such a business philosophy today risk focusing their effort too narrowly on their own operation losing sight of the core idea of producing to meet customer expectation and needs to create customer value (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008). However, in the development of completely innovative products, where customer might not have any idea, and thus could not make any input into the design and development of such products, the production philosophy shall still be appropriate even today.

Product Philosophy

The product philosophy was the dominant marketing philosophy at the dawn of 1900s and continued to the 1930s. According to Fullerton (1988:103), "For more than a generation the concept of the production era dominated the understanding of marketing's past held by students and scholars". The production orientation assumes that consumers will prefer product based on its quality, performance and innovative features (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008). This means that the company knows its product better than anyone or any organization. Thus, the company knows what will work in designing and producing the product and what will not work. Since the company has the great knowledge and skill in making the product, it also assumes it knows what is best for the consumer. The product concept compelled companies to ensure improving product quality, and introduce new features to enhance product performance; as much as possible. These were done without consulting the customer to find his or her view on these product features. Yet products were produced with the customer in mind. Since the era culminated development of innovative products which did not have substitutes, customer needs might not be too much a demand since customer might not know their needs in such innovative market situation.

In much of the product era, organizations were able to sell all of the products that they made. The success of this philosophy was due mostly to the time and level of technology in which it was dominant. The product concept survived much of the time after the Industrial Revolution (Miller and Layton, 2001). Most goods were in such short supply that companies could sell all that they made. Consequently, organizations did not need to consult with consumers about designing and producing their products. Much as some companies may still have a product oriented business thinking that direct their operations, the concept is not popular in today's business environment. A product philosophy often leads to the company focusing on the product rather than on the consumer needs that must be satisfied (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009), which leads to 'marketing myopia' (Levitt, 1960).

Selling Philosophy

The selling philosophy was the concept of businesses that proceeded the product era, and has the shortest period of dominance compared to the two preceding philosophies. It began to be dominant around 1930 and stayed in widespread use until about 1950. The emphasis of selling philosophy was to create a department to solely be responsible for the sale of the company's product; while the rest of the company could be left to concentrate on producing the goods (Perreault Jr. and McCarthy, 1999). According to Kotler and Armstrong (2008), the orientation of the selling concept was that the company can sell any product it produces with the use of marketing techniques, such as advertising and personal selling. The concept assumes that "consumers are unlikely to buy the product unless they are aggressively persuaded to do so – mostly that 'hard sell' approach" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009).

The emergence of the selling philosophy was necessary because of increase in production of variety of goods after the Industrial Revolution, as companies became more efficient in production. The increase in

amount of product and types of products led to competition which eventually led to the end of product shortages and the emergence of surpluses. Regarding this Comyns and Jones (1927:147) noted, "Obvious pressure to buy may lose the customer for the future even though it takes the immediate sales". It was because of the surpluses that organizations turned to the use of advertising and personal selling to reduce their inventories and sell their goods. The selling philosophy also enabled part of the organization to keep focusing on the product, via the product philosophy. In addition, the selling era was characterized by an orientation that a sales or marketing department could sell whatever the company produced. Miller and Layton (2001) noted that apart from the aggressive selling approach, the era was also noted for other unhealthy features, such as the idea that 'selling is the goal of a company and not customer satisfaction'. Recently, Kotler and Armstrong (2010:35) note: "The selling concept takes an 'inside-out' perspective. It starts with the factory, focuses on the company's existing products, and calls for heavy selling and promotion to obtaining profitable sales. It focuses primarily on customer conquest – getting short-term sales with little concern about who buys or why."

The selling philosophy in theory focuses on sales rather than customer satisfaction. In this connection, the challenge with this orientation is that when customers are persuaded to buy product that they would ordinarily not buy, they would buy just once. Also, they are more likely to communicate negatively of the product through word-of-mouth to other consumers, which could affect their purchases. In practice, however, if producers ensure that quality products are sold to customers, they are more likely to repeat purchase and also communicate positive word-of-mouth to others. Therefore, despite the fact that the selling concept has almost seized to be a preferred business orientation today, its acceptance or rejection should not be determined by the concept itself, but whether the belief was to sell quality products and services to customers in order to retain them. Even in the era of a market oriented philosophy, organizations that deal with 'unsought' goods (such as life insurance); political parties who sell their candidates aggressively to apathetic voters; and also by companies that have excess stock (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009) still use selling orientation successfully. Though the marketing philosophy has become the prescription for facing competition, "old habits die hard" (Miller and Layton, 2001:11) and even to date some companies still hold to the fact that they must use the 'hard sell' approach for business success and prosperity (Miller and Layton, 2001).

Marketing Philosophy

The marketing philosophy started to dominate business orientation during the 1950s (Pride and Ferrell, 2008), and continues until the twenty first century. This concept assumes that the starting point for any marketing process is the customer needs and wants, and no longer the aggressive selling. The key assumption underlying the marketing philosophy is that "a market should make what it can sell, instead of trying to sell what it has made" (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009:15). The marketing concept focuses on the needs and wants of the buyer rather than the needs of the seller and the product. As noted by Mckitterick (1957), the principal task of the marketing function in a management concept is not so much about being skillful in making the customer do what suits the interests of the business as to be skillful in conceiving and then making the business do what suits the interests of the customer. These views are consistent with an earlier proposition by, Shaw (1912:736), who noted: "goods are being made to satisfy rather than to sell". He also remarked, "today the more progressive business man is searching out the unconscious needs of the consumer, and is then producing the goods to gratify them" (p.708). Recently, Kotler and Armstrong (2010:35) noted: "The marketing concept takes an 'outside-in' perspective. The marketing concept starts with a well-defined market, focuses on customer needs, and

integrates all the marketing activities that affect the customers. In turn, it yields profits by creating lasting relationship with the right customers based on customer value satisfaction”.

The marketing concept recognizes that the company's knowledge and skill in designing products may not always be meeting the needs of customers. Thus business orientation shifted from product to market (Keith, 1960). Keith (1960:35), observed: “our attention has shifted from problems of production to problems of marketing, from the product we can make to the product the customers wants us to make, from company itself to the market place”. He also recognizes that even a good sales department cannot sell every product that does not meet consumers' needs. When customers have many choices, they will choose the one that best meets their needs. This is expressed in Levitt (1960) who made a clear distinction between the selling and the marketing orientation. According to him selling focuses on the needs of the seller; marketing on the needs of the buyer. Selling is preoccupied with the seller's need to convert his product into cash; marketing with the idea of satisfying the needs of the customer by means of the product and the whole cluster of things associated with creating, delivering and finally consuming it. This philosophy is what is expected of firms today to be market oriented and reap business success.

The Societal Marketing Philosophy

The societal marketing concept emerged in the 1970s and has since overlapped with the marketing philosophy. The concept assumes that there is a conflict between consumer short-term wants and society's long-run interest, and that organizations should focus on a practice that ensures long run consumer and societal welfare (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008, 2009). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) consider the societal marketing orientation as the best business philosophy to be adopted by organisations. They suggested: “this new concept represents an attempt to harmonize the goals of business to the occasionally conflicting goals of society”. They concluded: “the organisation's task is to determine the needs, wants and interest of target markets and to deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer's and society's well-being” (p. 35).

The appropriateness of societal marketing philosophy is deduced from the fact that it supports a socially responsible behavior of organization. It thus, challenges the earlier assertion by Friedman (1962) that “the social responsibility of business is to make profit”. Organisation will still need to adopt this business philosophy to be able to deal with the cultural and regulatory aspect of the business environment. This means adoption of the societal marketing concept generate some factors of market orientation that foster business performance. It could be concluded from the literature that societal market orientation should not be seen as a separate concept. It should be a complementary business practice at the adoption of any marketing philosophy. Thus, whether a business is adopting production, product, selling or marketing philosophies, the interest of the society must still be given its rightful place because society is a key stakeholder in every business.

The Holistic Marketing Philosophy

he holistic marketing concept is a 21st century business thinking (Kotler and Keller, 2009). The concept is based on the “development, design, and implementation of marketing programmes, processes and activities that recognizes their breadth and interdependencies” (Kotler and Keller, 2009:59). The holistic marketing concept suggests that the 21st century business firm needs a new set of belief and practice toward business operation that is more complete and cohesive than the traditional application of the

marketing concept. According to Kotler and Keller (2009:60) holistic marketing recognizes that “everything matter” in marketing. Holistic marketing is thus based on the assumption that the approach to marketing should be the adoption of all activities of marketing. Thus, holistic marketing includes internal marketing, performance marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing.

Kotler and Keller’s (2009) holistic marketing concept seems to be an embodiment of marketing practice rather than a concept or philosophy of business. A marketing concept is “a way of thinking; a management philosophy guiding an organisation's overall activities [affecting] all the efforts of the organisation, not just its marketing activities” (Dibb et al., 1992: 13). The holistic marketing orientation seems to dwell on just the marketing functions and not the overall activities of the organisation. The concept looks at internal marketing, performance marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing, which are all typical activities of marketing. The concept fails to acknowledge other activities of business such as production, management style, organisation culture and other non-marketing factors of business that make a firm business orientated. Thus, the holistic marketing concept (Kotler and Keller’s, 2009) should better be viewed as a summary of what effective and efficient marketing involves rather than a business philosophy, and for that matter a marketing concept, because a marketing concept means more than just marketing functions (Dibb et al., 1992: 13), as suggested by Kotler and Keller’s, 2009.

This means the holistic marketing concept is relatively not a superior philosophy that has the potential of generating the required antecedents of market orientation that fosters superior business performance, which includes non-marketing activities (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Zabal, 2003; Lok and Crawford, 2004; O’Regan et al., 2005). In this connection, the holistic marketing concept fails to acknowledge this strategic as opposed to functional approach to marketing (Drucker, 1973; McDonald, 1989). Marketing should be seen as an attitude of mind rather than a series of functional activities (McDonald, 1989), as seems to suggest by the holistic marketing concept (Kotler and Keller’s, 2009).

The recent work by Kotler and Armstrong (2010) supports the fact that the holistic marketing concept is just an extended version of the marketing concept. They noted: “The marketing concept takes an ‘outside-in’ perspective. The marketing concept starts with a well-defined market, focuses on customer needs, and integrates all the marketing activities that affect the customers. In turn, it yields profits by creating lasting relationship with the right customers based on customer value satisfaction” (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010:35). ‘Integration of all marketing activities’, this should include internal marketing, performance marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing. Thus, the holistic marketing concept can be described as a clever combination of all the concepts that have been developed prior to it (Perreault Jr. and McCarthy, 1999; Pride and Ferrell, 2008; Kotler and Armstrong, 2008; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009).

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Despite the appreciations and criticisms, knowledge of the development of the marketing reminds us of the shifts of business thinking over the years. The evolution of the concept shows how businesses have reacted to changing customer characteristics and demand; as well as the needs of the market. Although any given business can operate under any of the philosophies, the underlying precept of the development of marketing concept is that these philosophies form a hierarchy, with later philosophies being considered superior to those of earlier ones as the formation of the market change. Thus, organisation’s movement

from earlier philosophy to latter ones constitutes improvement in business practices to meet the market needs of a particular time period with specific type of customers (Keith, 1960; Kotler, 1994).

The different philosophies of marketing cannot be described in isolation. They should be discussed with the business objective and marketing conditions and practices at the time in mind. Though businesses have several objectives, the most important one is to create and maintain satisfied customers, and ultimately make profit. Except for social reasons, no company can continue in business if it is not making profit. Thus, whatever business philosophy or marketing concept an organization adapts, it should be one that leads the company to attainment of profit through creation of satisfied customers. Thus, the importance of a customer to a firm is defined in terms of the 'customer's ability to make the firm realize its profit goals in the long run'. In the same way the customer would give the company his 'custom' if he is provided with product and services that meet his needs and expectations (with or without his involvement in the product design and development).

Therefore, while it may be a good concept to involve the customer in product design and development, it might not always be a requirement for effective business practice and provision of customer value. The customer can be a "victim" and a "victor". The customer is a 'victim', if because of excess demand over supply; he is not involved in product design and development decision. In this case the customer has no choice but to accept what product the producer has made available. This is particularly true in eras or markets where there are hardly any substitutes to the products or services; or in new product development situation where the customer might not have any idea to determine what he wants. The customer is a 'victor' in competitive markets where supply exceeds demand. In such a market situation, consumers might be the ultimate determinants of what satisfy their needs. The producer only has to produce according to the dictates of the consumer. Thus, the customer's involvement in product decisions – including design and development is very paramount. Yet other factors such as cost, profitability and capacity might influence the final product decision. No company can produce the product that the consumer wants if it lacks the organizational capabilities.

In view of this, the six philosophies or concepts of marketing can be seen as different concepts aiming at producing efficient and profitable products and services to customers at one time or another. During these different times and market situations, customers might be either involved in the product decision or not, depending on whether demand for the product exceeds supply or vice versa. In other word the concepts are "different roads leading to the same destination". The table 1 below helps us to appreciate how the different concepts of marketing that have developed over the years, aim at the creating and retaining profitable customers:

Table 1 outlines the development of the marketing concept since its acceptance in the mid-1800s to the twenty first century (Bartels, 1962; Dalgic, 1998; Pride and Ferrell, 2008). A cursory look at the assumptions helps us to appreciate one important facts about the concepts. They all aim at producing products that the customer will buy for the company to make profit. For example, the business thinking in the production era was for firms to produce reasonably-priced and well-made products that customers will buy. This implies that even though customers might not be involved in the product design decisions, they were taken into consideration before a company develops products. Thus, to assume that production orientation means total avoidance of customers in product design and development that meet customer needs and wants is not wholly true. The production concept still holds the view that the customer should be the central consideration for product design decision so that the company can sell products that the customer wants, and to consequently make profit.

Table1: Marketing Concepts and Their Underlying Assumptions

Authors	Marketing Concept	Assumptions
Layton (2001) Kotler and Armstrong, (2008) Schiffman and Kanuk (2009:5)	Production Concept (1850s – 1900s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Customers would look for, and buy, reasonably priced, and well made products ➤ Consumers will favour product that are available and highly affordable ➤ “Consumers are mostly interested in product availability at low prices; its implicit marketing objectives are cheap, efficient production and intensive distribution”
Miller and Layton, (2001) Kotler and Armstrong, (2008)	Product Concept (1900s – 1930s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The company knows its product better than anyone or any organization. ➤ Since the company has the great knowledge and skill in making the product, it also assumes it knows what is best for the consumer. ➤ Consumers will prefer product based on its quality, performance and innovative features
Comyns and Jones (1927:147) Miller and Layton (2001) Schiffman and Kanuk, (2009) Kotler and Armstrong (2010:35)	Selling Concept (1930s- 1950s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ “Obvious pressure to buy may lose the customer for the future even though it takes the immediate sales”. ➤ Selling is the goal of a company and not customer satisfaction’. ➤ Consumers are unlikely to buy the product unless they are aggressively persuaded to do so – mostly that ‘hard sell’ approach” ➤ “The selling concept takes an ‘inside-out’ perspective. It starts with the factory, focuses on the company’s existing products, and calls for heavy selling and promotion to obtaining profitable sales. It focuses primarily on customer conquest – getting short-term sales with little concern about who buys or why.”
Shaw (1912:736) Keith (1960:35) Schiffman and Kanuk (2009:15) Kotler and Armstrong (2009:35)	Marketing Concept (1950s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ “Goods are being made to satisfy rather than to sell” ➤ Attention is shifted from problem of production to problem of marketing, from the product that the firm can make to the product the customers wants the firm to make, from company itself to the market place”. ➤ “A market should make what it can sell, instead of trying to sell what it has made”
	Societal Concept (1970s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ There is a conflict between consumer short-term wants and society’s long-run interest, and that organizations should focus on a practice that ensures long run consumer and societal welfare ➤ “The organisation’s task is to determine the needs, wants and interest of target markets and to deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer’s and society’s well-being”
Kotler and Keller (2009:60)	Holistic Concept (2000s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The concept is based on the “development, design, and implementation of marketing programmes, processes and activities that recognizes their breadth and interdependencies” ➤ The 21st century business firm needs a new set of beliefs and practices toward business operation that is more complete and cohesive than the traditional application of the marketing concept. ➤ Holistic marketing includes internal marketing, performance marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing.

Similarly, the product philosophy carries a business thinking that the company has the great knowledge and skills in making its product; and that it knows what is best for the consumer (Miller and Layton, 2001). Thus, it was assumed that consumers will prefer product based on its quality, performance and innovative features (Kotler and Armstrong, 2008). This means that consumer needs and preferences were the key determinants of product design and development. Once the company considers quality, the customer stands to benefit from what the company produces. Though what is considered quality by the firm may be different from the consumer’s perception of quality, it is believed that quality product is more likely to meet customer needs and to foster sales and finally profit. After all, in the era of the product orientation, the customer might not always know his needs since there were few products available to choose from. Therefore, it was the duty of the firm to produce quality, innovative products and create the need for these. Involving the consumer in the product decision at this time may not yield

the desire result, especially when the demand exceeded supply so much that the customer was ready to buy any quality, innovative products and services.

The selling concept is not different in terms of ultimate orientation from the other two above. This concept developed after the industrial revolution when mass production was the order of the day. Since there was huge supply, there was equally high demand for products and services. Most products had substitute at this time, hence there was the need for sales effort before a company could sell its products. Thus, the business philosophy was that consumers would buy the product only if they are aggressively persuaded to do so (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009). In this concept, the firm's operation starts with the factory, focuses on the company's existing products, and calls for heavy selling and promotion to obtaining profitable sales (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). Customer persuasion involves customer intimacy and relationship management, which is also a factor in the marketing concept. Therefore, it could be deduced that the selling concept involved obtaining profitable sales by persuading the customer to buy the company's product instead of competitors'. This approach to business is particularly justified in situations where customers might not know their needs with regards to innovations or product availability. It must be noted that if customers are not positively persuaded, even if they are involved in product development, they might still switch to 'perceived' strong brands if other companies do persuade them to believe so. In this connection, it can be said that sometimes it makes business sense to develop a product without the consumers' knowledge and create the awareness later for the consumer to see the need to have the product. By this, consumers' interest shall be considered and profitable sales can be made.

The marketing concept has had wider acceptance since its emergence as a business philosophy. It is basically the belief that company's attention be shifted from problem of production to problem of marketing, from the product that the firm can make to the product the customers wants the firm to make, from company itself to the market place" (Keith (1960:35). It is good for a business to make what it can sell, instead of trying to sell what it has made" (Schiffman and Kanuk (2009:15). The emphasis is to make the customer decides what his needs are and not the company doing so on the consumer's behalf. The concept assumes that "goods are being made to satisfy rather than to sell" Shaw (1912:736). While this may theoretically be acceptable, no company can produce product that can satisfy the customer, if it cannot sell. Product must sell at all cost, if the company will remain in business and can be profitable. Thus laying too much emphasis on consumer involvement in product decisions might be an over exaggeration of a business thinking. This means companies must produce product which satisfies the customer; but they must also make sure that these products could be sold for profit.

The societal marketing philosophy is seen as not just business thinking, but a responsible behavior for every firm that wants to succeed in business and the social environment of the market. The concept believes that the organisation's task is to determine the needs, wants and interest of target markets and to deliver the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer's and society's well-being" (Kotler and Armstrong, 2009). It is understandable why this concept did not emerge until around the 1970s. The importance of this concept became eminent when the effect of business activities on the environment and society became too pronounce. It was then necessary for business to think on how to satisfy the market with the aim of profit, and still minimize its effects on society. Happy society is more likely to buy and to recommend a firm's product, while an angry society will refuse purchase of a company's product even if it can satisfy the need of the customer. This means the societal marketing philosophy, like other concepts gears toward creating and maintaining satisfied and profitable customers.

The holistic marketing concept aims at integrating all marketing activities, including internal marketing, performance marketing, integrated marketing and relationship marketing to produce value for customer. The concept is not too different from the marketing concept. According to Shaw (1912) the more progressive business must search out the unconscious needs of the consumer, and then producing the goods to gratify them. In order to produce goods that gratify the consumer, conscious effort is needed on the part of the company, including involving the consumer in product design and development. This requires that organisations have the right minded staff, particularly the sales force who will directly deal with the customer. Such a business behavior is known as internal marketing (Berry, 1981, Ahmed and Rafiq, 2003). The idea of integrated marketing also involve the marketing mix, including promotion, distribution, pricing and product quality. These are important ingredients in production, product and selling concepts, where quality product at relatively lower price, product availability and product promotion respectively are considered as a business's belief. Relationship marketing is something that is captured in all the concepts. Whether a company sells efficient and quality product through persuasion or not; and whether the company involves the consumer in product decision or not, one thing is sure: "as long as the producer makes product for the consumer, the supplier-customer relationship should always be implicit". Thus, the holistic marketing concept also aims at creating and maintaining profitable customers for the organization.

CONCLUSIONS

Reviews of the related literature support the fact that different concepts have emerged as business philosophies for the last one century or so. These concepts are all important and acceptable business beliefs at one time or another; and they individually supported the firm's ultimate objective of creating and retaining profitable customers. While some of the marketing concepts may be considered superior to others, the acceptability of one concept or the other is dependent on customer characteristics, including customer product's knowledge; changing times, competitive intensity and market turbulence. Some concepts which seem outdated may even be necessary to adopt today in some situations. Therefore, we can say the evolution of the marketing concept may theoretically define different business philosophies; yet, in practice they all aim at creating and retaining profitable customers. Thus, the marketing concept can be described simply as "different roads" (varying ways of looking at how best business should be operated) leading to the same destination (provision of customer needs and company profitability).

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BIOGRAPHY

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MANAGERIAL INCENTIVES FOR EARNINGS MANAGEMENT AMONG LISTED FIRMS IN EMERGING ECONOMIES, EVIDENCE FROM FIJI

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INTRODUCTION

The high profile corporate collapses of the past decade have greatly questioned the integrity of financial reporting. Earnings management has been of growing concern to many academics, practitioners and regulators. Despite an enormous amount of regulation and standards governing the financial reporting process, earnings management practices are accelerating at an alarming rate in organizations today. Fiji, like many other developed countries, has had instances of financial reporting failures in the past. One does not need to look further than the multi-million dollar saga involving the state owned Bank, the National Bank of Fiji, which was the largest known financial scandal in the history of Fiji and the Pacific Islands. This suggests that even emerging economies like Fiji have been introduced to earnings management practices long ago but was not that apparent. A large number of studies (DeAngelo, 1986; Cahan, 1992; Dechow, 2000; Beneish, 2001) have been conducted on managerial incentives for earnings management in USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. While these were developed countries, very few studies have been conducted in emerging economies. Fiji's weak regulatory environment makes it subject to high level of earnings manipulation therefore it becomes important to study earnings management practices in Fiji. This study therefore will use a questionnaire-based approach to examine management policies that give rise to earnings management among listed firms in Fiji, highlighting the most prevalent incentive for earnings management.

These findings will provide FIA and other standard setters in emerging economies evidence on the most common driver for earnings management, which should assist them in formulating relevant financial reporting and corporate governance policies to ensure that management makes adequate disclosures. It should also assist users especially investors and financiers while reviewing annual reports to be cautious if the firm concerned displays characteristics that are aligned with the most prevalent incentive for earnings management.

METHODOLOGY

In order to obtain information about firm policies and practices that is not publicly available, we emailed questionnaires to CEO's of the listed companies. In some cases, where the CEO was unavailable we requested an interview with the company's CFO. The respondents completed the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. Researchers were present in case the respondents needed clarification about any issues.

In the questionnaire, we had closed-ended questions, whereby the researcher provided a suitable list of responses. Closed questions provide little or no scope for the researcher to misinterpret the meanings of answers. For example, if an answer is restricted to "Yes / No / Don't Know" it is easy for the researcher to understand the exact intentions of the respondent. However, it also does not give an in-depth picture of

the question being researched, as it is possible that respondents had some other answers to the research questions. That is another reason researchers were present before the respondents so they could discuss and note any other important points being raised.

Our intended group of recipients for the questionnaire was the management team from each listed company. This is because we felt that a member of the management team would be the best person to answer the questionnaire as he/she has access to inside company information. Managers are in-charge of the day-to-day operations of the company and therefore possess more knowledge about their management policies and practices.

There are 16 companies listed on the South Pacific Stock Exchange. This was our initial sample for the study that was later reduced to 14. This was because one of the listed firms was a financial institution and consistent with prior studies financial institutions were excluded due to their unique working capital structures. Another listed company was unavailable for interview and failed to return our questionnaire despite several calls and emails.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Agency theory provides a solid framework for understanding earnings management as it provides the agents with economic incentives to manipulate financial results. These incentives with research results are provided below.

Managerial Compensation Incentives

One of the most common incentives for managing earnings is the manager's remuneration package. In most businesses, managers are entitled to cash bonuses or share options upon achieving predetermined reported earnings. It is quite common for management employment contracts to include accounting based constraints that determine compensation opportunities, such as annual salary increases, bonus, performance evaluation, and reaching targets set in compensation contracts (Singh, 2008).

The results show that management compensation is the most common incentive for earnings management in listed companies in Fiji. In the entire sample of companies, members of the management team are entitled to other incentives apart from normal salary, for instance, bonuses, annual salary increments, share options etc. In 86% of listed firms, the Board of Directors and other senior executives set the management compensation plans, while in the other 14% of firms, it is the Human Resources Department. From the firms studied, 93% of them revealed that the performance evaluation criteria for rewards are stated in the management contracts. Profit and sales figures was the most common benchmark for rewards in the management compensation policies amongst all listed companies. Therefore, if management remuneration is based on entity profit or sales for the period, managers may manipulate firm's earnings so they can reach their sales/profit targets and get additional rewards.

Borrowing Cost Effects

The firm's closeness to violating its debt covenant provides its management with another incentive to engage in earnings management.

The results show that the debt financiers have imposed some form of debt covenant on 57% of the listed firm's loan agreements. Results disseminate that 43% of the listed firms did not have a loan agreement with anyone. None of the respondents admitted to violating any debt covenants.

Equity Offerings

Share issues provide a direct incentive for management to engage in earnings management as higher earnings would result in increased share prices implying an increase in market valuation and a reduction in cost of capital. We found that equity offerings are probably the least common incentive for earnings management in Fiji, probably, due to the highly inactive capital market in Fiji.

Management Buyout

In case of a management buyout, earnings are managed downwards. Usually, in such a situation, management faces a conflict as they have a fiduciary duty to the shareholders to get the best price for the firm and as buyers, managers would not want to pay a high price. Hence, managers have an incentive to reduce reported earnings prior to the buyout.

There has not been any instance of management buyout in any of the listed firms in Fiji. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that this can never be an incentive in the near future. Usually, management buyout is considered by government as one of the methods for privatizing state owned entities. An example of an attempt of management buyout in Fiji is the case of Rewa Rice Limited in 1999 when the government was planning to sell off its shares. However, the management's offer was declined.

Meeting Targets/Expectations

Financial analysts or management usually forecast firms' expected earnings prior to year-end. In Fiji, we do not have analysts who forecast or make predictions about firm performance. Therefore, our results solely focus on internal forecasts. In all the listed firms, Board of Directors, CEO's and managers set targets for various divisions in the company. Various factors such as past trends, non-financial measures, competition levels, demand for products/services and current economic conditions are all considered when setting company targets. "Economic conditions such as devaluation and political upheavals in Fiji in the past have led to non achievement of forecasts," commented one of the respondents. With the presence of unpredictable events such as these, managers may not be able to meet their targeted expectations and this may lead to managing earnings upwards.

One respondent also stated that if management does not meet their forecasted earnings, and they do not have a valid reason for this, their employment is at risk in the company. This means that to save their employment, the managers might have to engage in earnings management.

Reduce (Increase) Regulatory Cost (Benefits)

Regulatory concerns can also induce management to engage in earnings management. Usually firms that are vulnerable to anti-trust investigations or other adverse political consequences or firms seeking government subsidy have enormous incentives to manage earnings to appear less profitable.

A number of firms receive some form of assistance from the government such as grants or subsidies. One respondent stated that they receive concessionary rates of duty on capital investments. Another stated that they receive tax exemptions on local production of wood chips. One respondent stated that they had tax exemptions when they were listed in 2000, however now, this has expired and they no longer receive any assistance from the government. Our findings reveal that 79% of listed firms do not receive any form of assistance. This indicates that only a few listed firms would be inclined to report conservative earnings so that they can qualify for subsidies and other grants from government.

Therefore, after examining provisions in management policies and practices, we find that management compensation incentive, meeting firm targets/expectations, reduction in regulatory costs, increase in regulatory benefits and borrowing cost incentives are common drivers of earnings management in Fiji. Out of these, we find that management compensation is the most prevalent incentive for earnings management in Fiji. The least common ones are: equity offerings attributable to a highly inactive stock market; and management buyout.

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WEB-BASED CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY REPORTING IN EMERGING ECONOMIES: EVIDENCE FROM FIJI

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INTRODUCTION

The prominent corporate collapses, the ongoing scandals over product responsibility and environmental issues, followed by the globalization of financial markets increased the demand and need for businesses to be socially responsible and to disclose their CSR practices to their stakeholders. Stakeholders expect firms to demonstrate social and ethical behavior by actively contributing to society through environment conservation, health and safety awareness, product quality, educational support and the like. Consequently, CSR is defined as “the obligation of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the society at large and improving welfare of society at large independent of direct gains of the company” (Kok, et al., 2001, p. 287). This definition and many more are open to a number of interpretations depending on the culture and the context in which they are applied. Hence, there exists no universal definition of CSR. Over the years, public awareness on the role of businesses in the society has substantially increased (Hackston & Milne, 1996). While CSR activities undertaken by the organization is necessary and probably the most important measure towards being socially responsible, there is an urgent need for organizations to communicate these measures to relevant stakeholder groups in an effective and efficient manner. Literature suggests that consumers and other stakeholders prefer firms that embrace social responsibility and disseminate their CSR information along with financial performance. Consequently, firms have adopted environmental, social and sustainability reporting mechanisms to demonstrate their accountability and integrity.

While in the early years of CSR reporting, firms opted for traditional paper-based reporting, the recent developments in information technology and the wide usage of internet as a communication medium have shifted CSR reporting to the web. Consequently, the pressures from stakeholders to disclose continuous CSR information, together with the technological advancements and the wide reach of the internet have shifted CSR reporting on the web. While CSR studies have been conducted in some developing countries, very few studies have examined CSR reporting practices in Pacific Island countries, especially, Fiji. Businesses operating in these Pacific Island Economies must contribute to the welfare and betterment of the society in return for the use of its resources, environment and people. As of today, there are no laws governing CSR reporting practices in Fiji; hence, firms voluntarily disclose CSR information. This study therefore focuses primarily on Fiji’s emerging economy. Seemingly, prior studies mainly examined the annual reports and none so far analyzed the corporate websites to find the nature and extent of CSR reporting present on the corporate websites of firms in Fiji. Hence, the current study is the first to examine web-based CSR reporting in Fiji. Since the wide usage of internet provides businesses with an alternative means for communicating with its stakeholders, it is important to examine how firms make use of this opportunity to exert their corporate social behavior and apparently how the firms use this mode to gain, maintain or repair their legitimacy status. The present study, therefore, aims to examine the nature and extent of CSR reporting on corporate websites of listed firms in Fiji, through in-depth content analysis of each company website. The modest amount of literature available on web-based CSR

reporting in emerging economies motivates the present study. This study will add to the limited literature on web-based CSR reporting practices in Fiji.

The current study embraces a web-based content analysis, whereby we carry out a detailed observation of all listed firms corporate website. We believe that this form of analysis will fulfill our research question in examining the nature and extent of CSR reporting on corporate websites. To quantify CSR disclosures, researchers use various measures, for example, number of characters, words, sentences, pages or proportion of pages. We use number of sentences to measure the extent of CSR reporting on company website. In analyzing the nature of web-based CSR reporting, the present study used four themes: Environment, Community, Marketplace and Workplace. An initial sample of 16 firms was selected for this study. From our initial sample, we removed four firms, leaving this study with a final sample of 12. Data obtained for the study related to a 64-day period, beginning from 17th July, 2011 to 28th September, 2011.

The results of this study show that 18.75% of the listed firms in Fiji do not maintain corporate websites to facilitate their business, to demonstrate their social responsibility, or to exhibit accountability to stakeholders at large. In terms of reporting CSR practices on the corporate websites, only 76.92% of the listed firms do such reporting. Additionally, only a few firms had their websites updated. We found that the most disclosed CSR theme on websites examined was Marketplace, with Environment being the least. Accordingly, inter-industry comparisons reveal that on average, Manufacturing / Merchandising sector provides the most CSR disclosures on their corporate website. It has also been noted that firms, which disclose CSR information, mainly focus on positive disclosures in an effort to build their legitimacy. Negative CSR information should be communicated to all stakeholders. Thus, a more serious and rigorous CSR reporting is needed by the listed firms operating in Fiji.

In conclusion, this study revealed that firms in developing and emerging economies generally provide very limited or insufficient CSR information on their website. Even though the listed firms realize the importance of engaging in CSR activities and accordingly communicating it to their stakeholders, they have not yet fully committed themselves to achieving these objectives.

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OPTIMAL DIVERSIFICATION - DOES IT EXIST?

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ABSTRACT

This study discusses the existence of the optimal diversification to maximize bank value. It finds that the impact of diversification on bank value depends on the business cycle. Since diversification can lower individual risk and raise system risk simultaneously, it will not always be beneficial for financial institutions to diversify their assets fully. This paper finds that, in a good economy, there will be an optimal diversification to maximize a bank's value, but in a bad economy, diversification will hurt a bank's value. Empirical evidence from Taiwan's banks is provided.

JEL: G34; L22; G21; G24

KEYWORDS: Diversification; Business Cycle; Systemic Risk; Banking

INTRODUCTION

International financial transactions and investments contribute to diversifying the assets of financial institutions, especially banks. Diversification can reduce individual risk, but the shocks of the recent mortgage and financial crises in the US and the credit crises in Europe have resulted in financial institutions' having to withstand more risk because of their diversification. Of course, diversification has benefits. Elsas et al. (2010) examined the impact of diversification on bank value during 1996-2008 and found two reasons for diversification's ability to increase bank value. The first is banks' economies of scope: because of their frequently long-term relationships with customers, banks can get more client information than non-financial institutions can in order to improve diversification in products and services. In addition, banks' high operating leverage allows banks more opportunities to find low-cost capital sources and achieve economies of scope.

The second reason that diversification can increase bank value is due to the technological advantage and liberalization of the financial industries, such as progress in financial marketing technologies (e.g., the foot-in-the-door strategy of requesting small demands before major ones) and the spread of financial openness and liberalization, including financial derivatives and financial consolidation, to financially developing countries. Enterprise integration also provides internal capital markets to improve efficiency in the allocation of funds (e.g., Williamson, 1975; Stein, 1997). The cost of the internal capital market is usually lower than that of the external capital market (Goold and Luchs, 1993; Ghemawat, 2000), so it can reduce cost and increase profit while also reducing information asymmetry. Hadlock et al. (2001) showed that external financing in the open market had more serious adverse selection problems than did financing in internal markets. Khanna and Palepu (1999) studied the role of diversification in India's enterprises and found that diversification can create shareholder value via products and labor and that diversification has a risk transfer effect in financial markets, particularly in emerging markets that are not fully developed. Lewellen (1971) argued that enterprise integration could improve capital efficiency and increase debt capacity, thereby improving corporate value by means of debt expansion.

Chandler (1977) and Teece (1982) confirmed that economies of scope can improve the efficiency of resource allocation, reduce costs, and increase corporate value, while Bhidé (1990) suggested that diversified investment could address consumer, supplier, borrower, and tax issues to increase the

efficiency of resource use. Montgomery (1994) proposed three major theoretical viewpoints—the agency theory, the resource-based view, and market power—to explain why enterprises may choose to diversify investments. According to the agency theory, the manager may seek diversified investment in order to (1) increase his or her compensation (Jensen and Murphy, 1990), power, and reputation (Jensen, 1986); (2) consolidate his or her position in the company by using expertise in investment (Shleifer and Vishny, 1990; Shleifer and Vishny, 1991); and/or (3) reduce the risk in his or her personal investment portfolio by lowering corporate risk (Amihud and Lev, 1981). From the resource-based view, when a company has excessive capital for investment, activities that take advantage of economies of scope, such as the integration of marketing channels and operating strongholds after product diversification, can increase corporate efficiency (Penrose, 1959). Moreover, the integration of legal and financial resources can be improved by using diversified business operations (Wernerfelt and Montgomery, 1988; Bodnar et al., 1999). Using the perspective of the market power theory, Villalonga (2000) proposed three reasons why enterprises choose investment diversification to increase market power: (1) to use a company's profits to offset the price-cutting competition of another; (2) to ally with other companies to compete with rivals in multiple markets; and (3) to crowd out smaller firms by investing in major enterprises to expand market share. On the other hand, diversification has its costs.

Wagner (2010) argued that portfolio diversification increases opportunities for asset overlap. Under the influence of the wealth effect, a bank failure would decrease the wealth of another bank that holds the same assets, leading to further collapse and the possibility of systematic crisis. Goldstein and Pauzner (2004) suggested that, under the influence of wealth effect, international portfolio diversification would trigger international “risk infection” since bad news in one country would reduce investors' wealth, resulting in rising risk aversion and disinclination to invest in other countries. Allen and Carletti (2006) and Allen and Gale (2005) argued that the credit risk transfer effect between the insurance and banking industries would lead to risk transfer from the insurance industry to the banking industry. When the banking and the insurance industry hold the same assets, the insurance industry may lower prices in order to sell the assets in times of crisis, harming the banking industry that holds the same assets. If the loss expands to a certain level, bank failures can result.

Diversification may also result in increasing agency problems and increasing corporate costs (e.g., Jensen, 1986; Meyer et al., 1992), and inefficient resource allocation may arise from the functional failure of internal capital markets (e.g., Lamont, 1997; Scharfstein and Stein, 2000a; Rajan et al., 2000). In addition, information asymmetry between investment companies and managers of the companies in which they invest (e.g., Harris et al., 1992) is detrimental to business operations since information asymmetry may increase the rent-seeking behaviors of the managers and enable them to engage in non-productive profit-seeking activities (e.g., Scharfstein and Stein, 2000b), increasing corporate costs and lowering corporate value. Despite the competing positive and negative effects of diversification, studies on optimal diversification are rare. This study attempts to determine the conditions necessary for an optimal level of diversification to exist using the banking industry as an example. The study follows the model Wagner (2010) used to explore the effect of diversification in reducing individual risk and increasing system risk. We find that optimal diversification is related to the business cycle: When the economy is good, there is an optimal diversification level for maximizing banks' value, and when the economy is bad, diversification will lower bank value.

THE MODEL

Consider a three-period economy and two banks. Suppose each bank has collected one unit of funds from investors, of which a share d is in the form of deposits and the remaining share is capital. At time 1 bank

1 invests in an asset X , and bank 2 invests in an asset Y . Each asset requires one unit of funds. The values of the assets are independent and uniformly distributed on the interval $[0, s]$; that is

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{s}, \quad \forall x, y \in [0, s], \quad (1)$$

where $f_X(x)$ and $f_Y(y)$ are the probability density functions of the values of assets X and Y . At time 2, each bank decides whether to transfer its asset to the other bank. We denote $r_i \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$, the share of a bank invests in a new asset. Thus, the bank is undiversified if $r_i = 0$, and fully diversified if $r_i = 1/2$. The payoffs of assets are realized at time 3, and the values of banks 1 and 2 at time 3 are

$$v_1(x, y; r_1) = (1 - r_1)x + r_1y \quad (2)$$

$$v_2(x, y; r_2) = r_2x + (1 - r_2)y \quad (3)$$

When the value of bank 1 is less than d , it is insolvent, and it has to liquidate its assets. If the other bank is solvent, then the failing bank can sell its assets to the other bank for their total value, reduced by c ; that is $v_i(x, y) - c$. If the other bank is insolvent as well, then the assets of bank 1 have to be acquired by outsiders who are inferior users of the assets, so the assets have to be liquidated at a loss of qc , where $q \geq 1$. Under these assumptions, the expected value for banks 1 and 2, W_1 and W_2 , can be written as

$$W_1(r_1, r_2) = E[v_1(r_1)] - cP(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) > d) - qcP(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) \leq d) \quad (4)$$

$$W_2(r_1, r_2) = E[v_2(r_2)] - cP(v_2(r_2) \leq d, v_1(r_1) > d) - qcP(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) \leq d) \quad (5)$$

Therefore, the total welfare in the economy is the sum of the expected values of bank 1 and 2:

$$\begin{aligned} W_1(r_1, r_2) + W_2(r_1, r_2) &= E[v_1(r_1)] + E[v_2(r_2)] \\ &\quad - c(P(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) > d) + P(v_2(r_2) \leq d, v_1(r_1) > d)) \\ &\quad - 2qcP(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) \leq d). \end{aligned}$$

Since $E[v_i(r_i)]$ is independent of r_i , the optimal diversification simply minimizes the total expected liquidation losses at both banks. Because of symmetry, the optimal degrees of diversification for banks 1 and 2 are equal. Therefore, we can focus on the losses for bank 1 and solve

$$\text{Min}_r c(P(v_1(r) \leq d, v_2(r) > d) + qP(v_1(r) \leq d, v_2(r) \leq d))$$

Using these assumptions, the optimal degree of diversification can be derived.

Proposition 1. *The optimal degree of diversification in the banking system is given by $r^* = \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2q - 1}}$*

when $\frac{d}{s} \leq \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2q - 1}}$, and $r^ = 0$ when $\frac{d}{s} > \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2q - 1}}$.*

In the Nash equilibrium, the degree of diversification for Bank 1 is solved by

$$\text{Max}_{r_1} E[v_1(r_1)] - cP(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) > d) - q c P(v_1(r_1) \leq d, v_2(r_2) \leq d), \quad (6)$$

which leads to Proposition 2:

Proposition 2. *In the Nash equilibrium the degree of diversification in the banking sector is given by $r^E = \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{q}}$ when $\frac{d}{s} \leq \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{q}}$, and $r^E = 0$ when $\frac{d}{s} > \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{q}}$.*

The threshold of optimal diversification is related to the cost of liquidation by outsiders q . In this study, the threshold of the optimal diversification is $\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{2q-1}}$ in general equilibrium and $\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{q}}$ in the Nash equilibrium. The cost of liquidation by outsiders q is suggested to be constant in the short term, which implies that the threshold would also be constant in the short term.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Sample

We chose 33 publicly listed banks in Taiwan from TEJ (Taiwan Economic Journal) data bank as the screening group, based on the length of their history and the availability of data. We excluded banks that were merged into financial holding companies because of difficult access to data and their reduced business independence. Then we selected banks from this group whose business cycle was apparent (equity market capitalization had once been lower than book value, namely, Tobin's q value was <1) and whose levels of diversification had fluctuated. After this screening, we were left with ten publicly listed banks and 120 monthly observations for each year from 2000 to 2009.

Optimum Diversification

We use Tobin's q as a measure of bank valuation. Tobin's q is calculated as the sum of the market value of common equity, plus the book value of preferred shares, plus the book value of total debt, divided by the book value of total assets. Lang and Stulz (1994) employed Tobin's q to observe the relationship between corporate diversification and performance, arguing that Tobin's q contains the capitalized value of diversification. Under the hypothesis of an efficient market and market value as the unbiased estimated value of the current cash flow of the company, Tobin's q can measure the contributions of the intangible assets of the company to market value. Hence, management activities (e.g., diversification) can increase or decrease corporate value through the impact of intangible assets. When the company's investment portfolio changes, its Tobin's q will also change.

When the diversification indicator is calculated from the perspective of the bank's profitability, the profit-making activities are divided into interest-rate-related activities and non-interest-rate-related activities. Stiroh and Rumble (2006) studied the impact of diversification on the performance of American financial holding companies and found that diversification facilitates the revenue from interest-rate-related activities and that diversification is detrimental to non-interest-rate-related activities. As the non-interest-rate-related activities have higher fluctuations and the profit-making capabilities are not necessarily higher than the interest rate-related activities, asset diversification in non-interest-rate-related activities

lowers the performance of the financial holding companies. The establishment of diversification indicators by Stiroh and Rumble is illustrated as follows:

$$DIV = 1 - (SH_{NET}^2 + SH_{NON}^2)$$

SH_{NET}^2 : is the share of net operating revenue from net interest sources

SH_{NON}^2 : is the share of net operating revenue from non-interest sources

Laeven and Levine (2007) studied the diversification effect of financial integration on corporate market value by categorizing the operational activities that affect diversification into loan-related activities and non loan-related activities. Their findings suggested that the economies of scope of business diversification after financial integration do not generate diversification premiums. The diversification indicator is set as illustrated below:

$$Diversification(LL) = 1 - \left| \frac{\text{net interest income} - \text{other operating income}}{\text{total operating income}} \right|$$

Elsas et al. (2010) studied how diversification affected the value of bank during the 1996-2008 in nine countries. They classified the bank's non-interest-related activities into net commission revenue, net trading revenue, and all other net revenue. The set diversification indicator is illustrated below:

$$DIV = 1 - \left[\left(\frac{INT}{TOR} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{COM}{TOR} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{TRAD}{TOR} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{OTH}{TOR} \right)^2 \right]$$

INT: gross interest revenue

COM: net commission revenue

TRAD: net trading revenue

OTH: all other net revenue

TOR: total operating revenue, which is equal to the sum of the absolute values of INT, COM, TRAD and OTH.

Referring to the diversification indicators proposed by Elsas et al.(2010), this study, in accordance with the items on the balance sheet of Taiwan's banking industry, categorizes the revenue sources of the banks into four types in order to calculate the banks' diversification indicator:

$$\begin{aligned} H = & 1 - [(\text{interest revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2 \\ & + (\text{handling fee and handling charge commission revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2 \\ & + (\text{financial transaction revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2 \\ & + (\text{other revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2] \end{aligned}$$

In order to verify the existence of an optimal level of diversification in the sample banks in Taiwan, Tobin's q is used as the measurement indicator of the value of the bank, and H is used as the diversification indicator of the bank's revenue to establish the regression model:

$$Q=c+a_1H+a_2H^2 \quad (7)$$

Q : Tobin $Q=(M/B)=(\text{Market Value}/\text{Book Value})$

H : the degree of diversification,

c : the effects of other influencing factors

If the operational purpose of the bank is to maximize its value (Max Q), and there is an optimal level of diversification H , then H should satisfy the following two conditions:

Condition I,

$\frac{d^2Q}{dH^2} < 0$, Second-order condition, namely, H^2 regression coefficient $a_2 < 0$, representing that the existence of diversification has maximized corporate value.

Condition II,

The optimum diversification: $H^* = -\frac{a_1}{2a_2} > 0$; hence, the regression coefficient is $a_1 > 0$.

If the effects of reducing individual risk through the bank's diversification are greater than the effects of increasing system risk, there should be an optimal level of diversification to maximize the value of the bank. This paper uses the corporate value Q of Taiwan's sample banks to conduct a regression estimation of the diversification variables H and H^2 , leading to the results shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Regression Results for Optimal Diversification

Bank	C		H		H ²		Adj.-R ²
	Coeff.	p-value	Coeff.	p-value	Coeff.	p-value	
2801	0.9616	0.0000***	0.2432	0.0000***	-0.3002	0.0000***	0.3502
2809	0.9425	0.0000***	0.3667	0.0000***	-0.5502	0.0000***	0.4077
2812	0.9491	0.0000***	0.2291	0.0004***	-0.2885	0.0015***	0.1144
2834	0.9778	0.0000***	0.0658	0.0033***	-0.0504	0.1433	0.2730
2836	0.9626	0.0000***	0.1446	0.0000***	-0.2004	0.0000***	0.1244
2837	0.9031	0.0000***	0.7495	0.0000***	-1.2301	0.0000***	0.2699
2838	0.8376	0.0000***	0.6151	0.0002***	-0.6340	0.0008***	0.2231
2845	0.8404	0.0000***	0.7383	0.0000***	-0.7422	0.0000***	0.6366
2847	0.9017	0.0000***	0.3378	0.0000***	-0.2779	0.0001***	0.5297
2849	0.9003	0.0000***	0.4031	0.0000***	-0.3851	0.0000***	0.6197

Tobin's q is calculated as the sum of the market value of common equity, plus the book value of preferred shares, plus the book value of total debt, divided by the book value of total assets. Herfindal $H=1-[(\text{interest revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2+(\text{handling fee and handling charge commission revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2+(\text{financial transaction revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2+(\text{other revenue}/\text{total revenue})^2]$. * significant at the 10% level.

** significant at the 5% level. *** significant at the 1% level.

As Table 1 shows, the regression coefficients of the first-order variable H of diversification against the bank value variable Q at the 1% significance level is positive, indicating that increasing diversification leads to rising corporate value. The regression coefficients of the second-order variable H^2 of diversification at the 1% significance level are mostly positive except for one sample, indicating that diversification can maximize corporate value. Hence, Taiwan's banking sample suggests that diversification's positive effects on bank value (reducing individual risk) are greater than the negative effects (increasing system risk). Regarding the impact of economic conditions on the optimal level of diversification, this study organizes the probability of corporate value to be lower than liability value in conducting the sensitivity analysis and finds no significant results. It is not easy to estimate accurately the loss probability q and the observation value s of the highest possible value of the bank's investment assets. Therefore, this question is expected to be explored in future studies. Among the sample banks in Taiwan, the Taichung Commercial Bank (2812) and the Kaohsiung Bank (2836) have higher risks (risk incidents had taken place) than other banks. The probability of liquidation conditions of the two samples, the d/s values, are more likely to exceed the threshold, so an optimal level of diversification is less likely. However, the regression fitness of the two samples is relatively poor (relatively smaller modified R^2), and the representativeness is weak. The probability of the liquidation condition indicator, the d/s value of other sample banks, is more likely to exceed the threshold; hence, the possibility that there is an optimal level of diversification in Taiwan's banking industry is relatively high.

CONCLUSIONS

For financial institutions, diversification may reduce individual risk and improve corporate value, as well as increasing system risk and lowering corporate value. Hence, if the integration results of the two are beneficial to the corporation, there is an optimal level of diversification to maximize corporate value. This study finds that diversification's impact on corporate value is related to the business cycle such that, when the economy is good, there is an optimal level of diversification to maximize banks' value, and when the economy is bad, diversification will hurt banks' value. Moreover, the optimal level of diversification and the loss rate are in an inversely changing relationship. These results suggest that the integration effect of diversification in good economies are beneficial, and investment should increase, while the integration effects of diversification are negative in poor economies, and investment should be reduced. Most of the recent empirical studies on the impact of diversification on the value of financial institutions begin from the perspective of financial integration to test whether corporate value falls after financial integration. Such limitations are not generalized. Hence, with Taiwan's banks as an example, this study tests the impact of diversification on the banks' value and finds that, in the case of the sample banks, there is an optimal level of diversification to maximize corporate value. This finding suggests that Taiwan's economic conditions still benefit the diversification of the banking industry. However, this study does not verify the indicators of conditions leading to probability of liquidation or loss rate, which may be considerations for future study.

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BALANCED SCORECARD FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL STRATEGIC MARKETING IN COLOMBIA

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ABSTRACT

The article formulates a Balanced Scorecard based upon research outcomes that enables knowledge centric entrepreneurs in Colombia to implement strategic Marketing practices. It explores entrepreneur's marketing rationale through fieldwork and data analysis by evidencing relationships between their education, revenues and years of experience with various strategic marketing options. Marketing rationale was defined within The Wheel of Consumer Analysis (WCA) framework: (Environment) Knowledge acquired from the outside, (Affective and Cognitive) Specialized training and procedures and formal and non-formal education thorough technical instruction, Competences implemented and experienced as routines and finally, (Behavior) transferring that knowledge across business areas and embed it the final products. Factor analysis helps determining appropriate marketing mixes for technology based entrepreneurs in terms of local idiosyncrasies. One way ANOVA provides mean comparisons between different categories for education, revenues and years of experience to factor scores.

DECODING THE REGULATORY SYSTEM FOR ADVERTISING IN CONTEMPORARY CHINA

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ABSTRACT

The recent announcement of the advertising code of ethics, “China’s Responsible Marketing Code,” by the China Association of National Advertisers was celebrated by the World Federation of Advertisers as a milestone in China’s advertising industry and the first step to establishing an effective self-regulatory system for advertising in China. This paper cautions that China’s advertising regulatory system is complicated and that the fundamental role of the Code remains to be seen. The paper examines the development and the principal dimensions of China’s current advertising regulation system, including the Advertising Law, the regulations that complement the Law, censors and the censorship process, and examples of censorable advertisements under the current system. The intricate relationship between the written and unwritten rules, on the one hand, and government involvement, on the other hand, leaves ample room for officials to make subjective decisions regarding advertisements in different contexts and political situations. The paper demonstrates that, in the ideological contest between socialism and capitalism, the Chinese government resorts to different strategies to regulate the advertising industry, and that the path to establishing effective advertising standards that are consistent with the principles in many developed countries is formidable.

JEL: M31, M37, M38

KEYWORDS: China, advertising regulations, global marketing

INTRODUCTION

To help understand China’s advertising regulatory system and censorship, this paper examines the development and principal dimensions of the contemporary Chinese regulatory system for advertising, censorship, and their enforcement. The paper seeks to shed some insights on how different elements in the system work by looking into the intricate relationship among the written rules—which include the Advertising Law, the government-issued regulations and explanations of the Advertising Law, the ad industry’s self-regulatory rules—and the unwritten “moral law.” The paper also describes the connections between the government and the censorship organization, and the censorship process and practices.

On April 11, 2011, at a press conference in Beijing, the China Association of National Advertisers (CANA) announced China’s first cross-industry self-regulatory advertising code of ethics, the “China Responsible Marketing Code” (hereafter, “the Code”). The Code had been developed jointly by CANA and the other two leading advertising associations in China—the China Advertising Association (CAA) and the China Advertising Association of Commerce (CAAC)—in consultation with the World Federation of Advertisers (WFA). The principles of the Code are reported to be consistent with advertising standards in the rest of the world. The Code was celebrated by representatives of WFA as a milestone in China’s advertising industry. (WFA Global News, April 13, 2011).

However, WFA’s optimism regarding the important role of the Code did not seem to be shared by CANA’s Chinese colleagues in CAA, an organization instrumental in China’s advertising censorship.

During my recent interview at CAA, Li Fangwu, Executive Assistant to the Secretary General of the CAA and Director of the CAA's Legal Service, was low-keyed about the significance of the Code: "CANA is a member of the WFA. Naturally, the Code has received international attention. Advertising censorship in China is government controlled. The regulatory rules are strict, and the system is complicated. There is little room for the Code to play a significant role in the advertising regulation system" (Tong, 2011).

"COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION"

The past three decades have witnessed a new era in China in which many cultural changes have taken place. With Deng Xiaoping's proclamation "To get rich is glorious," the "Mao fevers" of the Mao Era (1949-1976) have shifted to today's "consumer fevers." Commercialism has penetrated every aspect of contemporary Chinese society, exerting impact on every Chinese man and woman, old or young. This phenomenon has been characterized by critics as a "consumer revolution" (Davis, 2000).

China's rapid economic growth since 1992 has given a further powerful impetus to a progressive expansion of consumerism. The Chinese consumer economy has shifted from one of satisfying *needs* to one that develops *wants*. Acquiring and consuming material goods—tastefully—has become an intrinsic part of modern living and a validation of one's high social standing in China. China's new elites like to dine at Western food restaurants; frequent outdoor cafés, bistros, and boutiques that possess a foreign cachet; and show off their newly acquired Western brand-name products, such as Armani and Louis Vuitton. China now ranks second in the world in the consumption of luxury goods, just behind Japan. According to projections by Goldman Sachs, China is likely to tie Japan as No. 1 in 2015, consuming 29 percent of luxury-goods sales world-wide (*The Wall Street Journal*, September 8, 2006). The government's recent policy to transform China's economy from an export- and manufacturing-oriented one to a domestic consumer-oriented one will no doubt further help expansion of consumerism in China.

As a central totem of commercialism, advertising has developed at a speed unprecedented in its Western counterparts. Only three decades ago, few Chinese people knew what a commercial advertisement was, or how it functioned. After the People's Republic of China was founded in 1949, Western-style commercial advertising in China had been restricted for about 30 years. It was believed that advertising encouraged individual consumption, and was seen as a symbol of capitalism and a deliberate perversion of public communication for decadent commercial purposes. Products featured Mao's face and the faces of other political leaders. Chinese people at that time lived a thrifty life. Almost every consumer good was rationed. When consumer wares were so scarce, no advertising was necessary.

In the spirit of "deepening reform and broadening the open-door policy," "socialist commercial advertising" was welcomed back in December 1978. Eager to earn advertising revenue from foreign clients, Chinese government officials responsible for economic development and advertising professionals informed foreign companies that they could place advertisements on radio, television, and billboards, and in newspapers and magazines. Shortly after the curtain lifted, a newly resuscitated Shanghai Advertising Corporation pursued foreign clients with English language advertisements: "Do you want to promote your business? Consult us. We are ready to offer full & efficient services" (Stross, 1990, p. 489). Drawn by China's booming market, the world's major advertising agencies rushed into the Chinese advertising market in the 1980s. Initially, foreign advertising companies explored the Chinese ad market with caution. Since the 1990s, foreign advertising has expanded rapidly. Now, almost all the world's major advertising companies have operations in China. Tom Doctoroff, the North Asia CEO of WPP Group's JWT ad agency, boldly claims that "We [at JWT] want our creative ideas to be extended

into every corner of the country” (*The Wall Street Journal*, March 30, 2006). Once inside the country, Western advertising aroused the desire of the Chinese masses to embrace Western consumerism.

GOVERNMENT, ADVERTISING LAW, AND ADVERTISING REGULATIONS

For three decades, the advertising industry in China has grown from practically nothing in 1979 to a multi-billion-dollar business today, with annual advertising spending reaching \$36 billion in 2010—the world’s second-largest national expenditure on advertising after the U. S. (CAA, 2010). The size of the ad industry, its explosive growth, the size and diversity of the country, the vague and potentially controversial government regulations, the novelty of the advertising industry and the comparative ignorance of indigenous advertising professionals about the new field, posed challenges for both government law makers and advertisers seeking to produce sound regulatory measures and quality ad products. Today’s Chinese advertising market, as accurately described by Jian Wang, is “vibrant yet chaotic” (Wang, 2000, p. 112). This chaotic situation has at least three explanations.

1. The Ideological Incongruity of a Socialist Society and a Capitalist Economy

Since China’s adoption of a “socialist market economy,” party leaders have been struggling, on the one hand, to hold on to communist ideology as the country’s spiritual foundation and, on the other hand, to depend on capitalism to further the country’s economic development, in order to keep the party’s authority and legitimacy to rule the country. More than three decades have passed since the Chinese Communist party-state endorsed “socialist commercial advertising.” What exactly “socialist commercial advertising” is, is unclear, except that it “should differ from advertising in a capitalist country” and should be “in conformity with the criteria for socialist spiritual civilization” (Wang, 2000, p. 111). Consumerism was a hot (obsessive) topic in 1980s and 1990s in China. There were heated debates in newspapers and magazines and on television and radio, regarding the “shoulds” and “should nots,” as well as on the functions and principles of advertising in a socialist system. In his address to the Third World Advertising Conference held in Beijing in 1987, Wan Li, then China’s acting premier, stated that “Advertising links production and consumption. It is an important part of the economic activities of modern society” (Wang, 2000, p. 40). As noted by critics in the West, the arguments by those who *advocated* for advertising were precisely those that critics in capitalist societies used to *attack* advertising. These Chinese writers cheered advertising’s ability to “stimulate the consumers’ desire to consume—advertising consequently accelerates the expansion of production” (Stross, 1990, pp. 498-490). At that point, the ostensible distinction between Chinese socialist advertising and Western capitalist advertising disappeared.

2. The Advertising Law, Government Regulations, and Self-Regulation

After advertising was welcomed back to China, there was initially little control by the government over regulations, resulting in a chaotic situation. It took a few years before government officials began to take measures to regulate the advertising industry. To promote ad industry standards and protect consumer interests, the government published a series of policies and regulations governing advertising. In 1982 the State Council issued “Provisional Regulations for Advertising Management,” and then the “Regulation for Advertising Management” in 1987. Other important advertising policy initiatives were the “Interim Regulations on the Advertising Agency System” and the “Interim Advertising Review Standards” by the State Administration of Industry and Commerce (SAIC) in 1993, and finally the Advertising Law was passed by the National People’s Congress and came into effect in February 1995 (Wang, 2000, pp. 95-96). Experience with the 1995 Advertising Law in the past decades, however, shows

that the Law is not sufficient as a guide for the rapidly developing advertising industry in China. Ad agencies and professionals complain that the Advertising Law is vague and out of date. Many critics call for revision (Qu, 2006, pp. 16-17). Since 2007, the SAIC has published several sets of standards and measures to supplement or explain of the 1995 Advertising Law for the supervision and management of advertising in China. Examples are the “Standards for the Censorship and Publication of Advertising for Medical Products” and “The Announcement of Strengthening Supervision and Management of Print Advertisements.”

Over the years, CAA and, recently, CANA have issued more detailed self-regulatory principles for advertising, advocating honest, truthful, and decent ad behavior and specifying responsibilities of the advertising parties. Although it encourages self-regulation by advertisers, the government has ultimate power over the industry. Because advertisers’ self-regulation is not legally binding, enforcement has been relatively weak. Punishments of violations of the rules usually involve media exposés. Over the past few years, the SAIC, with the participation of CAA, CANA, and China’s Consumer Association have been revising and updating the 1995 Advertising Law. It is unknown when the revised law will be passed by the People’s Congress and become effective. According to Li Fanwu, who has been involved in the revision, the revised law will remain general and conceptual, similar to the 1995 Advertising Law, rather than being specific and detailed.

3. The Unwritten *Daode fa* (Moral Law)

Although the Advertising Law and the government-issued ad regulations are the primary codified legal texts for the advertising industry in China, a “law” that is not in writing, known as *daode fa*, roughly translated as “moral law,” is an important component of the government policies toward advertising. The “moral law,” which is similar to the code of ethics in the West, is generally associated with moral consciousness or ethical principles in human behavior, intended for human betterment. Such moral guidance usually is believed to derive from shared values and mores of a culture or society; however, Chinese *daode fa*, is more complicated, both in its concept and in its practice of regulating human behavior—specifically, advertising communications. There are at least three conceptual components in the formation of contemporary Chinese *daode fa*.

The first is the body of Confucian moral values. Being the “central pillar” of Chinese culture, it is generally believed that the moral principles advocated by Confucianism shaped the core of “Chinese characteristics.” Confucian moral principles include belief in humaneness, or *ren*, and the practice of benevolent conduct. “*Ren*” is defined in Confucianism as “a sublime moral attitude, a transcendental perfection attained only by legendary heroes” (Guo, 2004, pp. 82-83).

Since the turn of the 20th century, Confucianism has been going through political and ideological ups and downs in China. Attitudes of the masses toward Confucian values subsequently have undergone changes; so have Confucian moral responsibilities. Confucianism was criticized by Mao’s regime during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) as being feudalist and reactionary, and Chinese were ordered to eradicate it from their hearts and minds. In the wake of economic success in East Asia, Confucianism was resurrected. Confucian moral values once again have been advocated both by Communist Party leaders and by the New Confucians who believe in Confucianism in contemporary China as spiritual guidance to lead China through the nation’s modernization. Confucianism has been touted as the nation’s insurance to regain its power in the world and to influence the world’s future direction.

The second conceptual component in the formation of contemporary *daode fa* is the so-called “socialist morals.” Historical materialism postulates that societies are divided by classes and fraught with class conflict. Chinese Marxists advocate that moral beliefs and values should reflect historical and socio-economical conditions of a society. In Zhou Wangsheng’s article explaining the relationship of moral values and the state law (Zhou, 2007), the author emphasizes that in socialist China, moral values are defined by socialist laws and should be for the benefit of socialist society: More specifically, Zhou states that Chinese socialist morals are manifested, in addition to the “goodness” of the nation’s traditional values, in “five loves,” namely, love of the country, love of the people, love of work, love of science, and love of socialist public virtues (Zhou, 2007). According to one advertising handbook, one key element in Chinese advertising is “its relatively strong, ideological content. In a class society, the essence of such an ideology reflects the thoughts of the class.” (Wang, 2000, p. 94) A development and an expansion of the traditional moral system, socialist moral consciousness should show the spirit of collectivism, defend the socialist cause, and serve the people and society, heart and soul. In short, socialist morals constitute an important part of the Chinese socialist spiritual civilization (Zhou, 2007).

The third component of *daode fa* is its unique role in the enforcement of the law in China. Commenting on the practice of moral consciousness and the state law, Zhou Wangsheng characterizes the legal system in China as “not perfect” and in an on-going process of improvement. Regulating various social relations is subtle and complicated, and the regulations of many social relations cannot be thoroughly defined in words (Zhou, 2007). Zhou’s assertion is also stipulated in the 1995 Advertising Law. Article III of the Advertising Law of the PRC stipulates that “An advertisement shall be ... in compliance with the requirements of *raising a socialist cultural and ideological progress*” (italics added). In other words, an advertisement should reflect *socialist spiritual consciousness*. So as socialist spiritual guidance, contemporary *daode fa* is crucial in regulating social relations: It functions to complement the law and to close the loopholes in the Chinese legal system. In this sense, the wordless *daode fa* bears an equal, if not superior, weight to the state law in China.

The *daode fa* was an important source of spiritual guidance during the so-called “Anti-Spiritual Pollution” campaign in the early 1980s. It reinforced the need to separate the essential Western things from the dross, and to blend the West’s quintessence with China’s to create “socialist advertisements” that reflected China’s own “special characteristics.” This was a goal that all Chinese could support, and though the defining characteristics of a socialist advertising style remained vague, mere mention of the goal served to deflect criticism of undue Western influence” (Stross, 1990, p. 497). Despite some similarities between the Chinese *daode fa* and the codes of ethics in most developed countries (in terms of upholding the principles of honesty, truth, and decency), *daode fa* differs in its strong political and nationalistic implications. The nature and role of *daode fa* in contemporary China can be summarized as follows: 1) it is to serve as a “law” to protect the interest of socialist construction, the state, and the people; 2) unwritten, but shaped by certain socio-economic conditions in history, the concept and definition of *daode fa* are ever-changing, flexible, and open to interpretation; and 3) as a complement to law, it has the power of being morally binding in its regulation of social relations and human behavior.

CENSORS AND CENSORSHIP

Currently ad regulation in China is, in theory, a combination of government regulation and the industry’s self-regulation. However, the word “censorship” in Chinese “*shencha*” has strong political connotations and therefore implies an action of authoritarian enforcement. The Chinese political system ensures that the government controls ad-regulating activities and has the ultimate authority over approval or rejection

of an advertisement. Although legal autonomy has been advocated in recent years, the Chinese legal institution is, in many ways, still an extension of state administration. Government regulations are a complication for advertisers in China. They require considerable work to either circumvent or accommodate. Advertising censorship in China is confusing, at best, and has created problems for advertisers in the Chinese market. Many companies, particularly foreign companies complain that avoiding violations of government advertising policies is painfully confusing and difficult.

The Chinese Advertising Association

The implementation and enforcement of the Advertising Law and the various regulations rest within the jurisdiction of SAIC. What is interesting is that, despite the tight government control of advertising, the government itself does little ad censoring. Advertisements in China are divided into two categories in terms of censorship requirement: mandatory and voluntary. The “mandatory advertisements” are the advertisements for pharmaceutical products, medicine, health products, agricultural chemicals, veterinary drugs, and medical equipment. Those advertisements must be censored by the state or provincial bureaus in charge before the ads are released to the public. The advertisements for other products are encouraged, but not required, to go through the censorship. For “non-mandatory” advertisements, the Chinese Advertising Association conducts the censorship review.

Founded in 1983, the mission of the CAA is “to promote self-regulation and development, guide, coordinate, serve and supervise advertising organizations under the leadership of the State Administration for Industry and Commerce of the P. R. China,” according to the association’s brochure. Although the CAA describes itself as a non-governmental trade organization, it reports directly SAIC, indicating a level of government intervention that would be highly unusual for a trade organization in many other countries. As a result of their close association with the state bureau, the CAA enjoys enhanced authority as a pre-government regulator in censoring advertisements. For a fee, the Association’s review board will examine an ad and determine whether it is appropriate, before it is released to the general public.

Currently, CAA’s approval or rejection of an advertisement is, in theory, not legally binding. However, as a government-sponsored organization charged with censoring responsibilities by SAIC, its stamp of approval seems to carry an almost official ring. During my interview with Li Fangwu at the CAA, Li stated that CAA’s legitimacy in executing ad censorship will be specified in the forthcoming revised advertising law. Therefore, in practice, as good as the Association may be at evaluating ads, its weight comes from its association with the government and its effectiveness at screening ads. Although sending ads to CAA for review is voluntary, it is customary for ad agencies to seek approval from CAA for their ad before producing and scheduling its appearance in the media. One major consideration in submitting the ads first to the CAA is that by detecting potential problems at an early stage of ad production (that is, at the storyboard stage), the agency and the advertiser can save money and effort if the ads are found to violate the Advertising Law, or the ad regulations, and therefore need to be altered. In essence, the CAA advertising review is a bureaucratic process.

Censorship Process

The first stage of censorship is usually self-censorship, which takes place during the creation stage of an ad. The ad agency and the client who has requested an ad sit down and examine a proposed ad for any potentially offensive or censorable material. This stage of the censorship process can be the most time-

consuming and painstaking because of the indeterminate interpretation of the broad Advertising Law and the numerous newly issued rules that either supplement or supersede the existing regulations. It is also time-consuming because a large number of ads is submitted to a client, and each of them generally receives scrutiny. An interview with a professor of advertising in Beijing in 2006 revealed that an ad agency might submit 25 to 30 print ads per session to a client, and there may be as many as 5 different sessions before an ad is found that satisfies a client. This translates to more than 100 ads that must each be examined for censorable material. Although print ads are easier to examine than television ads, the sheer number of trial ads makes self-censorship a time-consuming and inconvenient task for ad agencies. However, self-censorship is also a very important stage.

The next stage is usually censorship by the CAA. The CAA is generally good at anticipating what is and is not appropriate, and a successful pass through the CAA makes government approval very likely. If the CAA certifies an ad as appropriate, then the biggest hurdle is over. On other occasions, the CAA would make suggestions of revision. After alterations are carried out according to CAA's recommendation, the CAA issues an approval certificate on the final version of the spot, and then the pre-showing censorship is over. Not all companies go through the CAA. Smaller companies usually do not bother to get their ads certified by the CAA. One reason for this is that the government does not care much about small businesses. Thus, smaller businesses have lesser motivation to join the CAA and invest in pre-censoring efforts. Larger businesses, on the other hand, have more money and have more influence in the Chinese market. They are under close watch by the government. Foreign businesses are, almost by definition, large businesses. It takes considerable time and resources for them to move into a foreign market, especially one as complex as the Chinese market. Almost all of them become CAA members and dutifully go through the screening process at the CAA. Too much is at stake for them to risk a blunder in their relationship with the government.

An ad can be aired if it clears the CAA. However, this does not mean that the company is home free. Even then, it is possible for an ad to be pulled. The government does not ignore ads once they are cleared. The government monitors current ads for censorable material that may have escaped notice at an earlier stage and for consumer reactions. This actually happened with a McDonald's ad at one point. The company's TV commercial shows a man down on his knees begging for something. Later in the ad, the man is shown to be begging for a sandwich. The ad cleared the censors, only to be met by public concern for promoting undignified behavior. Although most Americans would be more likely to find this ad amusing than insulting, it caused a debate among the officials censoring ads. The government stepped in and pulled the ad soon after it was released. It was surprising that the advertising agency that created the ad was found culpable for this mistake and ended up paying. It was not the McDonald's Corporation, the CAA, or even the media that failed to catch the ad at an earlier stage. It is apparently not uncommon for a company to put off paying an ad agency for work until the project is aired, or even later. Because the ad was pulled so quickly, the company that commissioned the ad (McDonald's) refused to pay. It is the potential for mistakes like this that prompt many companies, particularly large companies, to submit material to the CAA for review. Even though the CAA is not perfect at eliminating inappropriate material, the potential losses from a bad product make a good attempt at censorship far better than none at all. The entire censorship process demonstrates the potential for ambiguous law enforcement of business practices to create difficulties for the advertising industry in China.

The Media

The last gatekeepers in the censorship process are the advertising media. They review all ads to be broadcasted or printed. The media establish their own advertising review mechanism. They reserve the right to reject any advertising deemed inappropriate for print or broadcast. However, a major challenge they have is how to survive in China's socialist market economy. With the introduction of a market economy, the Chinese government is determined to eliminate the economic losses sustained by subsidizing media. Earlier in 2004, more than 1,400 state and party newspapers and periodicals were shut down, merged with commercial groups, or forced to finance themselves. Since 2000, the government has pressed China's thousands of television channels to commercialize, even though the government still tightly controls media content. Media either go broke or "contribute" to GDP by relying on the market and attracting more advertising.

Advertisers, domestic as well as foreign, encounter restrictions placed on the total quality of advertising accepted for television, newspapers, and magazines. During the early years of the advertising expansion in China, the government was concerned about the most important media being overwhelmed by commercialism. When China Central Television (CCTV), China's most powerful television network, first announced that it would carry commercials, it stated its intention to restrict commercial time to only 15 minutes each day, and it stuck by this policy (Stross, 1990, p. 492). However, as the country is becoming more consumer-driven, the limits on television ads issued by the government in the 1980s are no longer followed. It is common for a TV program to be interrupted by two or three brief commercials. But between programs, commercials run for as long as 15-20 minutes. The bombardment of advertisements on television has caused sharp criticisms by the TV viewers and concerns by government officials. In April 2011, a government official stated that television advertising might be banned, according to the people I interviewed at CAA in May.

Although many Chinese media are now primarily supported by advertising (an average of over 90 percent of the revenue for a television station is generated by advertising), they remain, in essence, state-owned entities. As Jian Wang has pointed out, "propaganda and profit are ... equally important for them. Without one or the other they won't be able to survive in this new media environment. The major media are particularly strict about advertising content because they cannot afford to bear the brunt of deviating from the government and party line" (Wang, 2000, p. 99). CCTV has its own censorship process for its own programs. As the mouthpiece of the Communist Party, and with its far-reaching impact across China, CCTV is more cautious in observing the Advertising Law than are provincial or local stations, and it censors content to assure consistency with values and ideas that the central government approves. The stipulations by the ad media in China do not necessarily duplicate what is established in the codified Advertising Law, yet they are not incongruent with the spirit of the law, either. The measures in censoring advertisements by media are more politically than legally motivated, as the political and the legal in China are often intricately intertwined.

The verdict by the media on accepting or rejecting an ad is sometimes also a result of administrative interference from government officials and the current party line. An illustration is the sudden "pig ban" on Nestlé's TV ads for the 2007 Chinese Lunar New Year, China's biggest holiday. As China rang in the Year of the Pig, Nestlé planned to celebrate with a TV ad featuring a smiling cartoon pig. "Happy New Pig Year," the ad said. A little over three weeks before the Lunar New Year, CCTV banned Nestlé's ad. According to the CCTV official who made the announcement of the ban, the intent was to avoid offending Muslims, who consider pigs unclean. It is observed in a *Wall Street Journal* report that the ban

came in the wake of the killing of 18 Muslims by police in the northwest of China. The government accused the men of being terrorists. Muslim activists called for an independent investigation. The network's ad department explained to ad agencies that China was a multiethnic country. "To show respect to Islam, and upon guidance from higher levels of the government, CCTV will keep any 'pig' images off the TV screen" (*The Wall Street Journal*, January 25, 2007). Although advertisers have learned to cope with sometimes inconsistent government edicts as it attempts to control the media and popular culture, they were still taken aback by the ban on pigs.

From first draft to post-release, someone is examining ads for objectionable material. The idea of self-regulation generally means that any government policy is to cultivate an environment in which the community will have freedom to operate. This is not the case in China. Due to the political structure, the ad industry's self-regulation is an extension of the government regulation. There is little freedom or autonomy in ad decisions and ad activities. What is most surprising is how little of this censoring is done by the government itself. The government influence on the advertising industry seems more "inactive" than "active" with regard to the daily operation of ad agencies. It is the CAA, the media, and self-censorship that do most of the actual censorship work in Chinese advertising. The government exerts a powerful influence over advertising by spreading the threat of press exposé or government punishment. This threat is much more common than actual intervention, although the government is proactive about dealing with concerns should it feel the need. The method for censoring and controlling the content of advertisements may seem surprising to Westerners, but the Chinese model makes considerable sense. It would be difficult, as well as impractical, for the government to try to censor every advertisement of a multi-billion-dollar industry that is still growing. Thus, it makes more sense for a government with finite resources to have the companies themselves do most of the work and to provide a separate oversight organization through the CAA. This way, the government delegates a considerable portion of the work while minimizing the actual loss of control over content.

"CENSORABLE" ADVERTISEMENTS

Another strategy in the ad censorship by the government is that, rather than screening the details of every single ad, the government focuses on those for the "targeted" products and companies that are most likely to run afoul of the law. Two types of advertising that are mostly likely to be scrutinized: One is fraudulent advertising, particularly for medical products, food, and cosmetics. The other is advertising of national images that would "hurt the feelings of the Chinese people."

Fraudulent Advertising

In the early 1980s, the business of ad companies mainly involved design and manufacture of product catalogs, media buying, and indoor and outdoor decorating for department stores, as well as sales exhibitions. By the late 1990s, commercials were produced to promote all kinds of electronic products, furniture, automobile, real estate, services, talents, employment, rental, entertainment, consulting, and so on. In the explosive expansion of the advertising industry, false advertisements were prevalent, causing damages to consumers and a bad reputation of the industry. So during the early stage of the ad development in post-Mao China, the official criticism had been focused almost exclusively on "fraudulent" ads. In 1986, the government issued a circular warning that advertisements had to be truthful and legal. The president of the Chinese Consumer Association reinforced this warning by stating that "Where false products cause death, those responsible should pay with their lives" (Stevenson, 1985). The

1995 Advertising Law requires “all advertising to be truthful (Article 3) and to exclude false information (Article 4), and advertisements and their agents, and publishers to be fair, honest, and credible (Article 5) (Palmer, 2006, p. 64). A classic story of China’s insistence on the absolute truth in all advertising was how Toyota had launched in China an advertising campaign based on an old Chinese proverb about having faith: “When you drive (your car) into the mountains, you will always find a road out.” Toyota had added “Where there is a road, you will find a Toyota.” A year after Toyota’s slogan appeared on billboards, in newspapers, and on television, the Chinese authorities told Toyota that this constituted false advertising. Reasoned one official, ‘China has roads but there are not necessarily Toyotas on them. The roads in other countries do not necessarily have them either.’ Toyota had to drop the campaign. Later the Chinese regarded the story as the embodiment of the crucial difference between the strict standards of socialist advertising and the lax standards of its capitalist counterpart (Stross, 1990, p. 499).

There are numerous examples of false advertising placed by domestic Chinese advertisers as well. The *Economics Daily* and other newspapers receive what they describe as a “continuous flow” of letters from readers who had been misled or cheated by domestic advertising. The 2002 Shanghai Regulations, reflecting a growing concern with ‘unethical selling’, place a heavier burden on sellers to advise consumers of the relevant aspects of their products and services, and honestly to answer consumer queries (Articles 17, 19, 21, 22, and 23). The 2005 annual advertising report reveals that 67,676 advertisements had been found to have violated the law (Qu, 2006, p. 7).

National Images

The other type of advertisement that has received heavy government scrutiny is ads that harm the Chinese national image. Any advertisements that are believed to portray a “bad national image” of China or the Chinese would “hurt the Chinese people’s feelings,” and are effectively banned under Chinese law. Partly due to their troubled history with foreigners in modern history, the Chinese have a greater sensitivity to self-image and public standing than Americans. This sensitivity is reflected in the country’s advertising policies. As stipulated in the Advertising Law, the national flag, the national emblem, and the national anthem, government agencies or their representatives, and other figures and images associated with the Chinese government are banned from commercial advertising (Article 7). The Chinese government is very concerned with maintaining a positive perception in the media. Preserving face seems to be the highest priority, especially at the national level. This is seen in the ill-fated ads by Toyota Motor Company. Toyota ran a commercial showing a Land Cruiser SUV towing what appeared to be a Chinese military truck, and another featuring stone lions, a traditional symbol of power in China, bowing down to Toyota’s Prado GX. Chinese consumers balked at the perceived insult to their armed forces in being towed, and at the notion of bowing to anything—even a car—representing Japan. Nike had a similar experience. As widely reported by the media, the ad campaign “Chamber of Fear” by Nike Inc. featured LeBron James, then of the NBA’s Cleveland Cavaliers, battling—and defeating—a computer-generated Kung Fu master. Although there was nothing inherently offensive in the eyes of Westerns, Chinese consumers found the concept insulting, and the Chinese government felt that publicly acknowledging foreign goods in such a manner was offensive. So the advertisements were blocked. (*The Wall Street Journal*, November 15, 2007).

Inconsistency in Censorship Enforcement

The ambiguity of the advertising law and the unwritten “moral law” give the government enough leeway to retain control of advertisements in China. Sometimes ads are blocked for unpredictable and less

definable reasons. Officials deployed public letter-writing campaigns to encourage viewers and readers to express concern about foreign dominance of advertising or “unhealthy” advertisements to editors and television station officials.

Women have occupied a central place in advertising since its return to China in the late 1970s. Representations of women in advertisements have been a heated topic among critics since then. Although the government claims to be protecting consumers from false, or other “unhealthy,” advertising, some gets more scrutiny than others. Article 7 of the Advertising Law prohibits advertising from “carrying any pornographic, superstitious, horrible, violent or ugly information.”

Sexually appealing advertising, formerly considered taboo, has now been received with mixed attitudes. Take, for example, two advertisements containing sensually sensitive content. One is the commercial for Meijiaying (beautiful and clean) facial cream that was aired very briefly in early 2008. The commercial is about a young mother using the product. After she applies Meijiaying facial cream, her face becomes, smooth, youthful, and radiant. Her five-year-old son says to the young mother: “Mom, you’re so beautiful. I will marry you when I grow up.” After the ad was aired, some people expressed concern that this ad was “unhealthy” because it showed “incestuous love.” The commercial was quickly pulled. The other is the McDonald’s “beef” ads. In the campaign to promote its Quarter-Pounder in 2006, McDonald’s ran a series of racy advertisements. One billboard featured a close-up of a woman’s lips; on another ad, a woman runs her hand over a man’s flexed biceps. “Flirt with your senses,” the sign says. The burger chain’s TV commercials are even racier than the print ads. In one spot, a man and a woman eat Quarter-Pounders, and close-up shots of the woman’s neck and mouth are interspersed with images of fireworks and spraying water. The actors suck their fingers. The voice-over says: “You can feel it. Thicker. You can taste it. Juicier” (*The Wall street Journal*, September 21, 2006). For some reason, these edgy McDonald’s ads were not found offensive and met no criticisms.

Advertising for the tobacco industry tells another story. There are strict rules on tobacco advertising. Article 18 of the Advertising Law states,

Publishing of advertisements for tobacco by means of radio, cinema pictures, television, newspaper, magazine or periodical is prohibited. Erecting or placing advertisements for tobacco at public places such as various waiting rooms, cinemas and theatres, conference halls and sports stadiums and gymnasiums is prohibited. Advertisements for tobacco must be marked with “Smoking is harmful to your health.”

The actual practices, however, are quite different from what the written law allows. It is most puzzling to see how lax government control is over ads for tobacco. Chinese authorities initially were reluctant to impose restrictions on cigarette and liquor advertising. Foreign cigarette companies, for example, were warmly welcomed in 1979; these companies accounted for four of the first five advertising accounts for Chinese television. When Chinese finally decided to ban advertising for foreign cigarettes, liquor, and cosmetics, the government’s ban showed only half-hearted concern with protecting the public from physical harm caused by cigarette consumption. In 1987 the state issued “Draft regulations for greater control over sports advertising.” But, there were, and still are, loopholes within the law that tobacco companies can exploit, and restrictions on tobacco are not so high as they appear. The foreign tobacco companies were free to take advantage of every possible opportunity to promote their products. In order to get around legal technicalities, tobacco companies would sponsor sports teams and events, and

also purchased buildings in visible places and name them after the brand. So cigarette brand-names are seen during popular sports games (Stross, 1990, pp. 491-92).

CONCLUSION

China's giant, vibrant, yet chaotic ad market remains a big challenge for both the Chinese government and advertisers, foreign and domestic. Although advertising regulation in China is increasingly governed by a more transparent legal framework than being subjected to the whim of personalities, advertising regulation in China is characterized by a lack of autonomy in legal regime, indeterminacy in interpretation, and thus low predictability. One of the sources of confusion over the legal boundaries of advertising expression is that the Advertising Law was written in broad and vague terms and is open to various interpretations. The inconsistency in the content of the Advertising Law and the multiple regulations issued at different times and by different organizations frustrate advertisers as they struggle to abide by its provisions and deal with the Chinese regulations and bureaucracy.

An overarching explanation for many of these apparent contradictions in ad censorship rules and practices is the political shift that the Chinese government is trying to deal with. A Communist government runs China, but that government is at the same time trying to merge with a capitalist marketplace. The government is obliged to follow a Communist ideology, which conflicts with the rapid growth of free trade in China. So, the Chinese government has created a dilemma for itself. The party leaders must either renounce Communism, which seems extremely unlikely in the foreseeable future, or find a way to make communism compatible with free trade. The second option not only preserves face but also allows the government to maintain a higher level of control over the economy than other countries that have free trade. However, because the ideologies of Capitalism and Communism oppose each other, mixing them should prove very difficult.

The experience of the multinational advertising industry in China seems to suggest that the Chinese government holds enormous power in influencing, and sometimes even determining, advertising behavior. Such government authority, according to Jian Wang, "derives from the state and, more importantly, its legitimacy to speak on behalf of the nation and to police and regulate ... advertising content and practice" (Wang, 2000, p. 101). Under the notion of "building a harmonious society" and a loose definition of what benefits the nation and the people, the decision of whether an ad is censorable or acceptable is sometimes purely a party official's preference. In *Billions: Selling to the New Chinese Consumer*, Tom Doctoroff asserts that government censors use the ambiguity of regulations to reject an advertisement simply because the government does not like it, rather than because it is truly a violation of the law (Doctoroff, 2005, p. 91). The generality and vagueness in the principles governing advertising, as well as the application of "moral law," leave ample room for cognizant officials to make subjective decisions regarding ad products in different contexts and situations, thus making the principles more of an expedient. On the one hand, by subjectively applying the notion of "being good" to the people and the country, the Communist party-state can continue to seek opportunities to increase revenue brought in by the booming advertising industry. On the other hand, the government's imposition of its control over advertising reinforces its claim that the Communist Party is the sole, legitimate representative of the masses and the nation. The path to establishing a transparent regulatory system for advertising in China, with standards consistent with other developed countries, is arduous and formidable.

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TEACHING INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS BY USING FICTION: HOW AND WHY I WROTE AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS NOVEL

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ABSTRACT

In teaching international business, the author found that a textbook-and-lecture approach was efficient but ineffective for knowledge retention; group exercises and simulations evoked student interest but were inefficient and ineffective for transfer and application of knowledge to other business contexts. Because both textbook and lecture presentations suffer from being composed primarily of generalizations and abstractions distilled from practice, many students fail to see their practical relevance. To address the problem of student interest and to improve learning retention, the author wrote an international business novel that attempts to make major international business concepts more graphic and more concrete, and thus more memorable, for students. This paper chronicles that process and reports some preliminary results.

JEL: A3; F1; F2; L1; L2; M1

KEYWORDS: International business, pedagogy, fiction

INTRODUCTION

Like many business professors, I imagine that I know more about the content of the course I am teaching than most of the students taking it. This has been particularly true with the international business (IB) course that is now required of many business majors at my institution and that serves as a popular elective for other students at the sophomore-junior level who are seeking to fulfill a general education requirement in globalization and diversity. One of the problems with my international business classes is achieving good knowledge retention by students as demonstrated by lackluster performance on class exams. One of the obstacles to knowledge retention appears to be lack of student interest in lecture and textual materials.

How could any student *not* be interested in—fascinated by—international business? Although my colleagues and I joke that a prevailing student attitude at our institution assumes that Ohio is not only the *center* of the universe but extends in all directions to its outer limits, the mundane truth seems to be that student interest appears to be directly affected by the textbook-and-lecture classroom pedagogy I have used. One result has been that animated, relevant, and informed in-class discussions focused on IB-related concepts and processes, and on related world events, have been rare. My textbook-and-lecture approach has proven efficient in “covering” the core content but ineffective in achieving the desired student learning outcomes. At the same time, my forays into using group exercises, mini-case-studies, and simulations have been effective in evoking greater student interest and enjoyment but have been inefficient in terms of the amount of core IB learning that can be included in the class. They also have been ineffective for the transfer of core learning to other applications than the specific exercise, case study, or simulation at hand.

To address this constellation of problems, I have tried to improve the success of my IB classes by reshaping my pedagogy. Specifically, I have written an “international business novel,” assigned it as an

ancillary reading to the IB textbook, and held classroom discussions of the novel with students in the class. The first section of this paper discusses some of the important specifics of the overall problem. The second section discusses how I came to choose the particular mode of fiction I did and describes several available fictional modes or genres as represented by some prominent contemporary examples. In section three I discuss my suitability for undertaking such a project, the implementation setbacks I encountered in seeking to execute the project, and how I resolved them. The final section looks briefly at my one semester of classroom experience using the novel—*Chaucer on the Nile*—to teach my international business class.

CRITICAL DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEM

In terms of student interest and knowledge retention, textbooks have some serious defects. First, the presentation values of many pages filled with type, relieved by the occasional photo or graph, are quite limited in engaging a reluctant or previously unengaged reader's interest. Second, despite exotic four-color photos of exotic locations and subjects, the dominant medium for presenting IB content in textbooks—words, words, words—is, for many students, boring and lifeless: a book is an inanimate object and predictably repetitive in many respects. Further, the typical textbook treatment is organized around generalizations drawn from many concrete incidents and situations—each of which is, nonetheless, far removed from the abstractions that appear on the pages. These abstractions or “distillations” lack the vivaciousness of the practical contexts from which they are drawn and consequently often fail to attract student interest or are not memorable.

Similarly, lecturing as a pedagogy—the venerable but soporific “talking head” standing in front of the classroom and holding forth—also has limited appeal to student interest, particularly when repeated for *every* class, at regular intervals, for weeks at a time. In terms of lecture and learning retention, it has been asserted (Dale, 1946, 1954, 1969; NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 2011) that learners retain only five percent of what they've learned from lecture—but retain 50% of what they learn when engaged in a group discussion. With pedagogies that involve “practice by doing,” such as simulations, and learning a particular knowledge content by teaching it to others, it is asserted that retention rates climb to 75% and 90%, respectively.

Lecturing as a pedagogy, with its allegedly low learning retention rate, seems likely to be ineffective with regard to student learning. The higher retention rate of the learning modes where students are more actively engaged—learning by doing and learning by teaching others—would be greatly preferable, were there but world enough and time. However, in fourteen weeks of 75-minute classes with enrollments around 35 students, these learning modes would be grandly inefficient. With a “learn-by-teaching” pedagogy, each of the enrolled students would be able to teach the class only a few times, and only a few of the major IB concepts. With regard to the “learn-by-doing” mode, the practical limits of the classroom would permit engagement with only those few of the major IB concepts that permit a hands-on or laboratory approach, and this limitation would render the “learn-by-doing” mode impracticable.

The situation would seem to require a compromise. Learning by discussion, with an alleged learning retention rate of 50%, is more effective than lecture and less inefficient than learning by doing and learning by teaching others, and seems a reasonable pedagogic compromise, provided we offer our subject-matter in a way that lends itself to discussion by, for one thing, being significantly more interesting than a collection of generalizations and abstractions.

CRITICAL DIMENSIONS OF THE SOLUTION

And so it was that I went looking for ways of grounding IB content in a practical and workable context (class discussion) in a manner that would (a) make it more real, vital, and interesting to students; and (b) make it “sticky”—both in the sense of contextual and applicable, and also in the sense of being memorable, sticking in the mind. Gary Overvold, a former colleague in the philosophy department at Clark University in Worcester, Massachusetts, has suggested that texts in the humanities, texts such as stories and fiction, allow us to learn about how the world operates in particular contexts and do it, as it were, on the cheap. He calls these texts “humane texts” and one of their principal purposes is to permit “the rehearsal of life in imagination”:

One of the most ancient models for the humanities (and for learning generally) is the one which sees them as the rehearsal of life in imagination. The text . . . is construed as an imaginative means for discovering value and disvalue in life. What the model evoked . . . was a low risk way to knowledge of others’ lives. What it drew on was the power of the word and of the symbol to anticipate, to display, and to teach possible futures, to analyse, review, and add insight to the past, and to provide a level of integration to the portrayal of the present.

(Overvold, 1985, p. 16-17)

The idea of rehearsing life in imagination suggested rearranging my thinking about my IB class—not to remove textbook and lecture altogether—but to incorporate a work of fiction in my class that would promote interest in IB concepts and promote their discussion in class. As an intervention, what I had in mind was no more complex than the analogy described by the Roman poet-philosopher Lucretius Carus (d. 55 A.D.) in his *De Rerum Natura*. Lucretius says that if you wish to gain compliance from someone who does not find compliance intrinsically desirable, you should do it as you would when getting a child to drink bitter medicine from a cup: you smear the rim of the cup with honey to make the medicine go down (1937, I. 935-943). In my case, the bitter content of the cup is the IB content of the class, and the fictional overlay or framework is the honey around the cup’s rim.

Of course, I soon realized that I did not have to reinvent the wheel: there are any number of fictional modes currently being used in business education, the most obvious of which is the *case study*, which I use in my department’s senior capstone for management, marketing, and finance majors. A more recent fictive modality is the *simulation*, a variety of which are now readily available in packaged and electronic form, and used regularly by several of my colleagues.

More exotic, although probably a closer approximation to what Overvold had in mind with his phrase “rehearsal of life in imagination” is the Japanese comic book or *manga*, which has been used for decades as a vehicle for the exposition of business content in Japan (Berfield, 2008). *Japan, Inc: An Introduction to Japanese Business* (1986, 1988) by ISHINOMORI Shōtarō first appeared in its Japanese form in 1986, with an American version in 1988. *The True Life of Carlos Ghosn* written by TOGASHI Yoko and illustrated by TODA Takanobu (2002-2004), chronicled the history of the Chairman and CEO of both the French Renault and the Japanese Nissan auto companies, and the work appeared in its original serialized Japanese form in 2002.

Fables have been a core genre of human writings since before The Holy Bible and Aesop. Business fables have been a distinct literary genre, not just in Europe, but in Japan, since feudal times (Mulhern, 1991, vii). In contemporary American business literature, the range of works fall into three broad categories:

- (1) Moral tales focused on teaching ethical behavior in business, such as Jim Stovall's *The Ultimate Gift* (2001) and The Arbinger Institute's *Leadership and Self-Deception: Getting Out of the Box* (2000).
- (2) Didactic tales intended to teach useful attitudes or perspectives toward big ideas like accepting change in life and business, such as Spencer Johnson's *Who Moved My Cheese?* (1998); Subhir Chowdhury's *The Ice Cream Maker* (2005); and John Kotter and Holger Rathgeber's *Our Iceberg Is Melting* (2005).
- (3) Functional fables, which seek to teach how to perform business or managerial functions and operations—examples here would include very professionally focused fables, such as James K. Loebbecke's *The Auditor* (1999) or more general treatments of functional business issues, such as Patrick Lencioni's *The Five Dysfunctions of a Team* (Jossey-Bass, 2002), or, for that matter, any of the half-dozen of what Lencioni calls his "leadership fables."

Loebbecke's work is closer to a didactic yet realistic novel—he characterizes the fictional mode of *The Auditor* as "instructional novella"—but Lencioni's leadership fables are crafted to focus reader and attention almost exclusively on the message or moral. Lencioni's fables are sparse, gemlike, and maintain interest by minimizing distractions. Here, for example, is the *complete* opening chapter of Lencioni's *Five Dysfunctions of a Team* in its entirety:

LUCK

Only one person thought Kathryn was the right choice to become CEO of DecisionTech, Inc. Luckily for her, that person was the Chairman of the board.

And so, less than a month after the previous chief executive had been removed, Kathryn Petersen took the reins of a company that just two years earlier had been one of the most talked-about, well-funded, and promising start-up companies in the recent history of the Silicon Valley. She could not have known just how far from grace the company had fallen in such a short period of time, and what the next few months had in store for her.

(Lencioni, 2002, p. 3)

An attempt to meld the fable genre with the Japanese *manga* is represented by Daniel Pink's *The Adventures of Johnny Bunko: The Last Career Guide You'll Ever Need* (2008). When Johnny breaks apart his throw-away wooden chopsticks in a Japanese restaurant, a cute Japanese genie (improbably named Diana) emerges to teach him and his coworkers six big-picture career advice lessons, which the reader learns in the context of seeing the story taking place in *manga*-style cartoon drawings by Rob Ten Pas.

Johnny Bunko is sufficiently recent that it is too early to tell whether the manga version of the business fable will catch on in the United States, but the "instructional novella" has had some prominent recent

follow-ups, most notably Austin et al.'s *The Adventures of an IT Leader* (2009), published by Harvard Business School Press. Like Loebbecke's *The Auditor*, the *IT Leader* focuses on a functional role (IT manager) in the context of a contemporary business. Both of these short business novels derive from what is a long-established genre of business novels in Japan (Mulhern, 1991)—a genre that is not well represented in English translation. A representative Japanese business novel in English is Chieko Mulhern's translation of ARAI Shinya's *Shoshaman* (1991). The work currently is out of print, though used copies appear from time to time on online booksellers, such as eBay and Amazon.com.

The *Shoshaman* story takes place during the decline of the *sōgō shōsha*, the Japanese all-purpose trading company, during the 1980s and traces how one of these companies, Nissei Corporation, tries to migrate into types of businesses that add value, rather than simply serving as a middleman between manufacturer and retailer. At the beginning, the protagonist of the story, NAKASOTO Michio, is a newly promoted manager who is trying to figure out “the ropes to skip and the ropes to know”:

“What a close call! Nakasato shuddered, recalling his recent trip to the United States. Was I lucky to escape the fate of being sidetracked into a post away from Nissei's mainstream! If I expect to be the first in my class to make it into senior management, I must position myself in the head office . . . I must avoid a sideline assignment, no matter how significant, to say nothing of hanging my fate on an American restaurant chain!”

(Arai, 1986, 1991, p. 5)

Before being assigned to the United States to vet new business acquisitions, Nakasoto befriends and becomes romantically involved with a female officeworker at the company, Masako. He teaches her (and the reader) the basic concepts of starting and sustaining a business before flying off and abandoning her. When he returns to Japan, years later, he discovers she has used her entrepreneurial skills to develop a chain of successful upmarket dress boutiques in the Tokyo area. She gives him a tour of her outlets, including the small floor space she rented in another store when she first opened for business:

“Behind that pillar, over there, the recessed area to the left of the entrance—that's the space I rented to start my business.”

“Very impressive,” Nakasato said. “What's the ultimate secret of your success? In the beginning you were in no position to cut costs by volume purchases. Maybe it was your fashion sense? But until you established some influence and rapport with the wholesale houses, you must have had trouble getting specific items you wanted, I imagine.”

“I just kept on doing whatever was necessary, as best I could, with stubborn persistence. There is no other secret,” Masako explained and turned toward her manager. “Minami-san, what do you think is the most important thing in managing this store?”

“It's communication,” the manager replied without hesitation. “Communication among the staff, communication with the head office, and communication with the customers. I believe well-maintained communication never fails to solve any problem.”

“Well, you have it right,” Masako said, nodding in satisfaction.

(ARAI, 1986, 1991, pp. 178-179)

The “business novel” mode represented by ARAI’s *Shoshaman* seemed particularly suited to the requirements of my project in several ways. First, it allowed for a measure of expansiveness in treating a number of international business concepts and processes. Unlike Lencioni, for example, I was not in a position to unify my subject matter, to focus only on one critical issue such as how to avoid dysfunctional behavior in teams. My subject matter would range from the important contexts of international business—international politics, law, economics, finance, banking, and risk assessment with regard to prospective markets and production sites—to elements of the workings of the international business firm: business models and strategy, cash flow, modes of entry, logistics, production, and management and leadership, particularly in teams. Second, it allowed me to be selective: I could continue to assign a textbook that would do the heavy lifting with charts and figures, and I could enhance a variety of content areas that required more fleshing-out, such as the differences in international approaches that derive from differences in industry and a firm’s country of origin. Third, it allowed me to create and teach fiction in a way with which I already was comfortable.

IMPLEMENTATION AND EXECUTION

In the decade between 1971 and 1981, I wrote three novels (none of which was published), so I was familiar with the regimen. What was uncertain was whether I could still write fiction. I was on firmer ground with teaching novels in my social-science courses, having used fictional works for discussion in other courses: Stovall’s *The Ultimate Gift* in my Introduction to Leadership class, E.M. Forster’s *A Passage to India* in the Leadership in Global Contexts course, Qiu Xiaolong’s *Death of a Red Heroine* in the leadership capstone, and Lencioni’s *Five Dysfunctions of a Team* in a master’s level international leadership course. My approach in all of these cases has been to assign one or more chapters and then discuss key concepts from the works with the class.

In the summer of 2009 I wrote a sabbatical proposal to create an IB novel set in the country that had been the site of one of my international excursions, Egypt. I submitted the proposal in the fall of 2009, and it was approved in the spring of 2010. I began the actual organizing and plotting of the novel over the semester break in December 2009.

Organizing on the business side meant determining what IB content to highlight in the novel. In the end, I settled on an outline that looked like this:

- Basic business definitions & concepts
- How does “international” differ from “domestic” business?
- What criteria shape the decision to
 - Leave/expand beyond your home market?
 - Enter a particular foreign market (Egypt as the presenting example)?
- Which markets to enter, with which product or service, when to enter, what scale, what entry mode?
- What types of changes do foreign markets require?
- What are the prominent risks in international business?
- Why do people trade? Who trades with whom?
- What does superior management look like in international business? What ethics guide manager behaviors?
- How do we operationalize value-added and competitive advantage?

- What are the effects of diversity and cultural differences on business success?
- What roles are played by governments and international organizations?
 - the role of tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade
 - the role of infant industries and dealing with “neo-mercantilists”
- Market demographics (serve rich man or poor man? offer luxury goods or value-priced goods?)
- How do we craft international business strategy?
- How do we organize production operations, sourcing, and logistics?
- What does superior leadership look like in international business?

Organizing on the fiction side meant imagining characters and opportunities where discussion of business could be a logical outcome of the situation. I did not want to simply transfer lectures on IB from the lectern in my classroom to the pages of my book, and so I spent some time trying to minimize lecture by including a number of characters—often foreigners touring Egypt—who were in a position to reflect on their own business experience in a way that would shed light on other international business experiences. For example, one character is a general contractor who has built fast-food outlets for his company in the American Midwest. On the shuttle bus from the Cairo airport, he mentions his business, and is asked immediately by one of my young protagonists what his company would have to do differently if they were to migrate their business to Egypt. The result is some compelling reflections. Other characters with business tales include a female Chinese student whose family has businesses in California; a Mexican-American retailer who owns shoe stores in Long Island, New York; a Canadian engineer who is helping to bring a nimble, emerging-market cargo plane back into production; a Chicago-based lawyer who has been a serial entrepreneur; and a casino employee from Las Vegas. There is even an original diversity-in-the-workplace case study (“The Invisible Dr. Zhou”).

I started the first draft in the summer of 2010 and had a significant leg completed by the time the sabbatical unofficially began in December 2010. The final chapters were completed by the end of March 2011. The initial complete draft ran to over 200 thousand words—an artifact of having both significant business content and a complex tale to tell. The final edited manuscript ran to about 170-thousand words, a little over five-hundred published pages—still too long—but manageable, I thought, as an undergraduate “read” in the context of a fourteen-week semester, even as an ancillary reading to the regular textbook assignments.

I had begun shopping the book idea to business text publishing houses in 2009 and had received no encouragement, so by the time the book was finished in the spring of 2011, I was ready to begin querying regular literary agents. Happily, literary agents’ individual preferred methods of contact, query, and text submission are listed online. (I used an excellent site called AgentQuery.com.) From late March through the end of May, I contacted over sixty agents who accepted email queries, several of whom were surprisingly sympathetic and encouraging, despite the deadening aspects of the author’s-query side of their jobs—usually carried out at arm’s length by having editorial assistants do the reading. Despite my assiduousness, I did not have representation for my work when June came, let alone a contract to publish.

But also happily, over the previous two years, *The Wall Street Journal* had been running stories on the growth of the e-book and the on-demand publishing industry, and I had been reading them. In the same vein, a colleague who is president of the Ohio Valley Chapter of the National Society of Arts and Letters (the former chair of the English department at the institution where I teach) had been attending sessions at the Society’s national conference in Clearwater Beach, Florida, in Spring 2011, and had heard publisher’s

representatives urge writers to self-publish in the face of current publishing realities (Pridgeon, 2011). The burden of many of these stories was that publishers and agents have become overwhelmed. Slush piles (the repository of unsolicited manuscripts that publishers and agents receive from writers) have doubled in size in recent years, the economics of the publishing industry have made taking risks on unknown writers a very rare thing, and partially as a result of these two phenomena, the ‘vanity press’ label and onus has been peeled off self-publication in the contemporary literary world:

Writer Karen McQuestion spent nearly a decade trying without success to persuade a New York publisher to print one of her books. In July, the 49-year-old mother of three decided to publish it herself, online.

Eleven months later, Ms. McQuestion has sold 36,000 e-books through Amazon.com Inc.’s Kindle e-bookstore and has a film option with a Hollywood producer. In August, Amazon will publish a paperback version of her first novel

(Fowler and Trachtenberg, *The Wall Street Journal*, 2010, A1)

So, the question lingering at the back of my mind for two years—will anyone publish this manuscript in a timely fashion; that is, in time to use it in class for fall semester 2011?—was answered in the affirmative: Yes, *I* will.

The finished product, *Chaucer on the Nile: A Pilgrim’s Progress*, was published by CreateSpace, a company owned by Amazon.com, Inc. The costs to both CreateSpace and me were minimal: publication is on-demand, so the up-front costs for CreateSpace were negligible; the total costs to me for cover design, interior design, e-book formatting, and hand-holding were less than a thousand dollars.

Chaucer on the Nile is told from the point of view of a male American college student (Chaucer Jeffries) who is on a college-sponsored summer study-abroad trip to Egypt—Cairo, the Nile, the Red Sea—just months before the Mubarak regime implodes. International business professor Robert Bobbitt (“Dr. Bobs”) and ancient-history professor Florence Lowe (“Profflo”) accompany him and his classmates as teachers and chaperones. In Cairo, other tourists from the U.S., China, Mexico, Australia, Canada, and France join their group, and these have their own (often IB-related) tales to tell.

On the Nile, Chaucer discovers a flash drive in his backpack; its content appears to be fundamentalist jihadi propaganda. A contest for possession/recovery of the flash drive begins among parties known (the Amn al-Dawla—the thuggish internal secret police) and unknown (Sheikh Anwar, Gamel Sabah al-Weiki, Yusif Lawandy). Chaucer and his friends grapple with the flash drive’s purpose, and why it was planted on him. Their snooping leads to their being snatched and incarcerated. The conflict takes place against the background of a typical Egyptian tourist pilgrimage to the Pyramids, the Egyptian Museum in Tahrir Square, Nile temples and historic sites, the world-heritage site at Abu Simbel, and a Red Sea resort. —To my mind, all the makings of a ripping good yarn!

CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE TO DATE

The end-of-semester, “official” student evaluations of the international business course I offered in the past fall semester (which included the maiden voyage of *Chaucer on the Nile*) have not yet been made available by the central academic administration. Students complete these evaluations online, and then

the academic dean's office collects, calculates, and distributes aggregated results and individual student comments to instructors. However, two unofficial sources of student self-report information on the course are available: one, an anonymous self-report questionnaire that I fashioned and distributed in late October; and the second, face-to-face feedback to the instructor from students.

Anecdotal face-to-face comments, during class discussion and to the instructor after class, suggest that classroom discussants, and students who listened to the class discussion, valued *Chaucer* for its understanding and portrayal of the *complexity* of international business concepts and processes in the context of putting them into effect on the ground in a particular setting (Egypt). Students also expressed great appreciation for the way the novel accurately portrayed college-aged people and their concerns, particularly when interacting with each other and with persons from other cultures and countries abroad. Several students, were enthusiastic about the degree to which issues of cultural understanding arose as the novel's touring party encountered the Egyptian and Islamic "Other" on its home turf.

When the class had completed its reading and discussion of the novel, I administered a simple printed questionnaire of my own design. Chapters of *Chaucer* had been assigned for reading concurrent with chapters of the assigned IB textbook. This amounted to nine days of assignments from the novel, three chapters per assignment. In the 10th week of the semester, students were asked to fill out the brief anonymous-response questionnaire to determine the specific ways in which the reading this international business novel had been useful (or not), and whether the novel's contribution to student learning in the class made it worthwhile to assign the novel when the class was offered again. Each questionnaire item provided the opportunity to append a brief comment.

Thirty-five students completed and turned in the questionnaire. Thirty of them (roughly 86%) strongly agreed that the novel was a worthwhile addition to their learning of international business content in the class.

In the next two paragraphs I discuss the largest clusters of specific student responses in two groups: so-called "positive" responses (ones in which students indicated unequivocally that the novel added to their learning of IB content in the class) and "negative" responses (ones in which students indicated unequivocally that the novel did not add, or detracted, from their learning of IB content in the class).

One group of specific positive responses clustered around the idea that classroom discussion of the novel seriously enhanced the learning environment in the classroom. A majority of students reported that they enjoyed coming to class because they anticipated participating in these discussions (n = 21; 60%). A clear majority of students asserted that their learning of IB content had been enhanced by having the opportunity to discuss and listen to the discussion of others (n = 25; 71%). Another group of positive responses (n = 19; 54%) suggested that reading the novel made the IB material (and the class) more relevant, interesting, and lively than it would have been with just instructor lecture and class discussion of the textbook. A related group of positive responses/comments (n = 27; 77%) thought that studying international business concepts and processes in a particular country and setting, with specific characters, helped to make these concepts and processes more available and comprehensible.

The largest group of negative responses focused on issues of form rather than IB content. Half of student respondents (n = 17; 49%) said *Chaucer* was just too long to be enjoyable as an assigned text. A somewhat smaller group of responses (n = 7; 20%) indicated that although the story itself was enjoyable and absorbing, it did not focus enough on international business. A third group of negative comments (n

= 4; 11%) strongly agreed that *Chaucer* did nothing to make the international business class more relevant, interesting, or lively, and that the presentation of IB concepts and processes in the novel were no more interesting than those discussed in the textbook. A fourth group (n = 5; 14%) found at least some of the IB content in the novel boring, specifically, those parts where the IB professor's lectures are reported secondhand by the student narrator Chaucer Jeffries.

CONCLUSION

The student response data available to date are just too fragmentary to draw serious conclusions from them. More feedback will be available from the official student class evaluations and from using the novel next semester. It is gratifying to have over half the class react positively to use and discussion of the novel, and to have my own impressions validated by the obvious enjoyment of the class discussion by many students. However, I have no conclusive evidence to suggest that student knowledge retention was improved by this experiment. Student performance on exams did not differ significantly from previous semesters. I also incline to trust the responses that suggest the work, at 500-plus published pages, was just too long to hold the attention of many of the students taking the class.

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BIOGRAPHY

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SCENARIOS AND UNINTENDED CONSEQUENCES

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ABSTRACT

Unintended consequences litter the landscape of problem solving and decision making. Often, decisions are made and solutions are implemented in order to alleviate immediate negative conditions. However, little or no consideration is given to what unintended consequences that decision or solution might create in the future. Problem solving and decision making in the 21st century require a systems approach that anticipates future consequences—negative as well as positive. Scenario planning is a systematic tool that identifies those possible consequences in a world of uncertainty. It is an organized methodology, which provides a coherent and plausible picture of what the future might be. It allows exploration of different paths, based on forces such as the economy, the environment, globalization, culture, society, and language, which might affect the long terms results of decisions and solutions. This paper will provide a historical context for scenario thinking, describe existing global scenarios that can be used by organizations to develop scenarios, and provide an example of how scenario thinking can identify possible unintended consequences of solutions and decisions. By identifying signposts to monitor key changes, the probability of the occurrence of negative consequences can be evaluated, and interventions to mitigate the effects can be developed.

INTRODUCTION

Unintended consequences litter the landscape of problem solving and decision making. “How was I supposed to know?” is the plea when a solution yields a different result than the one intended, or yields unanticipated results as well as the intended one. The 21st century environment increasingly is creating a landscape that has landmines for strategic planning and risk management.

A problem is never completely solved because the act of solving it changes the system in which it existed. The longer the time required for implementation, the more those changes in the system can alter the effect of the solution on the system. Dörner (1996) argues that it is human to focus on the present and to assume that we can solve the new problems later.

We must learn that there is a lag time between the execution of a measure and its effect. We must learn to recognize “shapes” in time. We must learn that events have not only their immediate, visible effects but long-term repercussions as well. We also must learn to think in terms of systems. We must learn that in complex systems we cannot do only one thing. Whether we want it to or not, any step we take will affect many other things. We must learn to cope with side effects. We must understand that the effects of our decisions may turn up in places we never expected to see them surface. (p. 198)

Problem solving and decision making in the 21st century require a systems approach that anticipates consequences, both positive and negative, other than the one that is planned, especially in a time when those consequences can have ethical as well as economic elements. As companies adopt corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs, they are finding that such programs meant to solve problems may create new problems. For example, donations of food to a drought stricken nation may solve an immediate problem of lack of food, but if they do not take into account that there are farmers in the nation that need

to sell the crops they produced so they can plant again next year, the donations may mean the farmers, who can provide the long term solution, are put out of business.

Chermack (2004) cites four contributors to failed decisions: “1) bounded rationality, 2) a tendency to consider only external variables, 3) the stickiness and friction of information and knowledge, and 4) mental models that include decision premises or policies” (p. 296). Scenarios can help decision makers step outside their boundaries and models to re-perceive the decision and the forces that surround it. In a study of causes of success and failure of scenario planning interventions, Wright, van der Heijden, Burt, Bradfield, and Cairns (2008) found that when leaders’ decisions had moved them to a point where they felt bound by them, even though they were not successful, bringing in a consultant to do scenario thinking was not successful. It thus appears that scenarios need to be developed before a crisis happens to ensure that all parties engage in quality discussions and ask “What if?” questions. Then the scenarios can be used to work through the crisis or problem. This paper will provide a historical context for scenario thinking, describe global scenarios that already exist that can be used by organizations to develop scenarios, and provide an example of how scenario thinking can identify possible unintended consequences of solutions and decisions.

SCENARIO DEFINITION AND HISTORY

Definitions

Scenarios are compelling, vivid stories that allow the future to easily be seen in the reader’s mind. They should be negative or positive since business-as-usual scenarios rarely cause people to re-perceive their assumptions about the future. Each scenario must be memorable so that it is a filter when people are considering decisions. Each scenario must have enough detail about the steps that led up to the ending so that the person can identify the trends that must be monitored in order to support a positive scenario or derail a negative one. There should be one or two positive scenarios and one or two negative scenarios. Scenarios allow people to test possible actions by playing them out in three or four different scenarios. Schwartz (1991) says that an effective scenario

asks people to suspend their disbelief in its stories long enough to appreciate their impact. You know that a scenario is effective when someone, pondering an issue that has been taboo or unthinkable before, says, “Yes, I can see how that might happen. And what I might do as a result.” (p. 39)

In order to make that possible, scenarios must be believable. “The time horizon for scenarios must be short enough to create scenarios that are probable, but long enough for us to imagine that important changes with an impact on the future business can take place” (Lingren & Bandhold, 2003, p. 53).

Scenarios address the need for identifying possible consequences and exploring what forces in the system may influence the success of any solution. Scenarios can study possibilities in a world of great uncertainty; they are a tool for creating alternative future environments in which to test the future viability of today’s decisions particularly about implementing solutions to a problem. They are organized stories of specific possible futures for a specific organization. They allow exploration of different paths that an organization could follow into the future, and then identify what would need to happen on each path to lead to a desired goal. Scenario thinking is not unfamiliar to human beings. In fact, people often ask “What if?” when planning something important. For example, people plan alternative routes to work.

They identify certain places that will make them take an alternative if they see more traffic than normal. In sports, players think about their own plays as responses to the opponent's moves. Chess players think many moves ahead. Wayne Gretzky, a great hockey player, said he anticipated where the puck would be after a shot so that he was in place to meet it. He was able to do this by studying the plays of his opponents and knowing the area to which each one shot the puck under normal circumstances. Developing scenarios is a tool that helps people consider where the puck will be under different circumstances.

Scenarios Are Not Predictions

Scenarios are not predictions. Schwartz (1991) quotes an old Arab proverb that says, "he who predicts the future lies even if he tells the truth" and goes on to say, "Rather, scenarios are vehicles for helping people learn. Unlike traditional business forecasting or market research, they present alternative images; they do not merely extrapolate trends of the present" (p. 6). Instead, they ask what might change in the future that would impact today's decisions. Scenarios force executives and managers to consider the way current realities might change or mutate in the future and thus affect the goals set and the decisions made today. They also uncover possible unintended consequences of chosen actions.

To solve problems in an uncertain world, organizations need to be able to re-perceive—to question their assumptions about the way the world works, so that they can see the future more clearly. Because organizations have used the past to develop future plans, they may not realize that what worked in the past, whether it be consumers' behavior or suppliers' availability, will not work in the future. Using scenarios provide an easy way to evaluate the assumptions and biases behind goals and strategies. Scenarios can allow risks to be assigned to certain forces so that as the probability increases for a certain scenario to come to be, a contingency plan can be fleshed out.

Scenarios allow an organization to make choices in the present with an understanding of possible consequences of each of those choices. Using what is known in the present and what might happen in the future, the scenarios describe a coherent and plausible picture of what the future might be. They describe how an organization and its stakeholders might respond to the changing forces. By identifying what can happen, the organization is able to identify the signposts that will indicate that the probabilities of certain possibilities noted in the scenarios are increasing or decreasing.

Once developed, they are used to test decisions going forward. The scenario development process identifies what actions will be most beneficial or detrimental going forward, and what adjustments may need to be made as events unfold. In the midst of a continual onslaught of information and data, scenarios identify what information and trends are crucial to the future success of an organization, and thus what trends must be tracked.

HISTORY OF SCENARIOS

Hermann Kahn developed a model to think about the future as part of his work in military strategy at RAND corporation. He is responsible for first using the word "scenario," a Hollywood term for the script for a movie. Scenarios were used by after WWII to imagine what the enemy might be able to do in the future and plan contingencies to counter that. Today, the military develops electronic simulations that act as scenarios in which planners make decisions in real time crises in a changing landscape and understand from making decisions. Thus, they can evaluate decisions in the light of what consequences they might create in the future (Lingren & Banhold, 2003).

Shell International's use of scenarios started 50 years ago when Pierre Wack and his planning team considered what might happen to the price of oil, which had been stable since the end of WWII, after the 1967 Arab-Israeli war. Wack wrote a scenario describing the consequences of the energy crisis that would be the result of prices and production were controlled by a consortium. The scenario led the company to develop a contingency plan that would move it from heavy fuels, which could be replaced by coal and nuclear power to light fuels like gasoline, and would include investing in refining plants that could make lighter fuels. The scenario identified signposts to track in the oil producing countries. When the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) consolidated its power over the oil market in retaliation for the West supporting Israel, Royal/Dutch Shell was prepared. After the Yom Kippur War in fall of 1973, an oil shortage followed and prices soared. Shell had already implemented its new strategy and moved from seventh to third in global oil company rankings (Schwartz, 1991).

Royal Dutch/Shell

In 1983, Royal Dutch/Shell was considering building a platform to extract natural gas from a field in the North Sea. It asked its current scenario team to write scenarios about the viability of the project, since it had a requirement for its return on investment (ROI), to look for possible consequences of developing the field. The scenario planning team realized that since the customers would be European countries, the future of the USSR would affect the profitability of the field. If the direction of Russia's government changed and ended the Cold War, the restrictions on how much European countries could purchase from Russia, which had the world's 2nd largest reserves of natural gas, would be lifted. Royal Dutch/Shell's research determined that Russia's labor force and birthrate were declining, its population was aging, and its productivity was declining. One scenario told a story of a person in Russia who could convince his country that rapprochement with the West was an extension of Lenin and Stalin's ideas. Royal Dutch/Shell began tracking its identified signposts and noted when Russia's factories fell into disrepair and when a person named Mikhail Gorbachev couched his economic and political ideas as being aligned with Lenin's New Economy. Thus, Royal Dutch/Shell anticipated the fall of the Berlin Wall many months before it happened, and, since it did not know if Western companies would be invited in to help Russia develop the country's oil and gas deposits, it delayed developing the North Sea gas field. Only after it determined that Russian oil and gas would not be available in the near future, did it move forward. Its strategic decision allowed it to make its required return on investment (Schwartz, 1991).

JDS Uniphase Corp

JDS Uniphase Corp, a company that designs and produces optical communication instruments, began using scenarios in 2004; each spring, executives consider three potential sales scenarios. In 2008, a worst-case scenario allowed the company to be proactive in responding to what appeared to be an economic downturn. Sales people found customers becoming cautious, and JDS shipped more orders than it booked in the quarter ending Sept. 27.

In October, the company announced it would kill some products, combine two of its four segments, shift more manufacturing to contractors, and shut three factories along with seven research-and-development sites, eliminating 400 jobs. . . . In the quarter ended Dec. 27, revenue fell for the first time in the downturn, by 11%, to \$357 million. In January, the company said it would shut operations for one week each quarter, suspend its matching contribution to employee

401(k) plans, and require senior managers to take extra unpaid days off. In February, JDS said it would sell a factory in China and shift more U.S. production to contract manufacturers.

In all, the moves cut roughly one-third of JDS's 6,700 employees and reduced annual operating expenses by \$120 million. The company continued to generate cash, despite a projected 15% decline in revenue in the fiscal year ended June 27. (Tuna, 2009, para. 9)

Paul J. H. Schoemaker, research director of the Wharton School's Innovation, cited an example of successful strategic decision-making based on scenarios involving a large global industrial goods company; one of the scenarios dealt with possible outcomes of the 2009 election in Iran. When chaos erupted after the election, executives already had thought through how they might respond in the scenarios.

The impact on decision-making represents a perfect illustration of how so-called scenario planning techniques can be used to help managers navigate in complex and uncertain environments. . . . Pulling out the notes from these discussions, they already knew their options and had a view on how they would like to respond. In many ways, they were prepared—and already one-step ahead of some other companies. (“Eyes wide open,” 2009, para. 2)

BUSINESS RESPONSES TO SCENARIOS

Schoemaker sees companies responding to the chaos of the future in three ways. In the first, no long-term decisions are made and the company is in a holding pattern. In the second, the company bets on a favorable future that it likes, but the decisions may be disastrous if the future is not the envisioned one. In the third, a company identifies what can be known and what cannot be known and uses it

. . . as a basis for exploring many possible futures—in other words, developing scenarios rather than predictions. This approach differs from the first two primarily in that it is a much more open mindset, with a focus on agility and options. Yet it also is in many ways the most challenging to adopt. “It takes courage to admit our collective ignorance,” Schoemaker says, “because it conflicts with our common notion of leadership, which prizes omniscience. However, our world is too complex for the heroic leadership of the past where a great leader rides up on a white horse and points the way to the future. A better approach now is to embrace uncertainty and examine it in detail to discover where the hidden opportunities lurk.” (“Eyes wide open,” 2009, para. 2)

The use of scenarios has ebbed and flowed with the health of the economy and the financial success of companies. “Shell’s success with the scenario planning approach also encouraged the majority of the Fortune 1000 companies to adopt scenarios in one way or another during the 1970s” (Lingren & Bandhold, 2003, p. 37). An unintended consequence for using this forward thinking tool that was helpful in downturns, was that in the recession in the 1980s, companies lost the creative people needed to write scenarios due to budget cuts, and brought back traditional forecasting. The tectonic shifts in the global business environment in the past fifteen years have renewed interest in using scenarios as a means of making better decisions.

A 2008 McKinsey Global survey revealed that business executives see scenario planning as an important strategy in succeeding in a global environment where information comes from all sides and where sudden changes in global forces can have catastrophic consequences.

Almost 70 percent of the executives agree that global trends have become more or much more important to corporate strategy over the past five years. . . . A wide difference exists between assigning importance to trends and taking active steps to address them (something we also found in previous surveys). For example, while around 75 percent of the responders say that a faster pace of technological innovation and the increasing availability of knowledge will have an impact—positive or negative—on their companies' profits, just over 50% have done something about either of those two trends. ("How Companies Act," 2008, p. 4)

A 2010 McKinsey report said that more executives are acting on key global forces today. Three fourths of the executives surveyed said that they were addressing the shift from developed-market countries to emerging-market countries, two-thirds said they were addressing the connectedness of the global economy, and one-half said they were addressing the collision between rising demand for resources and constrained supplies (Bisson, Stephenson, & Viguerie, 2010).

One only has to review the recent economic chaos to realize how useful a scenario that detailed such a downturn would have been for individuals, individual companies, governments, and global corporations. It would have identified all the possible consequences of certain actions in response to a recession. A negative scenario would have detailed the environment in which one would need to act, and would have allowed consideration of possible decisions proactively instead of reactively. Having that scenario would have identified signposts that could have been tracked to see if the probability of certain events happening was increasing. Once a threshold was reached, a contingency plan could have been implemented. New hires or new office space or new ventures would have been delayed. As it was, few people knew what to look for in the myriad of available data, and even when it became obvious that the economy was souring, few had a plan to implement to minimize its negative effects. More importantly, because few companies have developed positive scenarios, they do not know what to look for in the current environment, so they may be missing excellent opportunities because of fear.

The 2010 McKinsey survey revealed that few executives acted on any of the trends they thought might be important. When responders did act, "few companies seem to be capturing all the opportunities or addressing all the risks presented by the trends on which they act" ("How Companies Act," 2008, p. 5). If companies had had scenarios that identified forces that they knew directly affected their operations, they would have known what trends to track. The scenarios would have allowed risk management to be based on data showing increased probabilities of events taking place.

In the global environment the stability of a government and its regulations on workplace safety and worker rights, on environmental safeguards, and on tariffs are key factors in whether a company should locate in a country. Even if the need is only for suppliers, these issues will affect prices. The Arab Spring has brought freedom to people, but how the government is reconstructed will have a major affect on how business will be done. If the price of oil increases, the price of fuel will increase and thus the price of transportation. A company that could track the factors that would increase the price of oil might change its business model and find suppliers closer to its base, or move its base closer to its suppliers, if the country in which the suppliers existed had customer demand. Despite the economic problems in the United States and European Union, American businesses in 2011 are very profitable because they have found markets in other countries.

IDENTIFYING FORCES THAT LEAD TO CONSEQUENCES

There are global scenarios that are already written and available for companies to use. Royal/Dutch Shell, the U.S. National Intelligence Council (NIC) and the World Economic Forum (WEF) have developed scenarios based on data and a global perspective.

World Economic Forum Scenarios

According to the World Economic Forum:

The scenario stories in this report have a very broad scope and are intended to increase our understanding of the various uncertainties regarding the future of the global financial architecture. Such high-level scenarios can provide a useful framework for posting more detail about an organization's specific external environment at the country, industry, or even product-line level. Used purposefully, scenarios can:

- enhance a strategy's robustness by indentifying and challenging underlying assumptions
- allow better strategic decisions by discovering and framing uncertainties, leading to a more informed understanding of the risks involved with substantial and irreversible commitments and promoting strong and pre-emptive corporate positioning
- improve awareness of change by shedding light on the complex interplay of underlying drivers and critical uncertainties, and enhancing sensitivity to weak and/or early signals of significant changes ahead
- increase preparedness and agility in coping with the unexpected and by making it possible to visualize possible futures and mentally rehearse responses
- facilitate collaborative action by providing different stakeholders with common languages and concepts in a non-threatening context. (World Economic Forum, 2009a, p. 77)

Its four financial scenarios are *Financial Regionalism*, in which companies must work strategically with three major trade and financial blocs; *Fragmented Protectionism*, in which companies face individual countries' controls and regulations; *Re-engineered Western-centrism*, in which companies operate in a homogenous world that is always one crisis behind in its regulations; and *Rebalanced Multilateralism*, in which companies compete in a world of shifting geo-economic power, but one that is open to trade. It has also published specific scenarios on China, India, Russia, and the Gulf States, as well as scenarios on demographic shifts, engineering and construction, and technology and innovation. For example in *China and the World: Scenarios to 2025*, there are three scenarios: *Regional Ties* describes China's success at reform and overcoming historical regional enmities; *Unfulfilled Promise* describes China's failure to enact structural reforms necessary for economic development; *New Silk Road* describes a China that has flourished economically and culturally in a peaceful integration in the global community (World Economic Forum, 2009b).

U.S. National Intelligence Council Scenarios

The U.S. National Intelligence Council (NIC) began publishing global scenarios in 1997 *Global Trends 2000*, and published *Global Trends 2015* in 2000, *Global Trends: Mapping the Global Future* in 2004, and *Global Trends 2025: A Transformed World* in 2008. The scenarios focus on the global economy driven by technology, the changes in political power, the effects of democratization and the power of tribes and religion, as well as the rising power of developing nations.

In the introduction to *Global Trends 2025: A Transformed World*, C. Thomas Fingar, Chairman, National Intelligence Council, says:

By examining a small number of variables that we judge probably will have a disproportionate influence on future events and possibilities, the study seeks to help readers to recognize signposts indicating where events are headed and to identify opportunities for policy intervention to change or lock in the trajectories of specific developments. Among the messages we hope to convey are: “If you like where events seem to be headed, you may want to take timely action to preserve their positive trajectory. If you do not like where they appear to be going, you will have to develop and implement policies to change their trajectory.” For example, the report’s examination of the transition out of dependence on fossil fuels illustrates how different trajectories will entail different consequences for different countries. An even more important message is that leadership matters, no trends are immutable, and that timely and well-informed intervention can decrease the likelihood and severity of negative developments and increase the likelihood of positive ones. (National Intelligence Council, 2008, para. 2)

The document is based on predetermined forces that are relatively certain such as the emergence of a multipolar system, the continuing shift in wealth from West to East, continuing economic growth that will create pressure on energy, food, and water resources, the increasing potential for conflict in the Middle East, especially if the youth unemployment is not reduced, and the continuance of the United States as a powerful, if less dominant, country. The uncertain forces include the pace of the energy shift from oil and gas, the speed of climate change and its effects, the shift of China and Russia from state capitalism to democracy, the effect of a nuclear Iran on its neighbors, and the outcomes of transformed geopolitics. In *Global Scenario I: A World Without the West*, the United States withdraws from Central Asia, the Shanghai Cooperation Organization becomes more important than NATO, and the lack of any stable bloc adds to instability that could threaten globalization. In *Global Scenario II: October Surprise*, governments must consider drastic action as a result of the destruction caused by climate change, such as relocating coastal cities. In *Global Scenario III: BRIC’s Bust-Up*, conflict between China and India over access to natural resources develops into global conflict. In *Global Scenario IV: Politics is Not Always Local*, digital communication and growing economies allow nonstate groups like NGOs, businesses, and religious groups to gain power.

Royal/Dutch Shell

Royal/Dutch Shell developed scenarios in 1992, 1995, and 1998 that “all featured a market-centric world (New Frontiers, People Power, and Just Do It!) as well as an alternative world giving more room to social and community aspirations” (Shell International Limited, 2005, p. 9). In 2005, Shell International published *Global Scenarios to 2025: The Future Business Environment: Trends, Trade-offs and Choices*. It poses a “Trilemma: Triple Dilemma” by asking how (1) Efficiency, perceived as market incentives, (2) Security, perceived as coercion and regulation, and (3) Social Cohesion and Justice, perceived as the force of the community, would be resolved in a future globalized world. Shell proposes three major global scenarios in which a business may find itself in the 21st century. *Low Trust Globalization: Carrots and Sticks*, based on Efficiency and Security, focuses on regulation of competition by the state where barriers to entry are high and security of citizens is paramount. *Open Doors: Incentives and Bridges*, based on Efficiency, and Social Cohesion and Justice, focuses on governance that values accountability for private and public sectors, which then allows global business to thrive. *Flags: Nations & Causes*, based on Social Cohesion and Justice, and Security, focuses on gated communities that value self-sufficiency and

value national security and sovereignty rule, and distrust globalization (Shell International Limited, 2005).

THE SCENARIO DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

How does a company develop scenarios that can be used to identify possible consequences of implementing solutions to problems and making decisions? The first step is to define the forces that are important to the stakeholders involved in the solution or decision; they are those forces that, if they behaved differently than anticipated, would affect the planned outcome. These are forces that can create opportunities and threats. The global scenarios above provide information on these forces and how they might act in the future.

Example: Fictitious Company A

Company A makes irrigation equipment and has identified a market in a developing country. The country has a problem. Its current food production cannot support its population because lack of water at correct times causes crops to fail. Before making a decision about whether its irrigation equipment could solve this problem, the company would want to investigate the causes of the problem. The causes could be poor soil, lack of rain, lack of access to water sources (lakes, rivers), lack of good seeds, or government policy that exports food rather than using it for its people. Irrigation equipment would not solve the problem if these are the causes. However, if there is normal rainfall to sustain agriculture or if the government could develop a treaty on the use of water from a lake or river other countries also border, then improved irrigation could make a difference; farmers could pay for the irrigation equipment with increased income. Then it could use the global scenarios published by NIC, WEF, or Shell to study what the major forces might look like going forward.

Environment

Has the lack of water occurred often in the past? If so, is it because the population has grown or because the country is in a drought cycle or because it is slowly become more desert like? If it is a cycle, when does the cycle normally turn? If this is a new occurrence, is water from a river being diverted for industry or by another country? What is happening in countries bordering on this country? The NIC and WEF have data on what countries may have water scarcity in the future, and whether this is due to lack of rainfall, lack of water resources within the country, or other countries cutting off water supply for their own use.

Economy

What is the economy of this developing country? How much is devoted to agriculture? Does the country export crops? If there is industry, is industry using more water now than in the past? Is the economy diversified enough to weather this drought and survive until the next harvest, perhaps with some immediate assistance? If the economy has industry, are plants or factories taking more water than they have in the past?

Government and Politics

Is the government stable? What is the government doing to solve the problem? If so, is it run by leaders who have demonstrated a concern for their people or is it a corrupt government that typically ignores the problems of the poor? If the government is not corrupt, do the government leaders have the resources and power to help solve the problem? Are there grants available for farmers to improve their harvest with better irrigation? If another country has dammed the river, does the government have enough power to negotiate water rights? Is there any indication that local governments would decide on cooperative irrigation systems rather than individual systems?

Population

Has the population been increasing in the past years? If so, why? Is there conflict that has sent refugees to this country? Will the increase in population be temporary? Where does the population live? Is it rural or have people been moving to the cities? Are fewer farmers feeding more people who live in the cities? Is city growth using more water than in the past?

Infrastructure

Does the country have a good infrastructure? Does it have good roads? Does it have warehouses to store agricultural products? Does it have trucks and trains that could move produce from places where there is water to grow crops to the cities? Does it have a sound financial system? Are there banks that could make loans to farmers if this lack of water is temporary? Could farmers be granted loans to buy equipment from the company? Do the citizens have electricity or any type of power grid? If so, is it only in the cities?

Resources

Does the country have resources that it is exporting so that it does not need to export agricultural products? Does it have the capacity to create a demand for more of those resources on the global market? Does it have the capacity to buy enough food to feed the population in the short term as farmers are improving the irrigation systems? What are the farmers doing now about supplying their fields with water? Is it possible that pipes or waterways are leaking? Is there any use of renewable resources such as solar or wind to provide power? Would new irrigation have access to electricity, generators or only foot power?

Culture/Social

Are there social or tribal issues such as a caste system that leaves poor farmers powerless? Is there a growing middle class or a government that is focused on industry at the expense of farming because it thinks it can import the food it needs? If there is a growing middle class, is the food problem because the population is eating more food that requires more water? Are agricultural acreages being turned over to grazing to produce more meat rather than grains and vegetables?

Technology

What technology is available in the country? Since it is a developing country and one could assume that electricity is not abundant, are there cell phones that can be used for communication? Do the farmers have equipment that must be maintained? Do the farmers use fertilizers that require land to lay fallow or genetically altered seeds that may not provide a future seed bank? If so, what percentage of their profit goes to maintaining equipment, fuel, and fertilizers? Do they have access to computers so they can communicate with experts on plant diseases?

SAMPLE SCENARIO FOR FICTITIOUS COMPANY

A scenario is a narrative that places the writer in the future. Each scenario can be positive or negative; for purposes of the assignment, there should be two positive and one negative or two negative and one positive. The first two or three paragraphs of each scenario should describe the organization as it exists in 2020. It might begin:

It is 2020, and developing country's water shortages are a thing of the past. Water storage facilities now assure that water is available even in times of drought. A result of a partnership between the government and Company A, the storage facilities are required to maintain a reserve based on historical needs during drought. The partnership has also developed irrigation systems that capture rainwater rather than letting it run off, and have sensors to indicate when the crops need water. The government has developed regulations on industry growth and use of water and water plans to ensure that the arable land needed for crop production is available.

Once the first part of a scenario is written, the question becomes, "If this scenario became reality, how did we get there?" The second part of the scenario describes that path and the new decisions that had to be made in the process of implementing the original solution or decisions. Working backward from the future of the scenario to the present decision creates a map that allows us to see possible consequences.

Company A realized that the county it was considering for expansion, could have enough water to grow crops to feed its population, but it did not have a system to save water during the rainy season. Farmers were irrigating at the wrong time of day, and the system of trenches was allowing water to evaporate. However, it also learned that the farmers were poor and did not have access to loans nor did they have enough money to buy irrigation systems. Company A also realized that the drought conditions felt by this country was also a problem for neighboring countries, so population shifted between countries depending on conditions. The possibility of further droughts in the future was increasing. Thus Company A decided that the only way to expand to the country, and perhaps then to the region, was through a partnership with the government.

In 2011 that looked like a low probability. The government was not stable, and there was upheaval in the political arena. Many thought that the economy could survive by exporting manufacturing goods and importing food. One consequence of this thinking could be that more of the existing water would be funneled to manufacturing by the government and there would be less for farmers, who would then make even less profit. Another consequence that Company A saw in bringing in irrigation systems was that only those farmers who had money already could afford the systems. As they became more efficient, many poor farmers would lose their livelihood

and move into the cities. Company A conjectured that this would have a negative impact on the entire economic system which was precarious because its manufacturing sector was not strong.

However, by 2013, the continued global downturn made people realize that the market for manufactured goods was stagnant, and food prices were increasing because transportation was increasing as the new governments in North Africa brought oil exports back slowly. A new set of leaders began to focus on infrastructure and becoming more self-sufficient. Food production was a priority. Company A set up meetings with the leaders to look at irrigation systems. Company executives wanted a partnership with the government that would provide government assistance to build water storage units and provide grants to farmers to set them up with irrigation systems, because the executives feared that the economic issues would not provide enough demand. They also feared that even though farmers could get loans, they would not be able to pay off the loans quickly enough if there was another drought before storage units could be built and filled. The executives also wanted the storage units to be controlled by the government, not the private sector, to insure that farmers would receive what they needed at a fair price. Company A also realized that the infrastructure necessary to support irrigation would not be developed for two or three years so it invested in foot pedal systems that did not need electricity or generators.

By 2016, there was some success. Company A had watched carefully a growing conflict between the country and one of its neighbors who wanted to dam up a river that the irrigation system depended on. The company actually stopped installing irrigation systems until the two countries agreed on a plan to share water. Part of the agreement was that Company A would expand its business to the second country, although it had doubts about its ability to expand that quickly and also concerns about the government in the other country. It continued the bulk of its work in the first country, and worked with farmers in the second country that were close to the border.

Company A monitored global warming, pollution, rainfall numbers, and population numbers. It monitored how much water was being diverted to industry. It also monitored the development of new seeds that needed less water. Research showed that water was wasted if there were low spots in fields, so it helped farmers find ways to level their fields. It also monitored food prices and the kinds of food the growing population in the cities were eating.

By 2018, it had expanded into four countries in the region, and was manufacturing its systems there. It had developed a local maintenance force. In one country, it slowed sales because the data showed the government was favoring manufacturing in water pricing and use. The company representatives, studying trends, also realized that many farmers were considering planting crops that required considerably more water than those they had been growing because the farmers knew they could get higher prices for those crops. Company A produced charts and graphs showing that one consequence of the shift would be that the staple grains would need to be imported and that the increase in water use would mean an increase in prices, since the country's water supply was certainly not excessive, and thus farmers could have less income than more. It also showed how another drought, which the region could easily have, would mean the farmers could not grow the new crops at all.

The third step in preparing the scenarios for future use is to select signposts to monitor changes in the key forces established as important in the scenario. Sources of information and data are identified. Much as information from weather satellites and radar is used to measure the probability of a tropical storm

becoming a hurricane, these signposts are the key sources of information that are important to achieving the organization's strategic goal. Once the indicators are identified, the increasing or decreasing probability of their impact can be calculated, as the future becomes the present. Being proactive rather than reactive allows decisions and actions that can diminish or thwart a negative consequence or support a positive consequence. A solution can be halted if the signposts say that the probability of a negative consequence is growing. A plan can be altered to adapt to a change in forces that was not part of the scenario.

In the case of Company A, that would be needed to track the indicators are then chosen so that, as the probability increases that a particular scenario is becoming reality, the new strategy can be implemented. Obviously, seeing a change in government coming that would nationalize companies could help the company extract itself from a country. Tracking the development of crops that change color when they need water, or cheap desalination plants, or collection of water from fog, could mean changes in the future of the business, particularly if any of those were happening in neighboring countries that might make importing food cheaper than growing it. In developing countries, the speed of infrastructure growth can change with leaders. It can be bogged down in corrupt policies. It can be derailed because competing projects gain strength. All of these could have negative consequences that would derail the best-case scenario, but if they are watched carefully, they can be contained.

CONCLUSION

If different scenarios are developed detailing what the future might be as best case and worst case, then it is possible to evaluate the consequences of implementing a program or solution in the future. Not only can unintended consequences be uncovered, there will be signposts for positive and negative trends that can be identified. By then watching for the signposts, interventions can be implemented when a negative trend is gaining strength and support can be made available for positive trends.

Building scenarios that can answer "What if?" allows the problem solvers to practice the implementation of the solution before it goes "live." They allow the problem solvers to identify possible consequences, especially negative ones, early enough to then watch for them and intervene early enough that they do no harm. With this ability to monitor changes, the probability of negative consequences occurring can be evaluated, allowing for interventions that will mitigate the effects of negative consequences, especially if they have ethical considerations, and allow an organization to continue to succeed.

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RECOGNIZING COMMON SENSE LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE 21ST CENTURY ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is call for further academic conversations into how to recognize common sense leadership as it relates to the 21st century organization. This qualitative study was performed from July 29th through December 7th, 2010, which involved 26 participants from across the United States who were identified as senior leaders in their organization. These executives indicated that common sense leadership is a multi-pronged approach that requires flexibility to address both the needs and desires of the organization in conjunction with those of the members of the organization. Participants concluded that common sense decision making requires a sense of morality that sometimes supersedes organizational performance and profitability. Finally, study participants strongly believe that employee motivation that encompasses goal attainment and decision making, through a sense of morality, are important benchmarks in being a common sense leader.

JEL: M1

KEYWORDS: Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Common Sense

INTRODUCTION

Much like the definition of leadership, there is not one common word or phrase that seems to best describe what common sense is all about, just what attributes are encompassed in that term. Our study sought to find broad categorizations of what common sense can be identified as encompassing among senior leaders across multiple disciplines and various locations across the United States. The following summarizes the findings of those who took part in this initial inquiry, which then can be used as a starting part for further dialogue among those who might pioneer this concept ahead.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The study started out with the assumption there must be a common set of terminology that could be used to define common sense as it relates to organizations. After reviewing the literature, conversing with colleagues, and considering the data collected, the researchers discovered this is an impossible task to complete. The one certainty about the definition of common sense leadership is there is no single quantifiable measurement that could tell us how to define the term but everyone seems to recognize its attributes in practice much like one could differentiate the famous contour design of the Coca-Cola bottle from one that came from one of its competitors. Common sense leadership follows the same pattern because people can tell you what it is without being able to correlate the term to a single benchmark or paradigm.

Observations were made following leadership conferences in Eastern Europe in the early 21st century that attendees were eager to embrace a Western leadership style but often did not show their comprehension of how such principles could be applied in a practical, organizational setting. Much of this resistance was because of the participant's past experiences in a Communist worldview setting where such an approach was forbidden. Even after democratic reforms were initiated, the old paradigm of leadership could not be easily shaken from emerging organizational leaders who openly stated they wanted to find a new paradigm to do their business but did not know where to begin the process.

Further observations among United States leadership conference attendees, whom had already practiced the skills that the Eastern Europe attendees hoped for, seemed to show a similar pattern of participants wanting to embrace a different style. Yet, barriers seemed to be in place so the application of new paradigms was hindered. It appeared that while there was a will to make an organizational leadership style change, there was a missing element that did not allow these leaders to take the principles learned from theory into practice. A final consideration was the plethora of styles that are available for leaders to emulate in their organizations. Beginning with Taylor and the scientific management movement (1890-1940), followed by Weber's bureaucratic management approach (1930-1950), and then Mayo and Roethlisberger (Hawthorne study), McGregor (Theory X and Theory Y), and other notable researchers involvement in the human relations movement studies (1930-today).

What seemed to connect these observations to the researchers was the notion of common sense and its ability to serve as the hitching mechanism to connect individuals and their organizations to the desired principle of operations. Without common sense, it seemed the parties could appreciate the appearance of the desired principles from a distance but could not have a full connection to them in order to move the paradigm forward personally or organizationally.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a literature gap involving common sense and the areas of leadership and organizational behavior in general. The topic is mostly identified within the context of the political arena and whether someone's actions are appropriate or not. However, since 2000, the notion of common sense leadership as it relates to organizational behavior is almost a quiet topic by theorists in the field.

Fletcher (1984) believed common sense is a component of common understandings about the environment consisting of three points. First, common sense unites underlying presuppositions about the environment (Goodwin, 2009). Second, common sense consists of a group of shared opinions about the environment (Goodwin). Finally, common sense is a shared "way of thinking" about the environment (Fletcher, 1984, p. 204).

Salter and Highhouse (2009) relate common sense within the context of situational judgment. They note there are eight schools of thought in this area starting with File (1945) and continuing through Brooks and Highhouse (2006); Motowidlo, Hooper, and Jackson (2006); and Stemler and Sternberg (2006). Salter and Highhouse note there is a commonality in how each of these scholars defined situational judgment such that "good judgment does not exist in a vacuum; it usually occurs in the context of other people or situations" (p. 394). The Situational Leadership Model, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, postulated that leaders maximize their opportunity for success by adapting style to the specific situation based on the skills, abilities and desires of the followers (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 2007; Newstrom & Davis,

2007; Pechlivanidis & Katsimpra, 2004). The seminal research seems to point to the notion that there is a connection between common sense and its relationship with familiar experiences of people in a grouping. Salter and Highhouse (2009) further state that situational judgment (what this study calls common sense) is a qualitative determination where factual and procedural knowledge are used to discover how others will respond to various circumstances. This is perhaps why there are differing definitions of what common sense is given it is not a measure that can be quantified because of its amoebic, ever changing nature. What might be considered common sense by one person now may not be deemed as such by later investigations because of what Polanyi (1960) called *tacit knowledge* or what one learns from past experiences, which are not always quantified or recorded for later review.

Moon (2009) relates the importance of common sense study to change management particulars. He links the need for common sense as a means to “pass stakeholders’ common sense ‘sniff tests’” (p. 518). Moon further notes “stakeholders are less likely to adopt change when their common sense perspectives are violated” (p. 518). Kaler (2006) believes that properly managing stakeholders for any kind of an organization focuses on the ability to address the needs of more than corporate profits and the growth of shareholder wealth. Managing in the 21st century requires a much broader thinking concerning the ramifications that organizational decisions have on the overall environment (Harrison & St. John, 1996). Effective management of a wide range of stakeholders requires leaders to identify each type of stakeholder that could influence the direction of the organization and their specific expectations (Harrison & St. John, 1996). Rigsby and Greco (2003) believe that leaders with a creative and unique vision look beyond the obvious needs of the organization towards an uncharted future. Leaders that fail to recognize the tangible and intangible future of any stakeholder, individual, group or environment creates a detrimental atmosphere where failure becomes a possibility (Wallace, 1995). Thus, common sense becomes a benchmark that is “so clearly self-evident and to think/do otherwise would obviously be folly” (Moon, personal communication, April 28, 2011). In this context, common sense then becomes a group norm that is transformed from what one person thinks to something that is embraced by other members of the organization.

Clawson (2009) believes that one needs to consider common sense from a broader perspective because “managers who are unable to review and adjust their common sense are not likely to be effective managers locally or globally” (p. 470) He notes the reason why leaders cannot come to a firm definition is because “people draw conclusions based on vague values, assumptions, beliefs, and expectations they have about the way the world is or should be” (Clawson, personal communication, April 26, 2011). Clawson also sees common sense as being a local or global perspective rather than something identified by all who understand the term (2011).

Rausch (2009) notes that while there have been myriad leadership publications a general consensus on the meaning of common sense has not been reached among scholars and practitioners. What can be agreed on, though, is there is a positive relationship between common sense and how one is thought to make sound decisions on any given matter (Rausch). That is accomplished in the organizational setting through the communication of the leaders’ values.

Zhao (2009) makes an important observation on common leadership when he notes, as others, that it seems the common sense is a self-evident concept espoused by practitioners, which then ends further discussion. However, opinions about what the term *common sense* includes are more “about effectiveness, not about science” (Zhao, 2009, p. 449). Zhao goes on to connect those who are proponents of common

sense leadership to a “response to arbitrary and bureaucratic management, and useless complicated or dogmatic procedures” (p. 449).

What is interesting in the literature is common sense is recognized as having an imprint on organizational behavior (Goodwin, 2009; Moon, 2009; Rausch, 2009; Salter & Highhouse, 2009; and Zhao, 2009). However, common sense serves as an intangible qualifier that people can see the effects of without being able to hold it in their hands, much like the wind. Yet, common sense is no less important to organizational survival and the ability of managers to make prudent decisions that could lead to success or failure based on how these actors are implemented and grasped by their followers.

STUDY BACKGROUND

This qualitative study on recognizing common sense as it relates to the 21st century organization was performed from July 29th through December 7th, 2010. It involved 26 participants who were identified as senior leaders in their organization (Vice-President and higher on the organizational chart). The convenience sample included individuals from both the public and private sector and included leaders from information technology, insurance, investment, legal services, manufacturing, marketing, public utilities, real estate, restaurants, and staffing. Participants were polled from Georgia (50%), Nevada (23%) and other regions of the United States (Alabama, Connecticut, Florida, Maryland, Minnesota, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania); using SurveyMonkey.com as the platform for them to record their complete comments.

FINDINGS

It was not difficult for these senior-level leaders to identify how common sense leadership was recognized by them, although there was no single broad category that could be used to delineate the meaning of the term. Instead, three predominant groupings were produced from the data, which seemed to guide the participants' perceptions of what common sense leadership means in their organizational setting: (a) goal setting, (b) decision making, and (c) motivation.

Goal setting

Opinions about common sense as they relate to operational issues fell within three broad groupings: mission, vision, and purpose. Within those areas, participants identified two specific subsets: recognition and getting back to basics.

Recognition

Participants noted that common sense starts within the proper mindset of what is happening in the organization. CS7 opined that meant the leader needs to have an “innate ability to recognize issues and processes within a business structure and address them accordingly”. That perspective was echoed by CS23 added that commons sense realizes this in the context of “social environments in which a person operates. Common sense includes a personal feel for the operations of a business, knowledge of the external environment in which the business exists, and understanding of the social dynamics that exist within the organization”. In other words, common sense operates within an amoebic kind of environment where all parts are connected, blended together, and flowing together in tandem within the parameters of mission, vision, and purpose. CS13 adds, “Since the state of man is such that he is constantly searching

to find his meaning and purpose, common sense would dictate that a leader be able to provide/communicate, in part, this meaning and purpose to the individual in an organization”.

Other participants in this study noted a similar connection as they saw how common sense relates to “the absolute understanding of your business model and processes (CS25). CS8 attributed common sense to the leader’s “ability to assess reality”. CS20 viewed the pursuit of using common sense in the context of “vision expressed daily. Efficiency tweaked daily. Productivity measured daily. Relevance to customer needs examined daily”. Common sense then would be bounded by observing what has been done in the past, looking to what the organization is experiencing now, and looking to the realities of the future in almost a simultaneous set of activities by the leader.

The notion of common sense was also framed within the ideal of knowing what tools are available to the leader. CS26 defined this area as “a set of mental tools that guide a person through the decision process to a point where the obstacles have been analyzed, potential solutions have been outlined with different consequences thought through, and then reasoning the way to the best solution”. Instead of describing a situation where one tool fits all leaders, common sense then would seem to relate to the recognition that there are differing ways to use those devices and arrive at varying solutions, which may be beneficial to the organization. At least that is what CS26 seems to indicate when it was opined that leaders in the 21st century “will have to accommodate people in leadership positions who have a different common sense matrix than has been thought of as traditional common sense”. The reason why that may be true is best described by CS13 who posited that “common sense is that set of intuitions, biases, and perceptions which are taken for granted by the one who possesses them”. If one thinks that a leadership tool has only one use then there may be a surprise when that device ends up having different uses by those who do not see common sense leadership within a narrow set of definitions. However, the study of leadership is challenged because CS26 also noted that “what makes it harder is that we now have two generations who have developed a different sort of common sense as a result of a different upbringing”. Intergenerational differences need to be considered when determining what is or is not defined as common sense leadership in the 21st century.

Back to Basics

Aligned with mission, vision, and purpose issues are where participants felt common sense leadership begins in an organization. CS3 sees the genesis of such understanding starting by “getting back to the basics of setting measurable and attainable goals”. Only when the leader knows their true north coordinates will the organization be able to know the clear direction they want to follow without being distracted by alternative opinions from those who are following an outdated map of operations. CS25 added that common sense is more than just the leader knowing where the organization is heading but they also possess “the ability to know that all processes and functions are working properly or improperly. This applies to everything from software to human resources”. When a leader is confident that they have marked a clear path for the rest of the organization to follow behind them and all known and needed resources are in place then the participants believe common sense is being used optimally.

Participants noted that common sense relates to the ability of a leader to offer “the product or service in a way that is easy to understand, purchase, and see the value of the product or service” (CS22). The reason is that, as CS25 noted, “Without understanding how your organization is built and functions you cannot see if something is amiss”. If a leader is able to have such focus then CS3 suggests that one can pursue “those goals without being impacted by noise or emotional drivers. Too often these days, plans are created and decisions are made with drivers that are contrary or not related to success”. That is why the

participants may have been focused mostly on mission, vision, and purpose because as CS8 views common sense in leadership, one has to “develop a plan, and present and sell that plan to achieve your objectives”.

Decision-making

Opinions about common sense as it relates to decision-making fell into broad principle-driven considerations. Common sense, according to the participants, is based on internal drivers rather than outside factors that may affect the leader. CS2 notes common sense is “experienced based decisions that are not driven by politics”. The leader in such cases will look at situations as doing what is right first while looking out for the best interests of the organization. CS14 says this process all begins by knowing your customer and what their expectations may be. CS15 sees common sense as “looking past numbers to do the right thing for employees, customers, and shareholders”. CS11 agrees with that notion and further states that common sense is “acting in a way that positively affects company goals while appearing to stakeholders to be the most appropriate approach”. CS24 added that “common sense as it relates to leading a 21st century organization is best defined as doing the right thing at the right time with resources--time, people, money and information”. Common sense then is formed as CS24 described “a fail-safe, flexible model for action that results in obtaining the key objectives of the organization consistently” while doing the right thing every time. CS10 connected common sense leadership to “doing what is right by leveraging personal and professional experiences” rather than what someone else wants you to do.

Many of the participants equated common sense to moral decision making. CS5 said this relates to “using your moral compass to make decisions and following the ‘do unto others’ principle”. The core question that leaders would then need to answer would be, “Is what you are considering something that you would personally feel right about, and would you be proud to talk about it to others”? (CS17). CS4 notes that leaders should “try to perceive the outcome of their action(s) and determine if they would be happy with that result”. CS19 believes the answer follows one’s practice of “simply doing the right thing even when it is often not the easy thing to do. Lead by example. Practice what you preach”. By setting the right example in their organizations, leaders can show common sense that can be emulated by their followers.

Several participants noted that the benchmark for common sense activity in organizations is “actually a matter of aligning our lives with timeless principles” (CS21). CS7 stated a similar observation that “one’s moral/ethical beliefs play an important part in how these things are addressed”. The end-result according to CS12 is that “common sense and doing what is right is what leaders do to grow their fruit stands into factories”.

Motivation

Opinions about common sense as it relates to motivation fell within two broad groupings: employee focus and the setting up the right environment. Both seem to work in tandem with each other to encourage further common sense practice and application within established organizational norms.

Employee Focus

Another element that participants said would apply to common sense leadership relates to human capital considerations. CS3 believes the starting place for common sense leadership in this area begins with “assembling a team of people with a track record of success”. Common sense then would include the leader knowing who the right people are to move the organization ahead, understanding their availability for hire, and making sure the targeted individuals have gained success within similar areas of operations. Once the human assets are in place, CS1 believes one starts by first having the mindset of caring about the people who are employed by your organization.

At the very base of common sense in leadership is how to motivate your employees so they will maintain a long and productive relationship with your organization. CS9 says it begins with praising and rewarding “employees for the good work they do - take care of the employees and the bottom line will take care of itself”. At the core of commonsense and motivation is what CS13 sees as “an endowment given to all mankind in varying degrees. It is a subjective, non-material object, which can only be measured and defined in relationship with something else. Since organizational leadership is necessarily people-driven, common sense possessed by the leader of any organization will be marked by his seemingly 'natural' ability to understand what motivates people”. CS1 notes that also means knowing that “the employees of the company are people first, employees second”. CS12 puts the onus for that on leaders as they show their “understanding that people work with people, not for people”. The nuance there is one of use as being proactive vs. reactive in how it is approached.

CS18 notes that empowerment is a part of what happens because “common sense consists of understanding the unique ways in which the members of your organization can be enabled to be part of a team effort to achieve worthy goals”. CS6 concurs by noting “common sense is the ability to look at more than one party’s perspective on an issue or subject and make reasonable decisions based on that”. How a leader can reach that level of understanding comes by “realizing that people are the base of our services, products, technology, etc... and the only value your company has is the quality of employees” (CS15). CS14 adds that common sense means “treating employees and customers fairly”, which seems to be the hallmark of what the participants said best defined common sense in this area of inquiry.

Setting the Right Environment

A smaller area of consideration of what common sense means as it relates to motivation was described by several participants who noted that setting the right environment was a consideration. CS1 noted that getting employees to “ride for the brand” needs to be emphasized. The goal in such work would be to engage employees in activities that would move the brand forward while concurrently recognizing the followers’ individual work in doing so. CS12 believes that means to “try to make all areas "win/win" situations” for leaders and their followers. CS13 posits that “at a basic level, leadership is a function of an individual's ability to intrinsically motivate people to work together to make a vision reality. Organizations exist around a common purpose, and it is the job of the leader to help people in an organization understand and cares about the purpose.” By doing so, the work environment will thrive and survive in whatever challenges it may face from its stakeholders.

CONCLUSIONS

According to Fletcher (1984), common sense leadership focuses on organizational environment. A single answer to define common sense leadership is not possible because senior level management has a number of different points-of-view. Summarizing the results of this study categorize common sense leadership into three areas: (a) goal setting, (b) decision making and (c) employee motivation.

Kinicki and Kreitner (2010) believe that setting goals requires a “clear line of sight” in order to lead a 21st century organization (p. 245). Furthermore, common sense leaders differentiate between performance outcome goals and learning goals (Kinicki & Kreitner). CS3 believed that common sense requires the leader to “set measureable and attainable goals”. The results of this study indicate that leader flexibility adapting to the ever changing environment is critical to being a common sense leader. According to CS26, leaders in the 21st century “will have to accommodate people in leadership position who have a different common sense matrix than has been thought of as traditional common sense”. Maintaining a flexible view of both the environment and the members of the environment is the first indication of 21st century common sense leadership.

The second of the three areas of common sense leadership concerns the decision making process used by 21st century leaders. It is important that the reader understand that decision making in modern organizations follow one of two directions: (a) rational or (b) nonrational. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), the rational approach to decision making requires the leader to solve problems by following a process that examines all potential alternatives before making a final decision. Participants in the current study indicate that a moral compass in choosing a direction for an organization is an important component of being a common sense leader. The central focus of this moral compass is the ability to inspire. Inspirational leaders expand their credibility by engaging their followers into accepting new responsibilities necessary for goal attainment (Bass & Avolio, 2002; Bass, 2003). CS24 believed that “common sense, as it relates to leading a 21st century organization, is best defined as doing the right thing at the right time with resources, time, people, money and information”. This study concluded that true common sense leadership requires leaders to inspire followers while making directional choices for the organization that ethically satisfy the morality of the overall environment.

The final area of common sense leadership focuses on employee motivation. Motivating people accounts for the influential effectiveness leaders have with their followers (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2004). Motivation theory is divided into three overall categories: (a) reinforcement theories, (b) content theories, and (c) process theories. Reinforcement theories reflect the “process of controlling an individual’s behavior by manipulating its consequences” (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2004, p 85). Content theories focus on the needs of employees. Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs measures motivation through meeting certain physiological human needs (Newstrom & Davis, 2002). Finally, process theories motivate from a more esoteric approach concentrating on behavioral influences (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2004). CS13 views motivation and common sense leadership as a partnership between focusing on people and determining the direction required for the organization to be successful.

In summary, understanding common sense leadership is not possible from a single point-of-view. Senior level executives indicate that common sense leadership is a multi-pronged approach to 21st century organizational behavior. Common sense leaders must maintain a level of flexibility to address both the needs and desires of the organization in conjunction with those of the members of that organization. Decision making requires a sense of morality that sometimes supersedes organizational performance and

profitability. Finally, study participants strongly believe that employee motivation that encompasses the previous two concepts (e.g. goal attainment and decision making) through a sense of morality is the key to being a common sense leader.

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CULTURAL PLURALISM: A CRITICAL NEEDS PLAN FOR GENERAL MOTORS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to create a critical needs plan for General Motors Corporation in the 21st century. General Motors (GM), once the most dominant manufacturer in the automotive industry, finds itself in financial crisis with a Chapter 11 bankruptcy and a necessary government infusion of capital. The foundation of this paper applies the Supportive Model as an effective strategy for creating a new corporate culture and focusing GM as a competitive manufacturer in the global automotive industry. The basis of this critical needs plan focuses on more than managerial or financial influence, but a cultural change including corporate ethics, corporate social responsibility and a critical thought approach to operating in the 21st century.

JEL: M1

KEYWORDS: Leadership, Cultural Pluralism, Organizational Behavior

INTRODUCTION

With the increase in global competitive pressure, it is important for a business organization to understand the organizational behavior and dynamic changes to its cultural and ethical environment. Economic globalization has forced many U.S. companies to take a hard look at their competitive environments focusing on the steps necessary to remain competitive on the world-stage. Engle (2006) observed that many of the top industrial powerhouses within the past 10 years have realized that past success does not equate to future gains. Companies must replace complacency with an intense effort to optimize operational processes by examining the organizational behavioral. This is especially true for companies facing critical issues. This case study provides a critical needs plan for General Motors Corporation. The organization's culture and ethical behavior are two of the many possible subject areas examined as an overall plan to optimize operations. The recommendations will take a comprehensive approach by considering leadership, organizational culture, financial ramifications, cross-cultural issues, and potential ethical conflicts.

A critical needs plan for a global company such as General Motors Corporation includes an assessment of global culture and global ethics. The structure of the organizational plan for General Motors is to be adaptive to the global environment and strategically support global markets competitive demands. According to Hannan and Freeman (1977), any plan focusing on a global company is complex and relies on a working strategy that supports a relationship between the structure and its environment. Gupta and Govindarajin (2004) believed that globalizing in today's business environment necessitates organization's recognize four key constructs to globalizing in the 21st century: (a) the organization's position in the market; (b) the availability of capital to expand the organization; (c) the availability of supplies for the organization and (d) a corporate outlook that considers the overall global picture.

CULTURAL BEHAVIOR

Cultural behavior can vary significantly among different markets. Jung and Avolio (1999) believe that successful organizations that expand globally understand the differences in foreign cultures and that this understanding corresponds with the exponential growth of the global economy. Being the world's biggest automotive manufacturer prior to 2008, General Motors employed approximately 325,000 employees worldwide (Webster, 2006). With the diversity of cross-cultural differences, it is critical that General Motors study each market's cultural organizational behavior and determine if a common matrix exists.

The Supportive Model is an effective model for use as a base plan for any organizations needs. This model illustrates leadership by a human resources approach of emphasizing support for the workers as the most important factor in leading the organization. "[Elton Mayo and F.J. Rothlisberger] concluded that an organization is a social system and the worker is indeed the most important element in it" (Newstrom & Davis, 2002, p. 36). When dealing with a sensitive issue such as health-care costs and the expansion of operations into a foreign environment, it is important to implement a plan that demonstrates the company's commitment to its employees and those from the new foreign environment. A change in the organizational culture would not prevail over the individual priorities of a company's employees or the foreign environment. According to Newstrom and Davis (2002), leadership and not managerial authority is the foundation of the Supportive Model. This type of leadership helps promote employees growth and motivates them to obtain common goals that are beneficial to the organization.

Utilizing the Supportive Model, General Motors can embrace cultural diversity and pluralism as part of the globalization strategy. Cultural pluralism relates to the relationship of the internal and external stakeholders of the group (White, 1978). According to Nagar (2005), global organizations must understand that the global environment of 21st century organizations is in a state of change. Cultural pluralism defines the manner in which an organization reacts to the changing cultural paradigms. Successful organizations find ways to adapt to the changes in beneficial ways while continuing the involvement and advancement of its internal members (Nagar, 2005). One problem an organization finds when globalizing concerns that significant differences exist in the market's organizational culture. Cultural discomfort among management dealing with markets that they are not familiar with could result in disruption to business flow. The intent is not to force a change in the organizational culture, but embrace it and bridge different cultures together. The challenge of managing organizational culture is the human relation factors. Despite the fact that the company is from the United States, it would not be appropriate for General Motors to assume that foreign markets share a common vision. The key to dealing with organizational cultural differences begins with the identification of any commonalities among the different cultures. The goal is to develop a general plan encompassing components from existing cultures in order to establish a new global organizational culture. Jung and Avolio (1999) cited Hofstede [who] "argued that many differences in individual motivation and leadership styles could be traced to differences in cultural programming. Erez also challenged the appropriateness of simply assuming that United States-centric leadership theories can be generalized to other cultures" (p. 208). Recognizing the differences in organizational culture would mitigate the risks of domestic or global cross-cultural influences to the operational plan.

Although incorporated in 1908, General Motors did not experience success until 1923 with the hiring of Alfred P. Sloan as Chief Executive Officer. Sloan, an engineer by trade, believed that product development began with design and must focus on the wants of the buying public. Sloan found that in the early years, GM's problems originated with its lack of brand specialization. Prior to Sloan's employment,

the company failed to focus a dedicated brand to a specific market segment. Sloan changed GM's corporate philosophy by concentrating each GM brand to a dedicated market resulting in overall U.S. market domination that rose as high as 50% between 1950 and 1965. In addition to being the largest automaker, GM prided itself on producing automobiles at the lowest cost while remaining the style leader of the industry (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010).

The domination was so prevailing that in 1955 the United States Congress began anti-trust hearings threatening to divide the company into smaller segments. Although no action was taken, GM management realized that a refocus of corporate direction was necessary. Instead of increasing its market share, GM would need to find ways to increase its profit margin while maintaining its existing control of the market (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010).

Unfortunately, the decision to change business strategy failed to recognize the materialization of a new desired market segment for smaller more compact vehicles. Another issue confronting GM originated with the focus on reducing costs and increasing profits. The increase in profits did not go unnoticed by the United Auto Workers (UAW). The UAW was astute to the direction of the American automobile industry and that higher profits provided increased opportunity for union worker wages and benefits without an equivalent proportion of increased worker productivity (Martin & Schrum, 2010). A *New York Times* article in 2009 reported that upwards of \$ 1,000 per auto sold represented health care and pension costs to the company (Martin & Schrum). The issue is magnified when retirees are factored into the equation as upwards of 450,000 non-working individuals, retirees and surviving spouses, were covered by GM benefit plans in 2005.

In addition to the issues related to its benefit and pension issues, GM continued to further distance itself from its successful past by implementing a strategy of "platform sharing across GM division brands" (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010, p. 105). The strategy to cut costs included a reduction in Sloan's original plan of brand specialization sharing similar designs across the GM brand spectrum. Although the strategy did succeed in reducing overall costs, the long-term affect was a dilution of each brand's uniqueness. In 1979, GM's share of the U.S. market was 46%, but because of rising health care and pension costs, a reduction in worker productivity and a dilution of brand specialization that market share dropped to 22.5% (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010). By 2009, General Motors had declared bankruptcy and was in the process of eliminating certain brands and closing dealerships and operations (e.g. Saab, Hummer and Pontiac). Furthermore, the company required an immediate cash infusion of \$ 50 billion in capital from the U.S. Government in order to meet current daily obligations. The price for the involvement of government money was to force the accelerated sale of GM assets (Lubben, 2009).

The sale of the assets also created a way to reduce existing health and pension costs by creating a specialized trust called a Voluntary Employee Benefit Association (VEBA). The VEBA would be a fully funded separate entity that would guarantee benefits but required a promise of no union action (e.g. strikes) for several years (Lubben, 2009). The challenge created by the bankruptcy and government involvement is for General Motors to recreate the confidence it once experienced by consumers. Key to regaining consumer confidence begins with a change in an organization's culture. According to Harbour-Felax, General Motors is aware of the issues related to its financial downfall, but failed to make the necessary cultural changes to resolve these issues (Zoia, 2006). General Motors needs to embrace diversity in global manufacturing facilities and market share. General Motors needs to return to an organizational culture that embraces product specialization that focuses on the specific wants of its

consumer base. The changing global environment, increased fuel costs and a desire for environmental protection creates a different culture that is necessary for success in the 21st century (Svensson, 2004).

ETHICS AND LEADERSHIP

Elmer W. Johnson (1986), a former Vice President of Public Affairs and General Counsel for General Motors said:

The people of the United States and other industrialized nations of the free world, through their governments, have rightly come to look upon GM and other large corporations not simply as business enterprises organized for profit, but also as institutions with far-reaching responsibilities to protect and enhance various social interests and goals (p. 174).

Ethics and leadership are synonymous terms that work in conjunction with one another in order to establish a foundation in which an organization operates. Baron (2006) believed that ethical behavior is a methodical approach to making decisions based on defined principles.

General Motors recognized that its overwhelming position in both the U.S. economy as well as the global economy places the company in a unique position of more than a corporate giant. General Motors' actions affect more than just its internal stakeholders (e.g., employees, management, and shareholders), but has a direct affect on its nonmarket environment as well. "The nonmarket environment is composed of the social, political, and legal arrangements that structure interactions outside of, but in conjunction with, markets and contracts" (Baron, 2006, p. 2). Included in Baron's (2006) definition of the nonmarket environment are outside groups, governmental entities and the public. In contrast, Bass (1990) believed that transformational leaders help to broaden the vision of one's followers focusing on creating an atmosphere that considers more than individual needs but considers the needs of the organization.

Managing a business or organization requires careful consideration and balance of the various components. True leadership is capable of considering a multitude of components that includes both market and nonmarket issues. The concept of ethics is one of a guiding light or force to assist the leader in his or her quest to maximize the potential of the organization. The theory of transformational leadership works in conjunction with the plan utilizing the Supportive Model by considering the needs and desires of the General Motor's employees and its new partners in an ever-expanding global environment.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

General Motors recognized its inherent responsibility in its social performance as well as its corporate performance. Wood (1991) defined corporation social performance as, "a business organization's configuration of principles of social responsibility, process of social responsiveness, and policies, programs and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm's societal relationships" (p. 759). General Motors social responsibility encompasses a wide range of stakeholders including employees, stockholders, customers, governmental agencies, and the public. General Motors acknowledges this responsibility by analyzing all legitimate parties to its operations in order to determine the potential conflicts between corporate responsibility and its social responsibility (Johnson, 1986). In the 1980s, General Motors experienced a conflict between these different responsibilities because of its former

policy of “command-and-control” (Johnson, 1869, p. 174) to one of social responsibility. General Motor’s attempt to implement a new mentality upon its management in a short period placed its managers in a quandary between a market mentality and a social responsible mentality required of corporate partners’ intent on a comprehensive plan for interaction and responsibility within its environment.

As a subcomponent of the Supportive Model, the ethical leadership plan incorporates the theory of utilitarianism into the overall plan. “Utilitarianism is a consequentialist system with two particular features. First, consequences are to be evaluated in terms of the preferences of individuals, and second, those preferences are to be aggregated” (Baron, 2006, p. 702). Those following utilitarianism base their ethical decisions on the interest of the whole and not any individual part of the group. Utilitarianism finds its foundation in the needs of the General Motors employees in addition to the needs of its corporate environment. Within the Supportive Model, the theory of utilitarianism provides the General Motors’ management a clear overview of all possible directions in regards to health care coverage and how it will approach its plan that effectively globalizes the company resulting in reduced costs, increased profits, and an effective relationship with its hosts in various foreign countries.

MANAGEMENT APPROACH TO ISSUES

Rising health-care costs and a declining market share have significantly affected the financial stability of General Motors. General Motors is the largest private provider of health care within the United States. In conjunction with the significant health care liability, the antiquated distribution system that adds at least 20 percent to the price of every new car enhances the overall problems at General Motors (Levinson, 2006). Kubasek, Brennan and Browne (2003) suggests that a critical thinking approach could help General Motors identify the company’s strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities and will improve General Motors overall operations. The critical thinking approach encompasses the following eight steps: Step 1) the company must know the facts. In a global environment, it is important to be aware of consumer concerns and competitors position. The Supportive Model will enable General Motors to take a more proactive approach at focusing on gathering appropriate data necessary for future decisions. Step 2) the company must identify the critical needs and issues affecting the company. The primary questions or issues requiring attention are: (a) which factors contribute to General Motors excessive costs and (b) what are the contributing factors in decline in sales? The problem that all automotive manufacturers face is the rising costs of manufacturing when the emerging markets have limited resources for the purchase of automobiles and prefer a basic vehicle in comparison to the loaded varieties commonly found in the United States (Howell & Hsu, 2002). The answer lies in the creation of partnerships and alliances among competitors and technology companies.

Technological alliances permit General Motors a strategic advantage by establishing a relationship with a competitor with a sound base in a specific foreign market while utilizing common technology for the benefit of both companies. For example, a General Motors alliance with Suzuki opened an opportunity within the Asian market without the barrier of a new start up operation. In conjunction with Suzuki’s presence in Asia, this alliance provides General Motors with,

... access to Suzuki’s small car platform and its low-cost manufacturing experience. The tie-up gives Suzuki access to General Motors advanced technologies, particularly alternative propulsion and hybrid systems, entry to the growing Latin American market and worldwide component sourcing (Howell & Hsu, 2002, p. 45).

The relationship between General Motors and Suzuki provides a focus of the critical needs plan for General Motors utilizing the Supportive Model. General Motors can no longer operate in the same manner it did during the 20th century. The future of General Motors depends on strategic alliances like the one with Suzuki. This provides a unique approach to supporting its employee base, stakeholders, and its new global alliances in an ever-expanding global environment. Step 3) the company must establish a set of logical reasons or justifications for supporting the business decisions. Management from the top and continuing down the chain of command should review all reasons and provide justifications for why these issues and risks were not identified sooner. The process of critical thinking requires that the decision be viewed from a different set of lenses. "... Officers and directors are required to exercise their duties in a manner they reasonably believe to be in the best interests of the corporation" (Kubasek et al., 2003, p. 433). Critical thinking skills are important for business decisions to comply with emergent law and as well support of the community ethics (Kubasek et al., 2003). Step 4) once the appropriate facts are defined, the company must assess the legal and social impact of business decisions. This step is critical to General Motors' success in an ever-expanding global environment. The key is a comprehensive knowledge of the legal environment in the various foreign countries that General Motors chooses to compete. Step 5) once determined, the plan should be implemented at all levels of the business. It is important not to discard subjective reasoning without applying critical reasoning. Innovative ideas require an accurate utilization of critical thinking ability to determine if the information is factual or subjective with merit. This is critical when it comes to technical discussions, where ambiguous subjective comments such as *it can never be done* may have a negative impact on innovation. Step 6) in conjunction with plan review and implementation, the ethical norms of the business decision should also be considered. The primary ethical norms that provide direction of the legal environment of business are freedom, security, justice, and efficiency (Kubasek et al., 2003). The final decisions made by General Motors consider the ethical impact of its business decisions. What will internal and external stakeholders' think of the decision? Step 7) business decisions depend on the experience and knowledge of previous events. In order for General Motors to move ahead, the company must review and analyze previous events and actions. Step 8) the final step of the critical thinking process is to consider the business decision in regards to missing information. In a global environment, the dynamics of said environment change quickly and it is critical for the company to be on the cutting edge of all available information.

SUMMARY

The foundation of this critical needs plan for General Motors centers on the Supportive Model utilizing a critical thinking approach to globalization. Global expansion is inevitable for all automobile manufacturing companies. After many years of negative financial results and stratospheric increases in health-care costs, General Motors is taking a proactive approach in order to lower its manufacturing costs and expanding its market base into markets that are exponentially growing in the 21st century. The Suzuki example in Asia demonstrates that implementing the Supportive Model focuses on the strengths of both partners considering the needs and desires of both the internal and external stakeholders. "Globally integrated strategies demand it to manage both the uncertainties involved in a highly intricate networking operation and to develop and implement strategies quickly to parry and riposte the actions of other companies pursuing a similar strategy" (Lei & Slater, 1990, p 29). The first automobile manufacturing company to maximize the advantages of a global market including those of reduced costs will set itself up as the primary manufacturing company in the 21st century.

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THE EFFECT OF INVESTOR BIAS AND GENDER ON PORTFOLIO PERFORMANCE AND RISK

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ABSTRACT

We survey 84 finance and accounting majors to determine the behavioral factors that males and females exhibit when making investment decisions. The survey results are linked to student performance in the Stock-Trak Global Portfolio Trading Simulation. We find that males and females exhibit different behavioral biases and these behavioral biases can ultimately affect investment performance. We also find evidence to support previous research showing that males are more risk tolerant than females. However, our findings indicate that this behavior may be due to a difference in the perception of the actual risk being taken rather than an inherent desire to engage in more risky behavior.

JEL: D03, G02; G14

KEYWORDS: Behavioral Bias, Gender, Risk Aversion, Stock-Trak

RE-EXAMINING THE CONCEPT OF BOUNDARY OBJECTS WITHIN COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

Past perspectives on boundary objects have had a tendency to over-emphasize 'key' boundary object attributes, and under-emphasize human-object intra-action dynamics. An alternative framework based on a boundary construction concept is proposed. Starting from a common onto/epistemological and cognitive thread deriving from specific forms of constructivism, it is argued that boundary constructions are in a constant flux of co/re-construction at the hands of intra-acting actors. The active role of individuals in boundary constructions implies engagement. Such engagement requires management's implication in providing a psychological safety net within the workplace.

JEL: M0

KEYWORDS: boundary constructions, constructivism, intra-action, enactment

INTRODUCTION

In the following paper, we first review past literature on boundary objects and its often prescriptive approach towards 'effective boundary object' conditions which fail to place sufficient emphasis on human-object interaction dynamics. An alternative cognitive, epistemological and ontological thread that allows us to propose the concept of boundary constructions follows this. An ethnographic case study within a high tech firm then illustrates how this is validated within a meeting environment. Finally, we recommend certain managerial practices that may enable effective boundary constructions within the workplace.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Star and Griesemer (1989) speak of boundary objects as “things” which coordinate the perspectives as well as serve the information needs of the intersecting social worlds of various actors towards a given purpose. According to the authors (1989: 410-411), there are four categories of boundary objects: 1) *repositories* (e.g. databases or libraries) of objects “indexed in a standardized fashion” which individuals can borrow for their own purposes without the need for negotiation; 2) *ideal types* which are locally adaptable due to their vagueness since they do not “accurately describe the details of any one locality or thing”; 3) *standardized forms* which emphasize methods of common communication over long distances (and are therefore especially applicable to dispersed work groups); and 4) *coincident boundaries* which have different internal contents depending on the interests and perspectives of each party yet are still common objects with the same boundaries.

From an ontological viewpoint, Star and Griesemer's (1989) concept of boundary object leads to varying degrees in duality between the object and subject. For example, repositories imply that while on the one hand the individual who interacts with these will use a certain degree of subjective interpretation, it is assumed, especially within the field of information technology, that such subjective interpretation is minimized across the use of codified knowledge (or in other words, a 'distant objective' viewpoint is

attained). As for ideal types and coincident boundaries, there is an explicit acceptance that the subject's active interpretation and viewpoints comes into play, yet the object is still viewed as being discretely and *permanently* separate from the subject. Here, the object can be seen as being either static, or as a changing entity in which we focus only on its static end-result. Later interpretations have continued to imply varying degrees of permanent separation between the actor-individual and the object: "boundary objects are artifacts, documents, terms, concepts and *other forms of reification* around which communities of practice can organize their interconnections" (Wenger, 1998: 107); or "boundary objects are *physical objects* that enable to understand other perspectives" (Feldman et al, 2006: 95). Although Bødker (1998) acknowledges the mediation that occurs around most of these 'objects', they are nevertheless viewed as static representations. This is best summarized by Lutters (2001) who highlights that the "boundary object...still suffers from an artifact-centric view of knowledge, rather than a process oriented perspective" (2001: 35-36).

Carlile (2002) identifies three factors for generating useful boundary objects: 1) the boundary object needs to provide a common language for actors to represent their knowledge ("syntactical approach"); 2) the boundary object must provide a means for actors to express different interpretations ("semantic approach"), thereby allowing the possibility for novelty to emerge; and 3) the boundary object must facilitate processes by allowing the actors to change its contents in order for it to continue to be useful to all involved participants ("pragmatic approach"). However, Carlile's level of analysis tends to imply boundary objects as being independent variables to the subject-actor, while simultaneously implying the subject-actor to be dependent on the boundary object. In the following sub-section we will draw upon certain cognitive and epistemological insights from authors such as Glasersfeld (2002) and Weick (1995 and 2009) which will allow us to shift more emphasis on the active and dynamic role the actor has over boundary objects; and thereby shift our focus as to where and what the most pertinent 'success factors' are when speaking of effective boundary 'objects'.

The mutual shaping of the subject and object as boundary constructions

Glasersfeld's (2002) *radical constructivism* makes us re-question the representational notion of a pre-existent environment (as a collection of pre-existing objects) that is simply there to be discovered by an objective and separate observer. Glasersfeld (2002) directly addresses the representational claim of observer objectivity by first explaining, across Jean Piaget's work on cognitive development, how human mental operations lead up towards a mental/subjective construction of reality. These operations involve both the construction of action and symbolic schemes leading (the latter being mostly linguistic in nature, based on *interpretive semantic* rather than arbitrary semiotic analysis) leading towards sensorimotor and conceptual knowledge, respectively (2002: 76). Each of these schemes is constructed based on unique personal experiences, which may be similar, but never identical to, another person's constructions (Glasersfeld, 2002: 158). Furthermore, inductive learning from experimental outcomes is attained by experimenting and constructing "a repertoire of schemes" that enables one to maintain his or her "sensory perceptions within an acceptable range of reference values."

The point here is that humans learn by constructing a viable (as opposed to a true in the positivistic sense) picture of reality; and that we may on occasion 'bump' into our external reality across "failures" (2002: 156). This rejoins Weick's (1995) theory of individual and organizational sensemaking, which seeks plausibility as opposed to what is true in the absolute sense. In other words, "truth is what works" (James, 1907) in that our external reality is much too complex to comprehend in terms of exact

correspondence. As Glaserfeld (2002: 156) explains, "the idea of correspondence with reality is replaced with the idea of fit. Knowledge is good knowledge if it fits within the constraints of experiential reality and does not collide with them. This fit must be attained not only insofar as a cognitive structure, a scheme, a theory, has to remain viable in the face of new experience or experiments, but also in that they prove compatible with other schemes and theories one is using." Hence, "the requirement that knowledge be called true knowledge only if it reflects the real world, is relinquished for the requirement that it be found conducive to the attainment of our goals in the world as we experience it" (2002: 44).

Weick (1979 and 1995) goes one-step further by reiterating Berger and Luckmann's (1966) construction of social reality across the process of enactment through which we proactively shape and structure our realities in an unconscious manner. Morgan (1997: 141) offers a succinct explanation on enactment: "Although we often see ourselves as living in a reality with objective characteristics, life actually demands much more of us than this. It requires that we take an active role in bringing our realities into being through various interpretive schemes, even though these realities may then have a habit of imposing themselves on us as "the way things are". Weick (2009: 190) cites Follett (1924) to describe the two way shaping process that occurs between the environment (in the most general sense) and the subject:

"...the activity of the individual is only in a certain sense caused by the stimulus of the situation because that activity is itself helping to produce the situation which causes the activity of the individual...My farmer neighbors know this: we prune and graft and fertilize certain trees, and as our behaviour becomes increasingly that of behaviour towards apple-bearing trees, these become increasingly apple-bearing trees. The tree releases energy in me and I in it; it makes me think and plan and work, and I make it edible fruit. It is a process of freeing on both sides. And this is a creating process" (Follett, 1924: 118-119).

As an engaged subject, we have a role and partial accountability in shaping our environment. In returning to boundary objects, we can now propose that actor-subjects shape them, just as they also shape actor-subjects. Hence, we propose *boundary constructions* as an alternative term to boundary objects. It is important to note that this puts heavy emphasis on the process aspect of the term 'construction' as opposed to its end-resultant and static aspect of 'construct'.

We can now reword the factors identified by Carlile (2002) for effective boundary objects as follows: 1) the actors must provide a common language for them to effectively represent their respective knowledge across the help of a co-constructed or co-negotiated boundary construction; 2) the actors must provide a means to express their different interpretations across the help of a co-negotiated boundary construction; and 3) the actors must continually co-negotiate and co-transform the boundary construction so as to maintain an on-going pertinence to all involved participants. This re-wording, changes our research aims from a linear-causal type of questioning such as 'Which type of boundary objects could fulfill these conditions?' (Figure 1-A) to a more dialectic/holistic question of 'Which enabling conditions would encourage the needed interactions between the actors and the boundary construction towards effective knowledge sharing?' (Figure 1-B).

METHODOLOGY

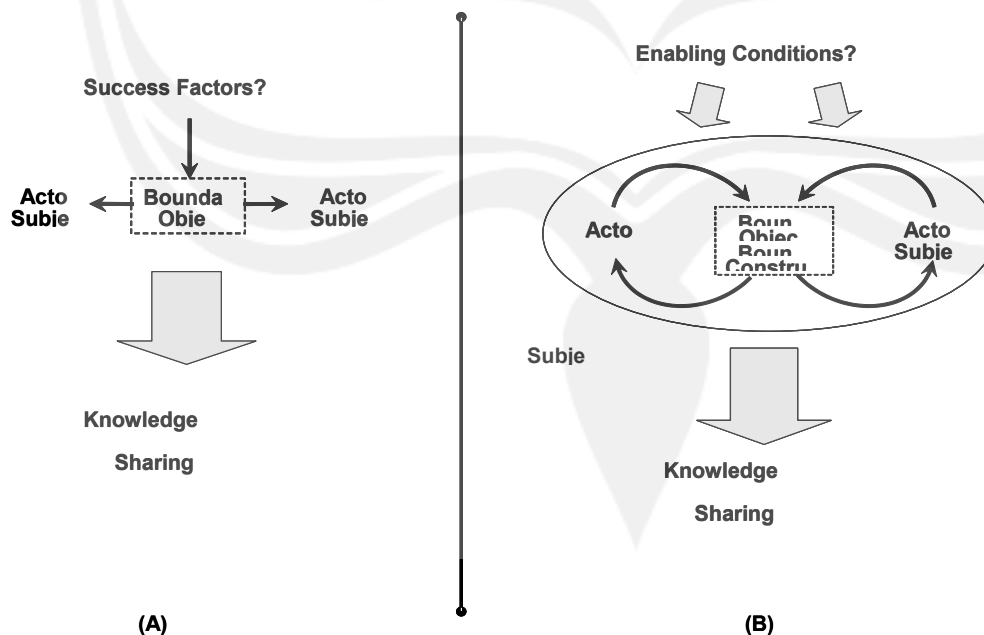
The research site, given the pseudonym, NorAm Aircraft Engines, is an aircraft engine manufacturer which employs over 4000 people world-wide. Preliminary discussions with a first workgroup (the Engine Operability Development or EOD group) not only confirmed their interest to participate, but were involved in bi-weekly meetings with another group that had not been initially identified (the Engine Component Rig Testing or ECRT group). This second group was also approached and accepted to participate.

The EOD and ECRT workgroups

The EOD group is responsible for ensuring the development of adequate engine operability *envelopes* throughout all phases of engine development programs. The proper establishment of the engine operability envelope is of critical importance, in that it delimits the boundaries beyond which the aircraft risks running into critical compressor surges or other types of catastrophic engine failures. EOD group members have a good general understanding of the various engineering disciplines involved in engine design and development. A principal objective of the EOD group is to ensure meaningful engine component test data is generated. Establishing the type of engine test data to be generated is negotiated between the EOD group, the various engineering specialty groups, and the ECRT group; the latter being responsible for the generating and integrity of the required engine component test data. In turn, the ECRT group's responsibilities include the development and preparation of component test rigs (required for each

Figure 1- A: Linear causal understanding towards effective knowledge sharing

Figure 1- B: Holistic-dialectic understanding towards effective knowledge sharing



new engine development program), their subsequent test runs, and the proper collection of the test data. Both groups interact with each other daily (informal) and also meet bi-weekly.

Data collection and analysis

The interactions, within, as well as between, the two specific work groups at the NorAm Aircraft Engines Company was used as a case study whereby our aim was to both “test/build theory” as well as to “provide description” (Eisenhardt, 1989: 535). With a vigilance for ‘emergent’ dimensions, categories or alternative theory, we based ourselves on Schwartzmann’s (1993:47-72) ethnographic studies in organisations involving a dialogical inductive-deductive process between empirical evidence and theoretical elaboration across thick descriptive writing. Hence, for the purpose of our work an *ethnographic case study* approach was adopted using direct (non-participant) observations. This was conducted over a three month period in early 2007. These observations were also coupled with one-on-one *ad hoc* conversations/informal interviews in a dialectical fashion. Three embedded units of analysis within the single case study were chosen, namely: 1) the bi-weekly inter-group meetings between EOD and ECRT; 2) the EOD group; 3) the ECRT group.

For this paper, we limited ourselves mostly to the first unit of analysis. The primary research design criterion sought was based on *trustworthiness* (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), involving the constructivist sub-criteria of: i) *credibility* via both the saturation of findings and triangulation of data collection to obtain complementary perspectives (as opposed to triangulation in the positivistic sense of ‘intersection’ of findings) of what people say vs. what people do (Schartzmann, 1993); and ii) *transferability* across thick description. Also in support of this primary criterion of trustworthiness, was our desire to attain reliability of data by ensuring that the research was conducted “as if someone were looking over our shoulder” (Yin, 2003: 38); that is, making sure we had rigorous documentation of data (from observations and interviews) so as to provide an adequate audit trail. For observations, we drew upon Spradley (1980: 63-84) who recommends: 1) the use of short *in vivo* condensed notes, which were often complemented with on-site *in vivo* digital recordings; 2) to be subsequently elaborated within 24 hours or as soon as possible in a separate journal of ‘expanded notes’; 3) a reflexive journal on personal emotions and reactions in regards to recorded experiences; and 4) analytical notes on interpretations on what was observed, as well as questions or further points that needed to be verified.

Descriptive data from observations and interviews were manually analyzed and interpreted in a separate journal as per Spradley (1980) against *a priori* concepts as well as for emerging categories via repeated identification of comments and actions. The nature of the data that was collected (digital recordings, hand-written observations and filming) allowed us to analyze for verbal and non-verbal (voice tonality, facial expressions, body language, etc.) cues thus bringing forth important contextual information.

RESULTS

The first and lasting impression upon assisting the bi-weekly inter-group meetings between EOD and ECRT was the high degree of camaraderie found within each group as well as between both groups; and also extended between the two group managers (Gerry and Frank). Members, upon entering the meeting room a few minutes early, would often discuss non-work related topics (hockey, renovations, car repairs, etc.). On other occasions, members, prior to the start of the meeting, often discussed specific technical issues related to joint project activities. This was often accompanied by the act of sketching a particular view of a rig or engine component that one member was trying to describe, justify or clarify. Throughout

such conversations sketches were often drawn and modified in successive superimposing steps by each of the interacting members before finally converging towards a mutually agreed version.

Similar types of exchanges were also observed with the aid of pre-existing 2D drawings. Here, existing blueprints were modified (with superimposed dialogue) with pen/pencil to either express or explain one's own existing perspective (sensegiving), comprehend someone else's perspective (perspective-taking) or construct new perspectives (perspective-making). Once the formal meeting began, the EOD manager (Gerry) usually started by verbally calling out the first item on his agenda/status sheet. This sheet consisted of one or two-line descriptions identifying the development engine model/test rig combination in question, the principle tasks being monitored, a completion target date for each of these tasks, and the current status of the task in question. Most of the members had a copy of this same status sheet. Gerry's "QA510 Gas Generator?" would prompt a response by one of the attending members such as "We've finish-machined and installed the second compressor stator and the rotating bullet is now being installed. The gas gen. rig should be ready for first shake-down by the middle of next week." Gerry, as well as certain other members around the table would then jot notes on their status sheet in relation to what had just been said. Gerry would then either go onto the next engine model/test rig on his list, or ask a further clarifying question such as:

Gerry: "Are we clear as to what tests Colin needs...do we know which running conditions, and which points we need to measure?"

Jon: (from the ECRT group): "I spoke to Vincent about this last week, and told him we needed to do some measurements two degrees above and two degrees below the nominal..."

Gerry :(in a patient tone, starts to provide sensegiving): "Ya, but that's another thing. What I'm talking about here is for the same (*strong emphasis made on this word*) operating point (*pauses*), in pressure ratio and in corrected speed..."

Jon: (provides a cue that he's following Gerry's explanation i.e. perspective-taking): "Ya..."

Gerry: (continues with sense-giving): "...and then recording the stabilization time needed for the outlet temperature to reach the ambient temperature."

Jon: (major learning moment - self-discredits or modifies his own current assumptions): "Ah ok! I had understood it was...I'd better get back to Vincent on this – it sounds like I'm going to be a day late after all."

This prompted Gerry, and other members also involved with the item of concern to further modify their respective status lists. Each wrote something similar, yet different enough to address their own respective perspectives.

Members discussed a variety of technical issues they were jointly working on. These conversations were accompanied by either active sketching from scratch or modification of existing drawings. A vivid detailed example (March 12th, 2007) involved Frank going up to the drawing board to draw and (simultaneously) verbally articulate a new test rig arrangement he proposes:

Frank: "Ya, because I think the problem...is that we've never run an engine rig with a plenum (gas containing chamber) like this"

Frank simultaneously draws the following schematic of a plenum:



Frank then erases the two top extending lines, and adds a "+" and "-" sign in brackets so that it now looks as follows while at the same time saying:



Frank: "Ok so this is how it's configured with the large nozzle. We actually used this set-up back on the QA700...the 700 family; it worked on the 706. They ran the engine on a rig test."

Mark: "the 706 or 705..."

Frank: "Ya..."

Mark: (agrees but also clarifies Frank's narration while pointing to Frank's sketch): "There wasn't a real nozzle so to speak...it was really configured like this."

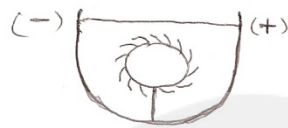
Frank: "Ya, and they realized that there was some sort of static pressure variation; something low like right over here (points to - sign) and a high point over there (points to + sign).

Frank now draws an additional lower vertical line to the drawing as he says:



Frank: "They added a baffle, 'Bing!' (onomatopoeia) like this which really improved things. We didn't go into the intake...the solution was really in the compressor rig - the data showed this. I think it was because of this engine's IGV (inlet guide vanes)."

Frank, on his last sentence, simultaneously draws guide vanes on the existing sketch:



Frank: "We created this pre-swirl'..."

Frank then adds gas flow lines to his sketch and simultaneously says:



Frank: "The air comes in like this, and instead of descending equally on each side, it takes on this tendency more or less like this ..."

Mark: (agrees with Frank's assessment): "Yep, that's what it does in reality."

Frank: (acknowledges Mark's approval): "That's it, eh? (then points to lower vertical line representing the baffle) By closing off this area here, things improved a lot..."

Mark :(again agrees with Frank): "Ya things got better when we did that..."

Frank then points to the top left hand corner of the 'plenum' and adds:

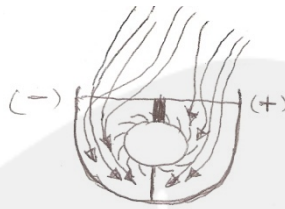
Frank: "But we still have a problem on this side (then points to left side of vertical baffle) because of a dead zone. And that's where the temperatures got way high over here (then points to top right hand corner of baffle) and real low over here...I figure..."

Frank then draws a thick vertical line in the top half of the baffle and then says:



Frank: "...I figure, why not put a baffle right over here as well? This way we split the plenum in two zones..."

Frank then adds more gas flow lines to equilibrate the flux lines on both the left and right side of the baffle and simultaneously says:



Frank: “That would make the air feed in more equally on both sides.”

What is important to note in the above example is the step by step or incremental progression of both verbal and visual aspects of an evolving story, almost like a film or ‘cartoon’. Complementing the actual action of drawing is the frequent use of hand/arm movement to explain a particular aspect of the gas plenum arrangement. In a more general sense, members often brought up new points of views which were accompanied by the active listening of others; but once expressed, responses were quick to follow, ranging from further questioning prior to acceptance or to further counter-argumentation. Such counter-arguments also went through the same process, often in parallel to the initial argument’s transformation. All of this was typically conducted in an atmosphere of mutual respect, trust and appreciation of each others’ contributions. Furthermore, sense-giving conducted by various members, including both managers, was principally to guide rather than to coerce. Initial sense-giving by one member was often ‘self-discredited’ (in the weickian sense) as a result of another member’s counterpoint or questioning. Hence, ‘healthy doubt’ as defined by Weick (2001) was often present, and helped ensure a reasonable balance between the “crediting” and “discrediting” of beliefs and assumptions.

ANALYSIS

Different types of mediums were used in *helping* to transmit perspectives within individual interactions such as the use of agenda sheets, active sketching from scratch, sketching to modify existing drawings and the use of existing schematic drawings or documents themselves. These ‘objects’ were usually accompanied with some form of visible action on the part of actors, whereby it was *during* the dynamic yet transient modifications of these ‘objects’ by these very same actions that perspectives were both given and taken. For example, agenda sheets were actively modified across handwriting, as discussions advance from one item and/or topic to the next. And in conjunction to this dynamic re-construction of the ‘object’ were the updating of everyone’s own sense and perspective of the topic at hand. In this sense, we concur with Suchman (2009) when she speaks of the agenda (as a form of plan) as an evolving artefact emerging from purposeful action, (which she coins as *situated action*). Her use of the term action implies not only physical movement but also more reflexive components such as language and dialogue.

Another example such as the active process of sketching and re-sketching diagrams or representations is in a similar way much more meaningful across its dynamic construction and re-construction at the hands of participating actors than simply looking at the end-resultant sketch or construct. For example, Mark, a senior member of the EOD group, explains:

“It’s as if you’re constructing it – not concretely in mechanical terms, since it’s more in a ‘virtual’ sense, but it’s a lot more than just words. For example when I say ‘We got to change this’ – if you haven’t seen it then you’re wondering ‘Change what?’ ...So by making a drawing I feel it makes the idea in your head come out for everyone to see – and have everyone better

understand or feel your own experience...And that's how people can then say to you 'Ah that's what you meant. Well, in that case, no I don't think that's feasible...or ya, I think that can be done.'"

And as Mark further adds, if the same explanatory words were used in the absence of specific motions and line drawing movements (e.g. the portraying of gas flows within a combustion chamber), one would have a less clear sense or understanding of the phenomena being articulated.

In all of these cases, we are looking at physical boundary objects being continually constructed and re-constructed by the subject-actors in a manner similar to Figure 1-B. We are essentially looking at 'artefacts as phenomena' as opposed to static pre-existing objects. Hence, we can speak of *boundary constructions* as proposed in our *a priori* framework (Figure 1-B). Even existing drawings without any visible line markings or modifications added to them, are typically accompanied by some form of finger or arm movements across various features and physical phenomena an actor wishes to bring a mental attention to (e.g. gas flows, stress distributions, hole diameters, etc.). This creates new mental bracketings (Weick, 1995) necessary for constructing new mental representations within the minds of the various interacting members.

Yet, there is at least one element that was ignored in our initial framework (Figure 1-B) which requires further examination. A hint of this is provided to us by Latour's (1993) concept of hybridization of categories (in this case, the subject vs. the object) - a hybridization involving an interpenetration or 'alloying' of one category into another. Is this what happens in 'real life'? In both the case of the agenda sheet and the sketching of drawings, there were various degrees of gestures, inscriptions, mapping, various forms of record keeping and the like that was used. Goodwin (2003: 20) speaks of the "symbiotic" relationship between gestures and their objects, whereby the gesture's objects are integral components of the gesture itself. On the other hand, the actor is also integrally part of the gesture. It becomes somewhat tricky to define the clear cut boundaries between the bodies involved in the gesturing. Here, we are reminded of Glasersfeld's (2002: 90-91) words: "To grasp as a unit what was just presented is to cut it out of the continuous flow...Focused attention picks a chunk of experience, isolates it from what came before and from what follows, and treats it as a closed entity." Not only are the contents of the bodies changing with time (in terms of the changing form of the artefact as well as the increasing comprehension achieved by the subject), but the boundaries themselves seem to shift or become blurred.

The integral whole (of gesture, actor and object) becomes more easily understood as a phenomenon. Along these lines, Barad (2007) proposes an alternative onto-epistemology which she calls *agential realism*. Reality is viewed as a collection of phenomena involving the *intra-action* between agencies of observation and 'objects' (where both involve shifting boundaries or 'cuts'). These boundaries depend on context, points of views and observation apparatus configurations at hand. Observation apparatuses in themselves can involve both human and non-human bodily arrangements, which shift and intra-act with one another as phenomena. "Whereas the construct of interaction suggests two entities, given in advance, that come together and engage in some kind of exchange, *intra-action* underscores the sense in which subjects and objects emerge through their encounters with each other" (cited in Suchman, 2009: 267).

Required Enabling Conditions

Throughout the complexity of enactment and agency, boundaries between humans and non-humans are not given but constructed (Barad, 2007). "Boundaries are necessary for the creation of meaning, and are

therefore never innocent...Responsibility on this view is met neither through control nor abdication but in ongoing practical, critical, and generative acts of engagement” (Suchman, 2009: 285-286). Such an engagement involves perspectives to be aired and exchanged across verbal articulation and non-verbal body-movements (the latter being especially present within dynamic acts of boundary constructions between interacting individuals), whereby there is a continuous re-visiting and re-adjustments of ideas and concepts. Yet for this to happen, individuals must first feel secure to interact with one another within an environment of openness, trust, and respect. This is primordial for truly reciprocal dialogical interactions to occur whereby individuals feel comfortable in expressing themselves on the one hand, and to mentally ‘step into another’s shoes’ on the other hand (Enriquez, 1992).

Hence, it becomes important for management to nurture mutual trust and respect which in turn provides a psychological “safety net”, whereby people feel comfortable in learning and trying new ideas. Frank, the ECTR manager, spoke of a “parental” approach which requires a judicious balance between encouraging a gradual transition towards autonomy as members gain confidence and knowledge on the one hand, and always being present in the background so as to provide needed support when members face particularly daunting issues and problems on the other hand. The term ‘parental’ should not be misconstrued with the term ‘paternalistic’ (as referenced by various authors such as Crener and Monteil (1981), etc.) whereby management does not allow members to take the initiative towards making their own decisions, thereby severely limiting autonomy. Within Frank’s parental approach, we are reminded of Bateson’s (1978: 498) words:

“During the period when the acrobat is learning to move his arms in an appropriate way, it is necessary to have a safety net under him, i.e., precisely to give him the freedom to fall off the wire. Freedom and flexibility in regards to the most basic variables may be necessary during the process of learning...”

Within this environment, mistakes or errors are not condemned but rather seen as opportunities to learn, improve oneself and improve the group collectively across the sharing of ‘lesson’s learned’. Such a psychological “safety net” provides a shared belief amongst the members that the group “is safe for interpersonal risk-taking” (Edmonson’s, 1999: 351); and thereby encourages the willingness to learn, share and create new knowledge (Bogenrieder and Nooteboom, 2004).

CONCLUSIONS

In diverging with past perspectives of boundary objects, this paper first proposes the alternative concept of *boundary constructions*. This depicts a more active role on the part of individual actors and taps into specific elements of both radical and material constructivism: objects are not pre-existent but emerge from cognitive constructions (Glaserfeld, 2002), enactments (Weick, 2009), agency (Barad, 2007) and situated action (Suchman, 2009). In turn, these ‘objects as phenomena’ shape the very individuals that acted upon them. Boundaries between objects and subjects become ever more blurred in a manner similar to Latour’s (1993) hybridization of categories and Barad’s agential realism. Interactions become intra-actions. The active role of individuals in boundary constructions implies responsible engagements. Such engagements require trust and respect between participating parties, which in turn, requires management’s implication in providing a psychological safety net within the workplace.

This single case study prevents us from generalising our findings across the entire firm in question; and by extension, any manner of external validity outside of the firm's context. Additional workgroups/teams both within the existing firm and other high-tech institutions are to be envisaged.

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MULTI-CRITERIA ANALYSIS AND OPTIMIZATION OF FINANCES IN WATER RESOURCES: LESSONS LEARNT FROM PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

Water systems involve multiple criteria and measures of performance, or objectives, which should be optimized simultaneously. However, optimal performance according to one objective often implies low performance in one or more of the other objectives. This results in an ambiguous definition of the best solution in a set of candidate ones, since they may reflect the trade-off between the objectives. Thus, the process of multi-criteria decision making (MCDM) consists of two phases: the search for candidate solutions, and the decision-making to rank them.

This has resulted in the division of MCDM methods into two scientific areas: (1) multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA), concerned with the methods for making choices between solutions that represent trade-off alternatives, and (2) multi-objective optimization (MOO), which focuses on the search for candidate solutions. MCDA can generally be 'objective led' and 'alternative led' and a scientific community does not demonstrate bias amongst them. On the other hand, multi-objective optimization is a search for near optimal solutions in large spaces of feasible solutions; stochastic search engines such as genetic algorithms, simulated annealing or taboo search are widely employed to perform MOO. Finances, and in broader context economic set of decision making elements, related to water resources are pillars in related MCDA and/or MOO applications. The paper presents experience gained in water resource planning and management in Serbia and illustrates some challenges and lessons learnt in treating financial (economic) matters in several case studies.

KEYWORDS: multicriteria analysis, water resources, lessons from practice

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THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN TECHNOLOGICAL CAPABILITIES AND EXPORT SALES IN SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES OF METALWORKING INDUSTRY IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF THE STATE OF COAHUILA, MEXICO

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ABSTRACT

Trade liberalization in Mexico has caused a large increase in export sales; this activity may be a very important factor for the acquisition of technological capabilities in firms. Under this perspective, the aim of this paper is to analyze the association between the change (increase and decrease) in export sales and the technological capabilities developed in small and medium-sized enterprises (SME's) of the metalworking industry in the central region of the state of Coahuila, Mexico. The methodology consisted in the application of a structured questionnaire to 50 firms of the mentioned industry; the collected information was processed by the SPSS using the statistical tool Cross Tabs. The data analysis suggests an association between the change in export sales and the levels of development of investment capabilities, as well as the levels of importance the employers give to the variables: i) training and recruiting, and ii) search, evaluation and selection of technology (investment capabilities); iii) improvements to the plan, program and maintenance (production capabilities); iv) cooperation between companies in the same industry, and v) cooperation with other companies (linking capabilities); and, finally vi) purchase of machinery and equipment (manufacturing and adaptation of machinery and equipment capabilities).

JEL: O32, O33

Key words: technological capabilities, export sales, SME's, metalworking industry.

INTRODUCTION

In the ambit of economic and technological performance of organizations, regions, developed and developing countries, the literature highlights two key concepts: competitiveness and innovation (Tapias, 2005); in order to survive, grow and become competitive, firms require to develop their internal capabilities, which may be organizational and/or technological capabilities (Barney, 1991); acquiring these technological capabilities enables innovation in firms (Bell y Pavitt, 1995).

The estate of Coahuila, which is located in the north of Mexico along the border with Texas, has had a great increase in manufacturing production (Díaz, Acevedo and Ramírez, 2008); the SME's in the region need to increase their competitiveness through increasing their productivity, supporting the substitution of imports and increasing their export sales by integrating productive chains. (Simón y Rueda, 2004).

The objective of this paper is to analyze the relationship between export sales and technological capabilities that have developed the metalworking industry SME's in the central region of the state of Coahuila. This paper begins with a review of the literature on technological capabilities and export sales in firms, then the methodology used and the results are presented; finally, the conclusions and limitations of the study are detailed and the future lines of research defined.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Technological capabilities include information and skills -technical, institutional and managerial- which allow productive firms to effectively assimilate, use, adapt and change their equipment and technology, for existing technologies and also to create new technologies and develop new products and processes (Biggs, *et al.*, 1995; Jonker, 2002), in the same direction, Huq (2002) adds the human experience and appropriate institutional mechanisms and linkages. According to Bell and Pavitt (1995), technological capabilities are the resources required to generate and manage the technological change: knowledge, skills and experience, institutional structures and linkages within firms, between firms and outside firms. Morrison, Pietrobelli and Rabellotti (2008) mention that technological capabilities are the skills -technical, administrative and organizational- that companies need to efficiently use equipment and information technology. According to Carvajal (2010), technological capabilities are the skills or provisions that have been acquired through technological learning in a social and cultural environment.

The kinds of technological capabilities have been determined under different approaches: (Lall, 1992; Bell and Pavitt, 1995). The taxonomy developed by Lall (1992) includes investment capabilities, production and linkage, which are different; and although these capabilities may be interrelated, partly are overlap and strongly interdependent (Morrison *et al.* 2008). Bell and Pavitt (1995) developed an analytical framework of technological and industrial capabilities, with three types of technological capabilities: investment, production and support. Meanwhile, Domínguez and Brown (2004) determined 26 variables of the functions of investment, production and firm links. The functions used in this study are:

- Investment Capabilities: skills and information necessary to identify viable investment projects, to locate and purchase appropriate technologies for the design and engineering of the plant and for the direction and execution of the project (Biggs *et al.* 1995).
- Production capabilities: skills and knowledge necessary for the operation and improvement of the plant or equipment purchased by the firm (Biggs *et al.* 1995).
- Linkage Capabilities: knowledge, skills and experience required for the exchange of information, technology and skills with other companies and institutions (Bell and Pavitt, 1995).
- Manufacturing and adaptation of machinery and equipment capabilities, knowledge, skills and experience to improve and modify existing technology and the creation of new technology (Bell and Pavitt, 1995).

There are some differences from the results of the crossing the technological capabilities and the export sales: first, there is evidence of a significant positive relationship between them (Bhaduri & Ray, 2004; Rasiah, 2004). Export activity is strongly correlated with the ability to process technology, according to Rasiah (2004), who obtained a highly significant correlation with an extremely strong and positive coefficient. Production capabilities increase performance and competitiveness in the export sales process (Bhaduri & Ray, 2004), which guarantee an increase in export activities in firms. According to Pérez-Escatel and Perez (2009), the accumulation of technological capabilities is a variable that helps to explain

the exporter nature of the enterprises, because international competition stimulates technological change to continue with sales in international markets.

On the other hand, several authors report that the association between export activity and the accumulation of technological capabilities is not significant (Athukorala, 1995). Some studies present evidence concerning that, despite trade liberalization, Mexican exporting companies are still heavily dependent on imports of capital goods. Furthermore, these companies have not been able to strengthen and stimulate its technological capabilities, despite the demands of the competitive international market (Cimoli, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

The methodological strategy of this research was based on a quantitative approach by face to face surveying 50 entrepreneurs, this was the non-probability convenience sample of a population of 153 companies. The data was collected in 2007, using a structured questionnaire designed by the authors (Velarde and Araiza, 2010);

Subsequently, the questionnaire was elaborated using for the indicators each sub-dimension a Likert scale, asking if there had been activity related to each of the dimensions and the importance in the firm, from 1 to 5, where 1 was "not important" and 5 "totally important." On the other hand, the questionnaire included a question about the effect of export sales in the firm, during the last five years: if the export sales decreased, remained stable or increased. To obtain the development levels of technological capabilities, the authors identified previously three ranges according to the number of activities of technological capabilities carried out by the firms in this study: high, medium and low, established with cutoff points at the same numerical distance from each other (Velarde and Araiza, 2010).

RESULTS

Regarding to the crossing between the development level of technological capabilities and the change in export sales, there was found only significant results of a positive relationship in the investment capabilities. There was found a significant positive relationship between export sales and the level of importance of investment capability, and the sub-dimensions: i) training, recruitment and personnel selection, ii) search, evaluation and selection of technology. There were no statistical significance of association between the production capabilities and export sales, only for the sub-dimension: improvements to the plan, program and maintenance.

The level of importance of the linkage capability has a significant positive relationship with the change in export sales; also with the sub-dimensions: cooperation with companies in the same sector and cooperation with other companies. There were no significant results for a relationship between manufacturing and adaptation of machinery and equipment capabilities and the change in export sales of the enterprises, except for the sub-dimension: acquisition of machinery and equipment.

The contents of this section with respect to the results of analysis of the relationship between technological capabilities and export sales, confirms the findings in the literature as some authors (Braga and Willmore, 1991, Lefebvre, 2001; Bhaduri & ray, 2004) report that there is significant relationship between technological capabilities and export sales. As mentioned above, if the firms want to compete nationally and internationally, they require a great investment in human resources, physical resources and time, in activities aimed to the improvement of technology (Dahlman and Westphal, 1981, Ray and Bhaduri, 2001; Caniels and Romijn, 2003, Jonker, et al., 2006).

CONCLUSIONS

The main contribution of this work is to have found a statistically significant positive relationship between technological capabilities and export sales of SMEs in this study. The results show the interest of these firms to carry out their production processes with efficiency, with the aim of providing excellent service and / or product to the customer. Also, the results highlight the relevance of promoting the acquisition and accumulation of the mentioned capabilities in the firms, so that they can be more competitive in international markets.

Limitations: this research was conducted exclusively in a region, so the results and conclusions presented are limited to the population of this study. Future studies examining these variables in other contexts, using the same data collection instrument for further comparative studies, identifying differences and similarities.

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GLOBALIZATION PROCESS AND THE IMPACT OF IT GROWTH IN ALBANIA

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The globalization is the philosophy that support establishment of private company (business) without boundary and in the all word. It is the irreversible process. The ideology of globalization is that the world is the big market where each company, undistinguished the country, has the access (the right) to compete without national or local boundary with the others company. The footfalls of changes for some country are fast. During the human history in the all the world, the human beings has been connected. But now the process of relationship is so different. The airplane, the mobile, email, computer, the highs speed transfer of money are making the word more complicated. The multinational corporate produce in many countries and sell in the all the world. The money, the technology, and the stock have moved fast between the countries. Together with products and the finances also the ideas and the cultures are moved freely. The FDI are the most important factor for the development of the country and Albania has more to do to stimulate the foreign investments. How it will be the process of globalization for Albania? Why so many multinational corporate are addressed to invest in Albania? How can explain the fast economic growth of Albania? What are the factors that influence in the low level of FDI?

KEY WORDS: globalization, FDI, risk, development

THE CONSEQUENCES OF GLOBALIZATION UNDER ALBANIAN ECONOMY.

Globalization is an inevitable and irreversible process. To treat globalization so put as to raise the positive aspects and lower negative ones is maybe the biggest purpose of the millennium. Possibilities for the globalization to have success are enforced to expel new dangers, mostly to the developed countries. Albania lately has reached an adoption with the international institutions as BB, MNF, etc., making a step further into the global trade. Yet Albania needs an economical and political strategy, which will be able to drive the country on an active position to the global economy. Home-brew business is set upon globalization elements, which through a long-term strategy must exploit opportunities discovered by this new are of globalization. Globalization is a continues phenomena, never seized, but what changes is the utilization from its confederation. Globalization is shown in many ways but first it is seen under economical and financial terms. On this concept it can be conceived as a large and deep connection with the national economy under world trade goods, services and especially capital assets. As a result of the revolution in telecommunication and informational technology, on the last 15 years there have been huge progress on the trade connection and international exchange of capital as well as radical change on the form, structure and pace of production. The positive consequences are:

Economical Growth: It is theoretical argued that it will bring an efficient delivery of a country resources towards the sectors and fields where they have a competitive advantage. Focusing on the Albanian conditions, this means to high coefficient industries under working utilization force because of the low cost it has and this helps in the increase of the national economy. The poor layer will profit from this increase by getting employed from these industries. On the other hand it is essential to be invested on the human resources (education and training) to increase their working efficiency. There were made many researches by the World Bank and others, and they show that generally the rapidly increase of the economy is accompanied by the reduce of the poorness. This is the reason that the World Bank adds the

pressure on different states (including Albania) to be driven towards free trade and WTO. In fact, there is no lack of the facts of both success and failures. For the last mentioned, generally the fault remains to the performance of the national institutions.

Improvement of the Productivity: One of the most positive effects (approved by all) is the improvement of the productivity. This for the reason of the simplicity it brings on the investments and technology transfer through different countries. In order to reach this state, a transit period is necessary through which are needed to be developed and consolidated the country's structures, to guarantee a law functioning state, with the terminus to empower the trade's economy.

Increase of the rivalry between companies: Today, more than ever, companies are obliged to oversee the continuance of the quality of their products, to keep prizes on accepted levels and to present new products from time to time, and for this is required the constant improvement of the technology and the scientific researches.

Improvement of the relationships between different countries: through inclining the rate of the conflicts and through raising the rate of cooperation between them. As a conclusion, the increase of the chances for survival and success in the era of globalization needs an immediate role of the government and of other important principals for the Albanian economy reconstruction through specific programs which would drive the Albanian economy towards the sectors which have higher possibilities of development. Such are: industries with high coefficient of the usage of manpower, the organic agriculture, tourism, the medical and aromatic planting industry, the confections industry, etc.

Beside the positive effects, on the other hand globalization could increase the risk for the financial crisis in the developed countries. According to Stiglitz, "Small countries in development are like small boats. Quick liberalization of the capital trade which IMF aspires, is like sending the boat in a strong sea before closing the holes, or before training the captain, before taking safe tires. Even on best conditions it stands the possibility that the boats will drown when hit by an open wave" The confront of the civilization. The disappearance of the economical boundaries between countries, brings about the mixture of the different traditions and mentality and this could cause unexpected conflicts. The bankrupting of small companies, which will be obliged to accept the loss before giant companies, or to be their allies, under conditions established of course by the strong.

Increase of unemployment in western countries, which have high living-cost, because the companies of course will employ people from poor countries to apply a lower salary. Difficulty of control which means that each phenomena enlarging to global sizes, represents a danger, because every moment it can come out of hand and have unpredictable consequences. While the most known view of the globalization on the last decade is the rapid integrity of the stock and financial trades; trade and investments are the main power standing under the curtains of globalization. The discussions coming from the field of FDI are important part of the whole globalization process. FDI can play an important role raising the capacity of the hosts country in order to respond the chances offered from the world economy integration, a purpose known as the main one for the strategic development. FDI in the last two decades were part of the main elements of globalization and world economy. Companies from different countries are spreading more than ever taking part in many industries through direct investments. Economies competes virtually together to get rid of multinational companies. As a result, world investment fluxes have reached higher levels.

FDI and affects on the host places

Affects of FDI on the host places are visible. They are shown on the profits and costs.

PROFITS

Technology: According to the economists, multinational companies through FDI help to fill up the gaps between developed countries and those under development process (hosts) and they ensure smaller possibilities of increase in the host trades. According to this point of view, producers on developed countries have full access on productive knowledge not present on host counties. This productive knowledge could take the role of the technological survey, manger and marketing abilities, export contracts, coordinated connections between suppliers and customers and the good name. According to economists, the technological transfer could stimulate the economical growth of the countries under development. Besides technology, there is also the transfer of capital and manager abilities. So the host country can, through FDI and through multinational companies have access to the finances which are unavailable for the home-brew companies.

Manpower: The transfer of productivity and technology solves the problem that the intrusions from outside are good or bad for the workers in terms of salary. When the foreign company has untouchable product knowledge, then the technological transfer and other trainings will be seen in the human capital of the foreign company in the host country. This expansion of the human capital is seen in the higher productivity of the people which are paid with higher salaries.

The macro economical growth: The FDI connection as a macro economical growth and the stability of this connection is very important because the host countries evaluate pro's and contra's according to the foreign intrusions. The largest evidences are found in the studies made to the countries under development. For example: introductory investments analyzes in Greece, Taiwan, Indonesia and Mexico show positive contribution on the growth of these countries. The raise and enlargement seem to be stronger when foreign branches and home-brew firms compete directly with each other as in the case with the protected industries (Markusen, 1995, he is an advocate of this idea). Borensztein, DeGregorio and Lee (1998) find almost positive effects between FDI and the growth with the accumulation of the human capital in the host countries, admitting that they must be abundantly big so that the places can profit from the positive effects of the foreign fluxes growth.

Business circles: FDI can affect business circle model in the host countries, the transmission of the circles from outside trades and the crisis escort through trades. When countries under development are separated into two big groups: well integrated financial economies and non integrated, they both have connections to the macro economic world aggregates, with this connection not higher last decades compared with that of 1960-1970 (Kose, Prasad, Terrones 2003). The interdependence role of FDI and specifically multinational firms under the integration of business circle, is not yet explored totally. The specific contribution of the FDI under the business circle still remains an issue to be solved.

COST

Bad effects in the national competition: It happens that the multinational companies take over all the funds generated somewhere else to fill their cost. This can bring about the monopolization of the trade and bankrupting of the home-brew companies.

Negative effect on the balance fee: We have decrease of balance fee where the daughter company brings back into the mother country parts of the income. Also if the stock is imported from outside to the host countries of FDI then we have decrease of account of the balance fee of host country.

National sovereignty: Many of the times, the decisions for the host countries economy have to be taken from these multinational companies which show not so much interest for the host countries and most of the time the government of this countries has no control over them.

FDI growing in the future

The FDI fluxes is rapidly growing the last days. The highest fluxes of FDI in the world shows an economical environment always improving, this on the presence of reforms and political orientation towards investments. The growth of FDI has reached record levels. This was brought by/stimulated also by the extinction and international purchases of the companies. The higher the fluxes of FDI in a country the more occupation that country could have. FDI create more occupation in productive sectors than in any other sectors. Throughout the years many countries have created a welcoming environment on their places with the clear purpose to gain more funds to be invested in the country.

Structural and short-term conditions in favor of the growth of FDI Growth of FDI until 2009 is explained in 3 main factors:

- a. continuance of the long-term inclination which are engrossing for the multi nationalization of the companies
- b. long-term and short-term economical view characterized by stable growth and financial sources available
- c. necessity of new resources and opportunities for investments

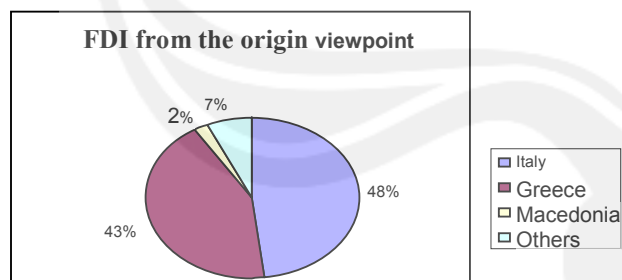
Governments of the countries under development perceive the FDI as a source for economical growth, this is also shown by the growing rivalry of the places interested for this investments. FDI play positive role in the economical development through intrusion of capital, contemporary technology, on the marketing and management field, on rebuilding the economy, speeding up the denationalize rate, entry of new job opportunities, raise of exports, improvement of the salary balance, etc. for all these reasons they hold a special importance, especially for the countries under development and it is necessary the creation of suitable strategies to attract these investments. Taking a glance at the value that foreign investment directly hold (FDI) for the economy of a country and the interest that Albania has shown towards it, I thought it was of a great value making a study of this kind.

FDI dispersion in Albania

We can say that FDI are settled on main towns like Tirana and Durres. Tirana as the capital of Albania is more exposed from investors, becoming the most important economical centre of the country and of human potentials. Tirana holds 80% of foreign or common capital investments and also branches, departments or representative offices of many multinational known companies which have invested in Albania over than 231 million euro. While Durres has the largest Albanian port holding 85% of the import-export services of the county. As it might be seen, the areas where FDI are centered are places with higher income rate and more developed infrastructure. The internal central part and the north-east part of Albania, are the least preferred areas from foreign investors. Beside the non-developed infrastructure of these areas and the missing marketing, it might have played a serious role also the internal and external migration, which makes it even harder the possibility of qualified manpower. However, a high percentage rate was found in terminal cities of Albania and Greece like Korca and Gjirokastra. Investments in industry have intended sectors of high manpower percentage and not those of capital and technology percentage leaving small window to the foreign investments role under technology transfer and on the growth of technological capacity production in Albania, through minimizing positive side-effects of these investments on other productive sectors.

FDI origin in Albania

From the origin viewpoint, Italy and Greece hold the leading position on foreign investments in Albania. FDI origin is 48% from Italy, 43% from Greece, 2% from Macedonia and Turkey and the remaining part belongs to Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, UK, USA, etc. On the contrary of other center and east European countries, Albanian FDI are connected to near-by countries. On this foreign capital stock viewpoint, at the end of 2004, almost 82% of this stock was held by the EU nations, with Greece as the main investor (with 48% of foreign capital stock in the end of 2004) and Italy (with 30%). Greece and Italy have raised meaningfully their presence on the foreign capital stock in Albania. The geographic connection of Albania and also the economical powerful cooperation with EU, are some of main reasons that these places host foreign investors.



Source: Albanian Bank

Italian investments are utilized on the western part of Albania, near Adriatic sea. The largest parts are held by small and medium industries, which handle construction works (35%), textile and shoes production (21%), trade and services (16%) and also with the agro-nutritive industry (8%) mostly coming from the south Italy. Italian firms profit from the rivalry advantage of working quality with low cost in Albania. Salaries are ten times lower than those in Italy. Italian investors profit from Italian Government grants focused to stimulate Italian investments in Albania. Greek investors are centered on south and south-east part of Albania. They follow trade more and only 2% are held with other different branches of

industry, like textile, clothing, production of leather products and tobacco. Over than 60% of Greek FDI come from grants offered by Greek Government for these firms, with the intension to invest in Albania.

Activity	Flux %
1. Trade	67%
2. Industry	17%
3. Agriculture	1.3%
4. Service	6%
5. Building	5%
6. Transport	4.7%

Source: INSTAT

FDI in agriculture: are on low rates, as a result of small and fragmented parcels of ground, limitations to take assets on rural areas, bad roadway infrastructure and difficult transport with the biggest trades of the region and area. Sectors which attract more investments in agriculture and other common industries are fishing, rehashing and conservation of the fish, food rehashing, olive oil refining, production of beverage and the production of wood.

On the service sector: FDI are focused on the bank service, retails and construction. Construction FDI are raising referring to the number of the companies and their activities. Many investors in construction come from Turkey, Italy and Greece. FDI will necessarily be lied on these fields as investments in infrastructure and habitation (business centers and living houses), based on the source fluxes from donation countries and also as a response of urban migration.

On the production sector: the largest part of the foreign companies take part on the final re-exportation and half-final products, most of which are textile, different articles of leather and shoes. They consist of around 60% of our exports and only in 2006 have reached a raise of 20%.

Factors affecting low level of FDI in Albania

Low levels of IDH in Albania could be attributed partially:

Slow process of the states medium and big companies denationalization under the industrial sectors which have high capital intensity and of the strategic sector like energy and telecommunication.

Low interest of foreign investors as a result of a political percept risk of the country connected with social violence on the past and on the other hand the political changes in Albania and the lack of stability in Balkan and Kosovo.

Image problem that Albania has created to the foreign countries.

Problems and conflicts connected with land ownership, bureaucratic procedures for the register of ownership rights, for the approval and construction license authorization create barriers to the foreign investments.

Informality levels of economy, which is a fact that brings about a wrong competition of trade.

Lack of efficiency and high cost of infrastructure (transport, energy, water) and the missing of industrial places for the FDI oriented towards export and tourism.

Lack of abundance in financial services, benches or not (low level of credits, low quality of financial services for the international trade, high rate of interest, high request for collateral, etc.

Low function of public institutions and low application of law.

Elements of a strategy to stimulate investments

FDI role could change from place to place, depending on the governmental and economy nature. There exists no ideal development of FDI that can be natural to all nations at all times.

This way Albania could attract three types of investors:

Investors based on the sources research: which could be interested in mineral reserves, forests, petrol, gas. First investment companies could be international companies of refinery or mine. Then it could be the aim towards production of the minerals.

Investors based on trade research: which could be companies interested to enter the Albanian consumption trade and the creation of a presence growing with the growth of the trade. On this category it is important the stimulation politics of FDI on strategic sectors (telecommunication, energy, bank sector, transport, water) as well as other private investments in infrastructure.

Investors based on the efficiency assumptions: (or FDI oriented towards export). These would be more outside of strategic sectors and infrastructure, for production of products in export and re-export.

Stimulation and attraction of FDI

The stimulation and attraction of FDI is a high rivalry and a specialized activity, on a growing number of the countries looking to attract active foreign investors and also from many systematic sponsored campaigns. Now a considerable experience is present on the strategies and techniques used for the attraction of FDI and in the part of which could function and which can not. Attraction Investment Agencies from all over the world use many techniques to attract FDI through:

Creation of image: is the most suitable when investors image over a place as a destination for investment is less favorable in reality, and where fore-requests to attract investments are present.

Investments generation: represents the identity of potential investors, which are more interested for a place, development of a strategy to contact and cooperate with them, with the intension to make them be involved in investing. Specific used techniques to generate investments include: campaigns through telephone and post, seminars for the investments, missions run inside and outside boundaries and the direct marketing.

Service towards investors: could split into two components: fore and after approval services.

Fore approval services : is focused on the investors approach referring to the requirements over which the decision to invest has already been taken and the project has been approved (if it is necessary)

Service after the approval: or after taking the decision if no approval is requested, is considered a necessary activity, including here bank field and industry operations on some fields like: assistance in having a indispensable infrastructure like telecommunication, energy, water and canalization: ensuring the main contacts with the government, business and community:

Satisfied investors are the best stimulation for a continuance of investments in the future;

Service towards investors is the element containing the most efficient cost, manageable in all stimulation activities for investment;

Maximization of the potential investors number which become actual investors enforce the reputation and image of a country;

Services towards investors are more indispensable in an investment place, where not all the elements are favorable and could face obstacles to realize investments from the interested firms.

Many of the countries have established success in attracting investments through the usage of these Agencies for the Investments stimulation (AIS). AIS have many important functions, including fulfillment of investment needs, maintenance of friendly politics towards business, and the cultivation and projection of the favorable image of a country as the destination of the investments.

CONCLUSION

The level of FDI in Albania remains on low rates, even though from 1999 it has been drastically grown in projects and flowing fluxes from investments.

The main causes for these low rates of investments are: the most important is the image of Albania into the international arena, this acquired from the political instability, economical one, perceptual risk, the slowing process of the denationalization mostly on strategic sectors, lack of responsibility and institutional ability, low application of law, lack of efficiency and low cost of infrastructure, lack of composition in comprehensive strategies of the social and economical development, impotence and overcharge of administrative taxes, etc.

Low intensity of foreign investors is due to the perception of a high risk connected with the social violence existing before and the political changes in Albania and also due to the lack of stability in Balkan and Kosovo.

Albania has some potential sectors and very good possibilities for the attraction of IDH, mainly in tourism (sector with much of the perspective also for the reason of favored natural conditions), services, transport, etc.

Agriculture in Albania have much possibility of development starting from the geographic positioning, its sources, quality and quantity of manpower. The country could become an important exporter of agricultural products with organic basis pointing at European and world trades.

Albania has not developed an effective strategy for the investment attraction. It is very important to mention here the lack of marketing territory. The territory marketing plays a very important role, especially to create the image of a country, its communication, approaching of investments.

The territorial promotion and attraction of investment agencies play a very small role according to their original function, this may be also from the lack of connection with the investors, or low approach from state authorities, etc.

Foreign investments must help Albania through chances of food elaboration to ensure foreign trades. The strategy for investment attraction in the agriculture field of Albania must decide the main perfumers and retailers in Europe and USA.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Albania must work to improve the environment where FDI are active, in order to acquire attract on higher and diverse levels.

Albania must attract FDI for products that the country is considered to have high international advantages at (actual or potential ones). Its important mainly that part of production which identifies the export products, for which the country have made possible a response to the growth of world trade (cotton trousers, shirts and cotton suits, rough tobacco, etc.). also it must utilize its potential on the field of tourism, agriculture, etc.

Albania must focus its energies on the service of actual and possible investors. The investors gratification is the best advertisement for the country and is considered as the most faithful source for other investors. The actual investors can stay longer and could raise their investments.

It is very important that Albania develops the territory marketing. Several efforts must be made through this marketing to improve its image.

The government must stimulate such politics to attract investors, it must speed up and finish the program for the return of the land. The land must be registered as soon as possible, mainly the urban land and attractive areas which serve to the trade development. To improve the efficiency of a solution to the disagreement of land and also to raise its administrative efficiency.

The government must utilize a strategic vision, which would decide for a number of long-term, medium-term and short-term efforts which give priority to the acceleration and finalization of program for the return of the land. to finalize the registration of urban land and trade development areas.

Main agent which could play the role of a contact, sustainer and promoter of the territory for the foreign investors are the Territorial development agents.

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON BRAND PERSONALITY IN MEXICO

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ABSTRACT

The principal objective of this study was to develop an exploratory investigation of the dimensions of brand personality in Mexico. An estimated 400 undergraduate students participated. They were given a questionnaire to measure brand personality divided into two sessions (six brands of think products in one session and six brands of feel products in another session). However, not all the students attended class on both days, so some completed only one of the two sessions. In the end, 313 participants completed the questionnaire on the six brands of think products (48.6% women; 51.4% men; $M = 20.44$, $SD = 1.76$), and 320 completed the questionnaire on the six brands of feel products (47.8% women; 52.2% men; $M = 20.60$ years, $SD = 1.83$). A total of seven factors were extracted from the brand personality scale: Success, Hipness/Vivacity, Sophistication, Sincerity, Domesticity/Emotionality, Ruggedness, and Professionalism. The author discusses the implications of the research for marketing practice and the meaning of these brand personality dimensions in the Mexican cultural context.

KEYWORDS: Brand personality; personality traits; gender

INTRODUCTION

Brand personality is defined as “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). Similar to human personality, brand personality is distinctive and enduring (Aaker, 1996, p. 141-142). Customers associate human personality traits with brands because they relate to brands as they would to partners or friends (Fournier, 1998), because they perceive brands as extensions of themselves (Belk, 1988), or because marketers suggest that brands have certain characteristics. The attribution of human personality characteristics to brands is of great interest among marketing researchers and practitioners, since understanding how consumers perceive products and brands can be useful for the elaboration and implementation of marketing actions. A brand personality can be used as a basis of differentiation from other brands and help to differentiate the brand from competitors in a particular product category.

Measurement of Brand Personality

Similar to the “Big Five” model of human personality (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae and John, 1992), brand personality is measured along five dimensions that uniquely apply to consumers’ characterization of brands (Aaker, 1997). It was with Aaker’s research (1997) that a generalizable (reliable and valid) scale was developed to assess brand personality (Koebel and Ladwein, 1999). Jennifer Aaker (1997) developed a theoretical framework of the brand personality construct by determining the number and nature of dimensions of brand personality traits. Aaker (1997) developed a measurement scale called the Brand Personality Scale, which consisted of 42 traits. Even when the sample was divided by age or sex, or when subgroupings of brands were used, five personality dimensions emerged. These five brand personality dimensions and 15 facets desired by many companies for their products are Sincerity; Excitement; Competence; Sophistication; and Ruggedness. The impact of this model has been so profound that since 1997 most of the academic publications about brand personality are based on Aaker’s methodology

(1997). With the aim of determining the adaptability of Aaker's original model (1997) to other cultures, the model has been used in other countries, such as France (Koebel and Ladwein, 1999), Japan and Spain (Aaker *et al.*, 2001), Mexico (Alvarez-Ortiz and Harris, 2002), Russia (Supphellen and Grohaug 2003), Korea (Lee and Oh, 2006), and Venezuela (Barrios and Massa, 1999; Pirela *et al.*, 2004). The studies conducted in these countries differed in three aspects: the use of Aaker's methodology (1997), the dimensions found, and the conclusions. In the study conducted in Mexico, Alvarez-Ortiz and Harris (2002) found a dimension called Gender, which was more representative than that of Ruggedness and contained only feminine and masculine traits. From this it appeared that Mexican consumers perceived brands with masculine and feminine traits, a perception that represented a bipolar dimension rather than the dimension Ruggedness. So in Mexico, the model consisted of Sincerity, Enthusiasm, Competence, Sophistication, and Gender.

This study aims to develop an exploratory investigation of the dimensions of brand personality in Mexico using the theoretical basis established in Aaker's study (1997) of personality traits, since we found only one study about brand personality in Mexico. Given that different brand personality dimensions have been found in other countries, in the case of Mexico it was not expected to find exactly the same dimensions as Aaker (1997) did in the United States and Alvarez-Ortiz and Harris (2002) did in Mexico, because this study differs from the study conducted in Mexico in the methodology, brand selection, sampling used, and characteristics of participants. It was expected to find more coincidence with the dimensions originally proposed by Aaker than with those found in other countries because of the geographic proximity of Mexico to the United States, the influence the United States has on Mexico, and the characteristics of the sample (students with an upper-middle socioeconomic level who are accustomed to buying U.S. products when they spend vacations in the United States). In addition, in Mexican culture masculinity and femininity are still prominent characteristics and sex roles are still markedly accentuated in some sectors. As Alvarez-Ortiz and Harris (2002) found in the study of brand personality in Mexico, in this study it was expected that a dimension related to gender would also be found in this study as a result of the macho culture in Mexico.

Thus, the following hypotheses were made:

H₁: Brand personality in Mexico will be identified by at least five dimensions similar to those established in other cultures. Moreover, the brand personality dimensions will be more similar to those that Aaker originally proposed, compared with those found in other countries.

H₂: At least one brand personality dimension will be related to gender (masculine and feminine traits).

METHODOLOGY

Brand Selection: Following the FCB Grid by Ratchford (1987) and Vaughn (1986), which allows products to be classified as feel or think and as having high or low involvement, four product categories were selected: (a) laptops as think products with high involvement; (b) shampoos as think products with low involvement; (c) perfumes as feel products with high involvement; and (d) soft drinks as feel products with low involvement. A total of 90 students completed a survey in which they were asked to write the first three top-of-mind brands for these four product categories. Finally, using a combination of top of mind and top of share, the 12 brands selected were the following: a) Laptops: Dell, HP, Apple; b) Shampoos: Pantene, Herbal Essences, Sedal; c) Perfumes: Ralph Lauren, Hugo Boss, Chanel; and d) Soft drinks: Coca-Cola, Pepsi, Sprite.

Participants and Procedure

The research adopted a nonprobability convenience sampling. Participants were recruited from the Tecnológico de Monterrey, Campus Guadalajara, Mexico. An estimated 400 undergraduate students participated from the classes that were selected as part of the study. They were given a questionnaire during class time divided into two sessions: In the first session, half of the sample was given the section of the personality scale for the six brands of think products, and in the second session, after the week of rest, they completed the six brands of feel products. The other half of the sample began with the six brands of feel products, followed by the week of rest and then the six brands of think products. However, not all the students attended class on both days, so some only completed one of the two sessions. In the end, 313 participants completed the questionnaire on the six brands of think products (48.6% women; 51.4% men; ages between 17 and 25, $M = 20.44$, $SD = 1.76$), and 320 completed the questionnaire on the six brands of feel products (47.8% women; 52.2% men; $M = 20.60$ years, $SD = 1.83$).

Measures: Even though Aaker (1997) provides a brand personality scale, and there is a Spanish (Castilian) brand personality scale (Aaker *et al.*, 2001), these could not be assimilated into the Mexican culture and language. Therefore, a rigorous scale-adjustment process was necessary. Consequently, the original Brand Personality Index (BPI), which includes 42 items of brand personality traits developed by Aaker (1997), was translated to the Spanish language, with modifications to some items for the Mexican culture and language. A pilot study with 85 students was conducted to validate the Spanish version of the Brand Personality Index created especially for this study. The questionnaire had 42 items of brand personality traits and respondents had to assign a value from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely) to each attribute. A principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation procedures was used to modify or rewrite the items, as necessary, before applying the scale to the definitive sample. After the statistical analysis with the pretest study, 10 items were changed and the other 32 items remained the same.

RESULTS

Brand Personality Dimensions

For the validation of the brand personality scale, it was designed that each participant evaluated the personality of the 12 brands in each of the 42 items that composed the questionnaire. This way the total of the sample for the validation of this scale was made up of 3798 evaluations, which were used for the rest of the statistical analyses. To extract the underlying brand personality dimensions, it was used exploratory factor analysis (Principal component) with Varimax rotation. Without forcing the number of factors, a factorial solution of seven factors was obtained: Success, Hipness/Vivacity, Sophistication, Sincerity, Domesticity/Emotionality, Ruggedness, and Professionalism. As can be seen in Table 1, the indices for all of the dimensions were quite high, with the exception of Ruggedness and Professionalism, which had more moderate coefficients due to the fact that these dimensions consisted of only three items each. Nevertheless, the alpha coefficients that were presented in the first five dimensions demonstrate that the scale had a satisfactory internal consistency whose values oscillated between .75 and .91. The internal consistency of the seven factors, evaluated by the alpha coefficient, was .95. The amount of variance of the data explained by this solution was 60.3%.

DISCUSSION

The principal objective of this study was to develop an exploratory investigation of the dimensions of brand personality in Mexico. In function of these objectives, two hypotheses were made that were reviewed and corroborated with the results found in this study. Hypotheses H_1 and H_2 were partially confirmed. In hypothesis H_1 it was hypothesized that brand personality in Mexico would be identified by at least five dimensions similar to those established in other cultures, and that those would be more similar to those that Aaker (1997) originally proposed, compared with those found in other countries. Seven dimensions of brand personality were extracted in this study. Although the factor loading of the brand personality traits in this sample differed from other samples and in particular from Aaker's study (1997) due to differences in culture and language, three of the brand personality dimensions were very similar to Aaker's findings (1997): Sincerity, Sophistication, and Ruggedness. Nevertheless, other dimensions that were found in this study, such as Success, Hipness/Vivacity, Domesticity/Emotionality, and Professionalism, were found to carry more specific cultural meanings. Although the dimension Competence remained constant in all of the countries investigated, in this study three of the personality traits (hardworking, technical, and corporate) that made up Competence in Aaker's study (1997) formed a new dimension that it was called Professionalism. Additionally, the personality traits that made up the dimension Success in this study coincided with personality traits that were part of the dimensions Excitement and Competence in Aaker's study (1997). For Hipness/Vivacity, personality traits were found that coincided with four of the traits that made up the dimension Excitement in Aaker's study (1997).

Thus the dimensions Success and Hipness/Vivacity could correspond with Aaker's dimension Excitement. Finally, the dimension Domesticity/Emotionality was made up of three personality traits that correspond with Aaker's Sincerity dimension and one trait each from Aaker's Sophistication and Ruggedness dimensions. These results imply that the brand personality dimensions that were found in this study were more similar to those that Aaker originally proposed, compared with the dimensions found in other countries. With respect to hypothesis H_2 it was expected that at least one brand personality dimension would be related to gender (masculine and feminine traits) as was true for the study conducted in Mexico (Alvarez-Ortiz and Harris, 2002), in which they found a dimension with masculine and feminine traits, which they called Gender. However, contrary to expectations, in this study the feminine and masculine traits were not as accentuated in the personality dimensions.

The results showed that the brands were not perceived only as traditionally masculine or feminine, but instead I intuit that there are different types of masculinity and femininity. The consumers in this study did not perceive the brands as simply feminine, but instead perceived two different types of femininity. One type is the woman who represents elegance and glamour, and is upper-class, Western, and feminine. On the other hand, they perceived some brands with a different type of femininity: the woman who is affectionate, friendly, provincial, emotional, and family-oriented, or in other words, the woman who in Mexico is called a *ranchera* (small-town, country bumpkin) and who is represented by a large part of the population, perhaps the type of woman who represents a socioeconomic class that is uneducated or from past generations such as those of their mothers or grandmothers. As for masculinity, it was perceived as rugged and strong, represented by the personality dimension Ruggedness. And perhaps in this dimension we can glimpse another type of man, the man who is professional, corporate, and hardworking, and who has technical knowledge. Without a doubt, although gender will always form part of the personalities of brands, and especially in Latin American cultures, in which gender roles are still very traditional, the meaning associated with brands differs depending on the samples used, the types of products, and the historical moment.

Table 1: Results of factor analysis: Brand personality

Factor Name	Items	Factor Loading	M (SD)	Eigen-value	% of variation	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Success	Leader	.672	3.69 (1.15)	15.43	36.73	.91
	Successful	.654	3.97 (1.04)			
	Original	.606	3.68 (1.15)			
	Up-to-date	.584	3.86 (1.09)			
	Imaginative	.578	3.66 (1.12)			
	Secure	.513	3.69 (1.13)			
	Unique	.494	3.50 (1.21)			
	Trendy	.474	3.79 (1.13)			
	Real	.44	3.73 (1.11)			
	Daring	.437	3.51 (1.19)			
2. Hipness/Vivacity	Independent	.43	3.56 (1.18)	2.76	6.56	.85
	Exciting	.422	3.36 (1.17)			
	Young	.755	3.77 (1.16)			
	Spirited	.645	3.71 (1.10)			
	Cool	.626	3.77 (1.13)			
	Cheerful	.576	3.67 (1.13)			
	Charming	.494	3.68 (1.14)			
	Confident	.478	3.97 (1.04)			
3. Sophistication	Contemporary	.446	3.67 (1.10)	2.15	5.12	.80
	Good looking	.773	3.47 (1.27)			
	Glamorous	.747	3.40 (1.29)			
	Upper-class	.721	3.49 (1.27)			
	Western	.513	3.77 (1.16)			
	Feminine	.477	3.29 (1.36)			
4. Sincerity	Honest	.696	3.47 (1.18)	1.65	3.92	.85
	Sincere	.658	3.47 (1.12)			
	Reliable	.627	3.68 (1.15)			
	Wholesome	.596	3.35 (1.30)			
	Down-to-earth	.548	3.48 (1.15)			
	Intelligent	.513	3.71 (1.10)			
5. Domesticity/Emotionality	Family-oriented	.665	3.03 (1.33)	1.20	2.86	.75
	Smooth	.643	3.32 (1.18)			
	Friendly	.547	3.55 (1.14)			
	Small-town	.536	2.50 (1.26)			
	Sentimental	.493	3.43 (1.17)			
6. Ruggedness	Outdoorsy	.438	3.15 (1.35)	1.14	2.71	.63
	Masculine	.76	2.89 (1.37)			
	Rugged	.746	2.60 (1.28)			
7. Professionalism	Tough	.456	3.51 (1.18)	1.03	2.46	.55
	Technical	.69	3.13 (1.23)			
	Corporate	.672	3.43 (1.30)			
	Hardworking	.561	3.35 (1.20)			

Theoretical Contributions And Managerial Implications

Although the “Big Five” model of human personality (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae and John, 1992) has been advocated as a basic paradigm for personality description and assessment, the utility and comprehensiveness of the “Big Five” has recently been challenged (see Benet and Waller, 1995; Block, 1995). Recent research has established the structural robustness of the “Big Seven” model of human personality across samples and targets (Benet and Waller, 1997) and demonstrated that the “Big Seven” were cross-culturally and cross-linguistically robust personality dimensions that are were subsumable by the “Big Five.” This further evidence for the “Big Seven” factor model suggests that we probably need to

reinterpret the “Big Five” brand dimensions toward a “Big Seven” model. The five dimensions of Aaker’s (1997) original model cannot be generalized to other cultures, as Aaker *et al.* (2001) had already proposed, since the different brand personality dimensions reflect the meaning that is given to them through marketing strategies that may be different from the values of each culture. However, the scale created to measure brand personality is sufficiently reliable, valid, and robust to be used to obtain consistent results for each type of target population and to select different products and brands. The results found in this study also represent important implications in the areas of marketing and management, since they permit us to conclude that it is valid to use a more direct approximation of the original methodology of Aaker (1997) by using a scale that measures brand personality.

Limitations And Future Research

This study has limitations; the first concerns the sample. Mexico is a country with many public and private universities, and thus future research should compare these findings with personality taxonomies from other institutions or Mexican states. Moreover, future research is needed to determine whether brand personality is different in various geographical and cultural contexts. As a final point, it would be important to study the process by which a brand personality is built, the most important factors in forming a personality impression, and the factors that allow the stability over time of that personality.

In conclusion, the results of the study suggest that a Mexican taxonomy of personality trait terms should include at least seven higher-order personality dimensions, and that future research is needed to verify the stability of brand personality dimensions for different brands and with other Mexican samples. Also, the possibility of using local Mexican brands and product categories could be helpful in improving the generalizability of results.

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AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS ON ANTI-CORRUPTION LEGISLATION AND STRUCTURES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

The subject of this inquiry is anti-corruption with specific reference to legislation, government structures and challenges within public sector which needs to be addressed. The emphasis is on corruption that is emanating within the public sector. The need to strengthen legislation is more coherent in a way that corruption is eradicated. The paper explores significant roles played by anti-corruption structures. The paper analysis legislation made towards eradicating corruption and functions of anti-corruption structures in the public sector. The results of such analysis are used to answer the question that this paper asks. The paper aims to evaluate progress made by anti-corruption structures in combating corruption in the public sector.

INTRODUCTION

Corruption in the public sector is a major concern and it probes government to act on the matters that affects the country. The assignment seeks to elaborate on the concepts of corruption further more it also explains much more on the issues of manifestations of corruption and it will seek to explore on the ways that can be prompted to minimise corruption in the public sector. Officials of government are usually held accountable on the issues of corruption, so the assignment seeks to highlight the legislative framework set on the issues of combating corruption in the public sector. Corruptions are caused by individuals being greedy towards something of importance. Corruption erupts from the onset of an individual not appreciating the work of government to work, usually corruption interrupts service deliver within the public sector. The assignment will explore much on the issues that deals with corruption at its best. Most government officials are very sensitive when coming to the issue of corruption.

Concepts of the Word “Corruption”

Corruption is the abuse of entrusted power for personal gain for the benefit of a group to which one owes allegiance. It involves behaviour on the part of officials in the public sector, whether politicians or civil servants, in that they improperly and unlawfully enrich themselves or those close to them by the misuse of the public power entrusted to them. According to Cloete (1996:28), the word corruption is used to refer to a dishonest, bribable, fraudulent or dishonourable action by a political a office-bearer, public official or other person. Every such corrupt action will be an unaccountable action. Corruption occurs in all countries, regardless of levels of social and economic development. It is most likely to occur where public and private sectors meet, and especially where public officials have a direct responsibility for the provision of a public service or the application of specific regulations or levees.

Types of Corruption

Corruption may be divided into three categories:

Petty corruption: practised by public servants who may be grossly underpaid, and depend on small rents from the public to feed their families and pay school fees; and

Grand corruption: of high public officials who make decisions involving large public contracts.

Political Corruption: Gildenhuis (1991:47) defines political corruption as ‘government crimes’, and identifies three forms of such crimes, namely, election fraud, official violence, and institutional misconduct.

Election fraud: Political parties and their supporters may use unethical tactics to secure an election victory. These may include tactics such as spreading false rumours, miscounting votes, declaring ballot-papers invalid after defacing them, and adding pre-marked ballot-papers for their candidates

Official violence: Official violence usually manifests itself during protest action, labour disputes, and demonstrations. It could also occur when citizens are deprived of their political and other rights and freedoms by way of legislation and other similar suppressing measures. Official violence can also be very subtle. For example, if pensioners have to wait in long queues in the sun to receive their allowances, it can also be regarded as official violence.

Legislative Framework That Provides Measures in Combating Accountability

Public Finance Management Act No. 29 of 1999

To regulate financial management in the national government and provincial

To ensure that all revenue, expenditure, assets and liabilities of those governments are managed efficiently and effectively

To provide for the responsibilities of persons entrusted with financial management in those governments

To provide for matters connected therewith.

Municipal Finance Management Act No.56 of 2003

To service sound and sustainable management of the financial affairs of municipalities and other institutions in the local sphere of government

To establish treasury norms and standards for the local sphere of government

To provide for matters connected therewith

Public Service Act, No. 30 of 2007

To provide for the establishment of government components and specialised service delivery units within departments

To revise the effective date of actions and the effect of collective bargaining

To provide for the correction of actions

To redefine the different employment capacities in the public service

Financial Management of Parliament Act No.10 of 2009

To regulate the financial management of parliament in a manner consistent with its status in terms of the constitution

To ensure that all revenue, expenditure, assets and liabilities of parliament are managed efficiently, effectively and transparently

To provide for the responsibilities of persons entrusted with financial management in parliament

To provide financial management norms and standards for provincial legislatures and to provide for matters connected therewith

Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2000

To provide for the core principles, mechanism and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic upliftment of local communities and ensure universal access to essential services that are affordable to all

Public Audit Act No. 25 of 2004

To give effect to the provisions of the constitution establishing and assigning functions to an auditor-General

To provide for the auditing of institutions in the public sector

To provide for certain obsolete legislation and to provide for matters connected therewith

Public Protector Act No. 23 of 1994

To investigate any conduct in State affairs, or in the public administration in any sphere of government, that is alleged or suspected to be improper or the result in any impropriety or prejudice

To report on that conduct

To take appropriate remedial action

Investigate the abuse of or unjustifiable exercise of authority, other improper conduct or undue delay by any public official in performing a public function

Improper or unlawful enrichment of a person performing a public function

An act or omission resulting in unlawful or improper prejudice to a member of the public

Prerequisites for Fighting Corruption

Adoption of ethical corruption Fighting corruption requires a clear ethical commitment by political leaders to combat corruption wherever it occurs. One promising extension of the principle is the establishment of a public sector ethical code in some countries. The code sets out the ethos, which should guide those in managerial/leadership positions; it reminds them of their responsibilities to the public and requires declarations of assets and income. Yet, these codes have not met with great success, mainly because of lack of enforcement. Establishing and maintaining ethical codes depends on a number of critical conditions: The ethical environment must be accepted by a broad segment of the public sector; Deviations must be dealt with equally and consistently across the public sector; The ethical environment requires political commitment and leadership, as well as broad support by civil society.

Improved Remuneration

The inadequacy of public sector salaries contributes greatly to corrupt activities at the level of need, of petty corruption. Ensuring living wages is crucial to public sector efficiency and effectiveness.

Administrative reform: Organizational change within the public service can help minimize the opportunities for corrupt practices. Such measures include: Improving work methods and procedures to reduce delay; Increasing the effectiveness of supervision to enable superior officers to check and control the work of their staff; Carrying out surprise checks on the work of officers; Instituting in-service training for civil servants at all levels, together with the formulation and dissemination of clearly-defined ethical guidelines and rules of conduct; Developing internal financial management systems that ensure adequate and effective controls over the use of resources; Providing channels for complaints to enable junior officials to complain about their superiors' corruption; Rewarding achievement, recognizing good behaviour and acclaiming role models; Making the necessary security arrangements to prevent unauthorized persons from having access to a department's premises; and Reviewing the anti-corruption measures taken once in three to five years with the aim of introducing further improvements. A discretionary element in decision-making contains the potential for abuse. Eliminating discretionary decisions altogether, while resolving the dilemma, would be impossible and impractical. Instead, in those areas where discretion must be maintained, it would be more realistic to reduce the "monopoly power" of bureaucrats by providing rival sources of supply.

Disclosure of income/assets/gifts: One of the key instruments for maintaining integrity in the public service is the periodic completion by all in positions of influence of forms stating their income, assets and liabilities. Disclosure of assets and income certainly will not be accurately completed by those taking bribes. However, it will force them to record their financial position and, in so doing, lay an important building block for any subsequent prosecution.

Policy and programme rationalization: Public programmes riddled with corruption can sometimes be reformed through redesign and rationalization efforts. The **first** option, however, is programme elimination. Many countries have rules and regulations that, if honestly administered, serve no broad public purpose. They can and should be discontinued. Other programmes might serve a valid function, but are not effective where corruption is endemic. Second, the programme's basic purpose could be retained, but redesigned to make it simpler and easier to monitor. For example, if economic efficiency is a programme goal, then reforms could introduce legal, market-based schemes, but simplification will not always reduce corruption if the rules are very rigid. Bureaucratic rigidity frequently breeds illicit

behaviour on the part of both public servants and suppliers. Thus, simplicity will work only if it is not excessively arbitrary and if senior officials or independent enforcement officials aggressively pursue anti-corruption measures. Finally, privatisation of state-run enterprises and services can reduce the opportunities for corrupt practices, mainly because private sector accounting methods and competitive market pressures can reduce corruption and make corruption more difficult to hide. These benefits, however, must take into consideration the possible adverse effects of privatisation (unemployment of public servants and risk of private sector monopolies).

Improved procurement procedures: Public service procurement procedures can be improved in the following ways: Procurement should be economical. It should result in the best quality of goods/services for the price paid, or the lowest price for the stipulated/acceptable quality of goods/services; this does not necessarily mean procurement of the lowest priced or best quality goods available, but the best combination of these factors to meet the particular needs. Contract-award decisions should be fair and impartial. Public funds should not be used to provide favours; standards/specifications must be non-discriminatory; suppliers/contractors should be selected on the basis of their qualifications and the merit of their offers; there should be equal treatment of all in terms of deadlines and confidentiality.

The process should be transparent. Procurement requirements, rules and decision-making criteria should be readily accessible to all potential suppliers/contractors, preferably announced as part of the invitation to bid/make an offer; opening of bids should be public; and all decisions should be fully recorded. The procurement should be efficient. The procurement rules should reflect the value and complexity of the items to be procured; procedures for small-value purchases should be simple and fast; purchase value and complexity increase, more and more complex rules are required to ensure that principles are observed; “decision-making” for larger contracts may require committee and review process, but bureaucratic interventions should be kept to a minimum.

Accountability is essential. Procedures should be systematic and dependable, and records should be maintained that explain and justify all decisions and actions. Competence and integrity in procurement encourages suppliers and contractors to make their best offers, in turn leading to improved procurement performance. Purchasers that fail to meet high standards of accountability and fairness should be identified quickly as poor partners with which to do business. A sound and consistent framework is required to establish the basic principles and practices to be observed in public procurement. This can take many forms, but there is increasing awareness of the advantages of a unified Procurement Code setting out the fundamentals and supplemented by more detailed rules and regulations of the implementing agencies. A number of countries are consolidating existing laws that may have developed in haphazard fashion over many years, into such a code.

Institutions That Combat Corruption

Anti-corruption agencies: governments have sought to bolster detection efforts by introducing independent anti-corruption agencies or commissions. Given that prevention is more efficient and effective than prosecution, a small investigative and monitoring unit with appropriate authority – perhaps reporting directly to the legislative body – may be much better placed to ensure that effective preventive steps are identified and taken. To operate successfully, an anti-corruption agency should possess the following: committed political backing at the highest levels of government: political and operational independence to investigate even the highest levels of government: adequate powers of access to documentation and to question witnesses; leadership which is publicly perceived as being of the highest

integrity. It is important that the agency has the power to freeze those assets it reasonably suspects may be held on behalf of people under investigation. It may be desirable for the agency to do so prior to getting a court order when speed is of the essence. Without this power, funds can simply be transferred electronically in a matter of minutes. This presupposes the need for a vital tool – a well thought-out and effective system for monitoring the assets, income, liabilities and lifestyles of decision makers and public service officials.

Public Protector (Ombudsman): The ombudsman constitutes an office that independently receives and investigates allegations of mal-administration. The primary role of the ombudsman is to examine: a decision, process, recommendation, act of omission or commission which is contrary to law, rules or regulations, or is a departure from established practice or procedure; is perverse, arbitrary unjust, biased, oppressive or discriminatory or, involves the exercise of powers motivated by bribery, jobbery, favouritism, nepotism, and administrative excesses; and neglect, inattention, delay, incompetence, inefficiency and ineptitude in the administration or discharge of duties and responsibilities.

Supreme audit institutions: Responsible internal financial management is crucial to national integrity, but supreme audit institutions are in many ways the linchpin of a country's integrity system. As the agency responsible for auditing government income and expenditure, the supreme audit institution acts as a watchdog over financial integrity and the credibility of reported information (as well as "performance" or "value-for-money" auditing).

Public Service Commission: The Public Service Commission is competent to: investigate, monitor, and evaluate the organisation, administration and personnel practices of the public service propose measures to ensure the promotion of efficiency and effectiveness in the departments of the public service give directions aimed at ensuring that personnel procedures relating to recruitment, transfers, promotions and dismissals comply with the values and principles of public administration investigate grievances of officials in the public service and to advise national and provincial governments regarding personnel practices in the public service, including those relating to recruitment, appointment, transfer, discharge and other aspects of the careers of officials in the public service According to Vil-Nkomo (1996: 21), the Public Service Commission ensures effectiveness and contributes to conformity in the total system of governance.

Auditor General: According to Moeti (2007: 107) the functions of the Auditor General is to, investigate and audit all the accounts and financial statements of: all departments of the central, provincial and local spheres of government, and any statutory body or any other institution which is financed wholly or partly by public funds Furthermore (PSC, 2001:13), the objectives of the office of the Auditor General with respect to forensic auditing are to: determine the nature and extent of the perpetration of economic crime and the adequacy and effectiveness of measures that should have either prevented or detected them facilitate the investigation of economic crime in general by providing support to the relevant investigating and prosecuting institutions.

Special Investigating Unit: The Special Investigating Unit (SIU) carries out investigations as referred to it by the President through publication of proclamation in the Government Gazette. The President of South Africa may refer a matter to the SIU for investigation only on the following grounds: serious maladministration in public sector institutions improper conduct by elected officials unlawful expenditure of public funds unapproved transaction intentional or negligent loss of public money or damage to public property public sector corruption unlawful conduct which causes serious harm to public interests.

Human Rights Commission: In terms of Section 184 of the Constitution the Human Rights Commission must promote ethical conduct by monitoring and assessing the observance of human rights in South Africa. The Commission has the authority to require relevant organs of the state to provide it with information on the measures that they have taken towards the realisation of the rights specified in the Bill of Rights (Du Toit et al., 1998:160).

National Prosecuting Authority: The head office of the National Prosecuting Authority has the power to: institute and conduct criminal proceedings on behalf of the State; carry out any necessary functions incidental to instituting and conducting such criminal proceedings; discontinue criminal proceedings

CONCLUSION

Corruption as an illuming factor in the public sector needs to be rooted in manner that legislative framework be revisited to ensure a proper governance in the public sector. The public officials must be more accountable in such a way that it brings corruption to an end. Measures to put officials accountable be implemented in such a way that it totally brings the work and monies of government to action. The parliament must establish more commissions that will oversee the actions of departments actions against corruption, in a way corruption in the public sector will be minimised at its best and people will be able to account for their actions. Proper strategies be implemented in rooting corruption in the public sector. Behaviours of the officials should be ethical at all cost, furthermore, officials must account for each and every actions they do. Bringing answerability to officials will lead to proper accountable public sector.

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THE CRISIS OF TEACHER TURNOVER. A THREAT TO PUBLIC SERVICE STABILITY

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ABSTRACT

In spite of numerous strategic interventions by the department of basic education to retain educators in the profession, the department continues to bleed with a significantly high number of educators leaving the profession. This attrition of skilled personnel has had an attendant adverse effect on the capacity of the state to realize its millennium development goals which amongst others is to achieve universal primary education by 2014. A key focus of the South African government strategic objective is to ensure that the country has skilled expertise in various fields i.e. commerce, education, industry, science and technology etc. This can only be possible in an environment of sustained investment in the area of human capital development by the government.

In the arena of education which is the main focus and thrust of this article, a significant contribution of the country's fiscus has been directed to the area of teacher development. Despite these gargantuan efforts on the part of government, there continues to be a brain drain with a high turnover of educators leaving the profession. A tacit indication of this massive investment in education is the fact that of the total of R165 billion budgeted for education, R2.7 billion has been earmarked for teacher development which clearly points out to the strategic importance of leadership and human capital development as critical areas of the broad human resource development goals of the state.

KEYWORDS: Crisis, South Africa, Teacher Turnover, Training.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research objectives will be explored in the study

- To provide a theoretical overview of management and leadership in education.
- To undertake a scientific analysis of the reasons behind the high turnover of educators from the profession.
- To provide recommendations with a view to arresting the malaise and making the profession an attractive one to young people.

INTRODUCTION

Research has revealed that institutions in South Africa periodically assess their employee's needs and levels of needs satisfaction. They follow a "one size fits all" approach (Robbins, Odendaal, Roodt, 2003:131). The attendant effect of this approach has had the invariable effect of demotivating and demoralizing employees to an extent that productivity levels are negatively affected. One of the famed points of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory refers to the inextricable relationship between high and low order needs. This means that as much as employees can achieve self actualization, it is equally pertinent that low order needs pertaining to remuneration, job satisfaction be satisfactorily addressed.

The existing literature on leadership, power and influence processes; and provides a theoretical basis for understanding the leadership process in formal organizations (Jacobs, 1970:1). Literature supporting leadership and effective leadership in particular is ever increasing. This implies that the success of any institution or of any group within an institution depends largely on the quality of its leadership. In general

therefore, it is critically important that individuals are positively influenced towards the achievement of goals for the success of the institution. The relevance of this statement lies in the fact that to achieve the goals of quality education in South Africa, it is a *sine qua non* that educators be treated as professionals, with dignity and respect, which is hardly the norm currently.

MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

In the South African context formal education consist of a total of 12 years of schooling divided into 7 years of primary schooling and five years of secondary schooling. The national department of Basic Education is charged with the legislative responsibility to manage education at this level. The department is led by the minister flanked by her deputy, the director general and his deputies and is replicated almost the same in the nine provinces of the Republic of South Africa.

Provinces are themselves divided into districts of education which like Gauteng province can manage up to 2424 ordinary schools. Districts can in turn be divided into 12 like in the case of Gauteng province. However this number will vary based on the unique demographics of each province. The districts are given the responsibility to manage the number of schools in their respective area of jurisdiction (Department of Education, 2011). A cluster of about 5 schools will be led by an academic support officer referred to as Institutional Development Support Officer (IDSO) whose responsibility is to provide both strategic leadership and management support to the principal and his/her School Management Team (SMT).

Teachers teach and work in schools that are usually administered by managers, who are known as principals or headmasters. The conditions of teachers' working life is influenced to a greater extent by the administration and leadership provided by principals, and it is widely assumed that school leadership directly influences the effectiveness of teachers and the achievement of outcomes of learners (Harlinger and Murphy, 1986) in (OECD, 2001:1). Principals are supposed to be dynamic and organic individuals able to motivate teachers to ensure that the goal of quality education and leadership is provided to learners and their immediate communities. The objective conditions however demonstrate that a number of these managers are found wanting in so far as the provision of dynamic leadership is concerned.

The Mathew Goniwe School of Leadership has been made available for principals to undertake leadership and management training. This institution provides strategic management training to school managers. Strategic management and planning requires a radical shift for schools that previously focused on short term tasks and adopted a culture of dependency. The reality is that despite these interventions, there is limited evidence of a strategic approach to school management (Moloi, 2008: 466).

The overview outlined in the preceding paragraphs is meant to provide a contextual analysis of the situation prevalent in the schools and its attendant contribution to the problem of teachers leaving the profession in droves. Hall, Altman, Nkomo et al (2005) postulate that the process to change one's job is preceded by a process of job evaluation and determining alternative employment opportunities. Dissatisfaction with the workplace can be a very strong incentive to seek alternative employment opportunities elsewhere. This implies therefore that leaving one's place of employment is not a decision to be taken lightly particularly in the context of the tough economic conditions in South Africa and globally especially in the past two years of the global economic meltdown. However as will be outlined below South Africa continues to experience a situation where teachers are resigning from the profession. The following factors although not exhaustive are amongst some of the fundamental reasons behind the high turnover rate of teachers from the profession.

EDUCATOR WORKLOAD

The advent of the new curriculum of education the Outcomes Based Education and the National Curriculum Statement (NSC) has meant largely the erosion of instructional time into the programmes of teachers and schools (Chisholm, Hoadley, Kivulu et al. 2005). Teachers are now burdened with additional administrative responsibilities that were in the past the preserve of clerks employed by schools. These administrative responsibilities amongst others include the capturing of learner marks (Continuous Assessment /CASS), filling of learner portfolios without the attendant provision of office space, preparing learner reports, compiling data on learners progress on a quarterly basis which form the basis of the progress reports, preparing reports on learners social and family background, pastoral duties, professional duties like meetings, workshops, seminars, conferences and countless other responsibilities as enshrined in Chapter 3. 3.1 (b) of the *Employment of Educators Act* (Act 76 of 1998).

Over and above this, teachers are supposed to provide leadership in number of committees which in certain schools can number up to 15. These committees, range from Learners-Teacher Support Material, Sports, Fundraising, Exam etc. These committees take an inordinate amount of the time teachers are supposed to spend in the classroom. For instance the declaration by government that a majority of schools in the townships and rural areas to become “no fee schools” as reflected in the *Education Laws Amendment Act* (Act 24 of 2005) has placed the management of these schools with an additional responsibility to source their own funds for other activities other than those that have to do with teaching and learning. This is because the Act only makes provision for the funding of activities related to teaching and learning i.e. learner teacher support material and infrastructural development. This then requires teachers, parents and learners to utilize precious teaching time to organize activities like beauty pageants in order to supplement the meager funds the school has in its kitty.

The amount of time that teachers also spent on planning for lessons is disproportionate to the actual period that they should have in presenting lessons in class. Heads of department occasionally check teachers files with the main focus being whether the teachers has daily, weekly and quarterly lesson preparation forms for his/her subjects. On average teachers spent 43-46% of their time in the classroom teaching whilst national policy expect teachers to spend between 64% -79% of the 35 hour weekly schooling period, on actual teaching (*Employment of Educators Act*, 1998). Mention must also be made that in some schools hardly any teaching takes place after lunch on Fridays and this trend is also reflected on pay days when educators receive their salaries. The situation is much more acute in rural areas where banks are situated far from places of work, forcing educators to leave work early on month end, navigate treacherous roads in an effort to be the first access financial institutions like banks.

Most educators end up feeling stressed because of their inability to cope with this workload and studies have revealed that a significant number of teachers are absent from work as a result of psychological factors, fatigue, physical illness necessitated by being overworked. Yet despite research from previous research studies (Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Mwamwenda, Monyooe & Glencross, 1997) in Milner and Khoza (2008, 4) reveal that teachers stress levels in South Africa is extremely high and little appears to be done in the education sector to combat or ameliorate the high levels of stress that teachers experience. This coupled with the fact that there is still a significant number of vacant posts in the profession which clearly points out to the need for the hiring of more teachers means the problem of heavy workload will continue unabated in the foreseeable future. It is within this context that a lot of educators are resigning from the profession for other perceived greener pastures.

TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO

One of the critical factors leading to increased workload is the historical inequality in pupil teacher ratios. At one stage it was reported that Kwazulu Natal Provincial Department of Education had the highest teacher-pupil ration at 38:1 (Jarvis, 1999). Personal experience has been that in certain classes a teacher would have up to 51 learners in class. International comparative studies were able to reveal that the trend in some countries like the UK is 18:1 with countries in North Africa standing at an average of 19:1 (Huebler, 2008: 1). School Governing Bodies (SGB's) at historically advantaged institutions are able to use their massive budgets to employ additional teachers to alleviate the problem of high teacher-pupil ratios. Sadly the same privilege cannot be enjoyed by schools in historically disadvantaged area owing to lack of resources.

The goal of universal education for all young people is regrettably being pursued at the expense of teachers whose labour is being exploited with little regard to their well being. The end result is teacher's inability to provide individual attention to slow learners with the consequent effect of adversely affecting the provision of quality education, which is needed if South Africa is to be a competitive player in the global world of commerce, technology culture, international political institutions and the economy.

LOST PRESTIGE

Most studies undertaken by researchers, casual glance at matters of education and just general observation reveals that the prestige that the teaching profession had in the period before 1990 has largely degenerated. Kayuni and Tambulasi (2007: 91) in one of their papers point out that in the 1940's-70s teachers were seen as bringers of progress, modernity and development and were rewarded and respected accordingly. The profession which produced educators of note like the esteemed Zephania Mothopeng, Khambule et al has now become the last resort amongst students when they enroll at institutions of higher learning. Teachers were the considered the *crème de la crème* of society. Unfortunately the professional prestige associated with teaching has been declining at an alarming rate. If you can randomly enter any classroom in a South African school and ask learners their careers of choice, the likelihood of finding a learner interested in pursuing teaching as a profession is minimal

In an effort to arrest this malaise, The Department of Basic Education has made available the Funza Lushaka Bursary Scheme to entice students to enroll for the teaching program at universities in South Africa. Recipients of the bursary are required to teach at a school for the same number of years that they receive the bursary (Department of Basic Education, 2008). Preliminary studies are able to reveal that a number of students apply for the bursary scheme not because of the attraction to teaching as a profession but rather as a result of the broader socio economic situation in South Africa. This implies to avoid the likelihood of sitting at home without any prospects of employment "enrolling for teaching is better than nothing"; "At least you are guaranteed that you will find work after completion of your studies " which is a popular mantra amongst young South Africans. The same cannot be said about millions of young South African who are unemployed and with no foreseeable prospects of getting money to enroll at institutions of learning. Extensive studies are however yet to be conducted to ascertain as to what extent has this intervention assisted in restoring the attractiveness of the profession to young people.

The general decay in the moral fiber of society has to a larger extent also contributed to the degeneration of the teaching profession invariably contributing to many educators leaving the profession. The profession is generally perceived to have gone to the dogs. Learners at schools are generally disobedient,

ill disciplined and have no regard for authority. Bullying is only regarded as a Grade 2 offence in the Code of Conduct (2007:16) drafted by the Department of Education. This means that unlike Grade 4 offences which can be reported to the SAPS, bullying is largely considered a minor offence even though its effect in the main have also contributed to lady teachers fearing for their safety at schools. The promulgation of legislation outlawing corporal punishment has left teachers powerless to deal authoritatively with growing acts of intimidation associated with bullies in schools. The principle of *in loco parentis* is no longer the cornerstone of teacher-learner relations in schools owing to the fact that learners have all the rights and power to determine the school agenda as they deem it fit.

Nonexistent security in schools has left teachers vulnerable to gun toting learners and their friends in surrounding communities who are able to enter school yards at will and terrorize teachers. Instances of learners' physically attacking teachers have been widely reported in the media that they are no longer newsworthy. Teachers have become numb and are used to these phenomena. The South African Police Service conducts regular searches at schools and illegal weapons ranging from guns, dagga, knives and other drugs have been found on learners (Looklocal newspaper, 2011).

TEACHER REMUNERATION

Beardwell and Holden (2001:514) explained that the salary of a particular job reflected beliefs about the worth of jobs based on scope, level of responsibility, skill requirements, objectionableness of duties, commercial worth and strategic relevance. Over and above that Bull (2005,22) in Begley & Czaika, 1993; Chiu, 2000;Tharenou,1993) postulate that job satisfaction is an important area of research because it is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation and lower levels of absenteeism, turnover and burnout. As a result of the trifle remuneration enjoyed by teachers in the public sector, organizational performance has been seriously compromised. This goes against the grain of the provisions of the *White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery (1997)* (Batho Pele) in particular section3 (8) value for money which require public servants to provide services economically, effectively and efficiently. This principle cannot be achieved on the kind of salaries teachers receive.

The Cape Professional Teachers Association an employee body that looks after the conditions of service of educators argued that up to twenty thousand teachers leave the profession every year (IOL News, 2008). In a reply to a parliamentary question, the Minister of Basic Education indicated that “between 2005 and 2008 24 750 teachers left the profession”. She further said that “South Africa is only producing 8000 teachers annually when about 20 000 teacher graduates are needed” (IOL News, 2010). A significant number of these teachers are poached by overseas countries with promises of better conditions of service and in particular better salaries. Of concern is the fact that South Africa is losing the best teachers in scarce skills areas like mathematics, science, technology and languages. One teacher Dudley Stuurman who is qualified to teach mathematics up to Grade 12 pointed out that he is leaving the country to go and teach in Bahrain in view of the fact that “the R6500.00 I get after tax is not enough for me to pay for a bond and a car “. Teachers complain bitterly that on the salary that they receive it is extremely difficult for them to qualify for bonded houses neither do they qualify to get the free RDP houses government provides to the needy.

Recruitment agencies have reported that they receive up to 250 calls a month from teachers interested in being placed on their waiting list for possible opportunities to teach abroad where they are likely to receive up to three times the salary they receive in South Africa (Footsprint Recruiting, 2009). The

Department of Basic Education is now recruiting educators at countries such as Zimbabwe and Cuba particularly in areas such as mathematics, science and technology. This practice defeats the country's skills development agenda given the fact that after the contracted period of work the expatriate teachers will simply pack their bags and leave for their homelands without having transferred the requisite skills to local teachers. It is therefore not surprising to see a significant number of educators leaving the profession for better job avenues elsewhere.

The Department of Basic Education has introduced a performance based reward system called the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) in an effort to enhance quality assurance in the teaching fraternity. The public was informed that "IQMS signals a new approach to performance evaluation in the South African school system" (Report on the IQMS, 2006). Teachers were to be remunerated in accordance with their performance in and outside of the classroom. However for teachers to be adequately rewarded for their performance there is a need for the evaluation process to be conducted by properly trained managers.

The reality in South Africa is that the Development Support Groups (DSG's) consisting of the teachers' immediate supervisor the Head of Department (HoD) and a peer educator have been found wanting with regard to capacity in implementing the basic principles of the IQMS (SADTU-The Voice, 2009). The end result has been that almost all educators in the system have been receiving the 1% once off annual amount based on "performance" irrespective of whether the teachers has been providing a quality service or not. The fact is matric results in South Africa have been progressively declining in quality over the years coupled with the poor performance of learners in mathematics and science, and in international literacy assessments (compared with their peers internationally (City Press, 3 July 2011). This is indicative of amongst others the general discontent of educators with their condition of service and in particular the poor salaries they receive.

LABOUR DISPUTES

One of the fundamental reasons behind the massive migratory movement of teachers from the professions has been demonstrated over the years by the high number of teacher's strikes in particular over poor salaries. Haffajee and Bisseker (2002; 30-32) point out that teacher's widespread demonstrations, picketing and strikes has been the order the order of the day in South Africa. Almost every year teachers in the public service engage in organized and wildcat strikes over the conditions that they find themselves in. More often than not the strikes end not because teachers are happy with the outcome of salary negotiations, but rather because they feel the pinch of the salary deductions that are to be effected on their salaries in line with the principle of no work, no pay as enshrined in the *Labour Relation Act* (Act 66 of 1995).

The teacher's strikes have become an annual ritual with the issue of salaries always at the centre of the dispute between the employer and the employees. In an effort to provide their kids with quality education, many parents are taking their children out of the public schooling system and enrolling them in private schools despite the exorbitant monies they have to pay. This signals a motion of no confidence in the public schooling sector largely as a result of the unending teachers strikes bedeviling this sector. Bernstein (2010) argues that "these strikes have highlighted the government's failure to improve apartheid era education levels that have South Africa as one of the most unequal societies in the world. A doubling of the education budget to R165.1 billion (\$22.4 billion) in the last five years has failed to reverse a decline in the number of educators leaving the profession.

DEPLOYMENT & REDEPLOYMENT

In allocating staff to classes, account should be taken of the qualities, experience and expertise of teachers and matching these to curricular objectives. Where applicable, the redeployment of teachers should be carefully planned and regularly reviewed to good effect (IIEP, 2009). With the advent of democracy it was hoped that teachers in historically advantaged schools would be willing to contribute to the democratic project by offering to be redeployed to historically disadvantaged schools with high intake of learners and a poor resource base. The intention was also to achieve a reasonable ratio of one teacher to 30-35 learners. However only a negligible number of teachers took up this offer. This has left a bitter taste for predominantly African (black) teachers who have not seen the fruits of integration as envisaged by the democratic project.

Many disillusioned teachers left the profession and opted to take severance packages. Included in this group were some of the most experienced members of the profession. With the subsequent exodus of teachers from the profession, government was compelled to rehire the retired teachers and to lure them back meant the negotiation of compromises which included offering these teachers senior management positions in the schools (Chudnovsky, 1998:1). This move generated a great deal of bitterness amongst teachers left in the profession and led to subsequent resignations owing to the perception that they were not taken seriously as working professionals.

Teacher disillusionment has also been caused by what is referred to as cadre deployment, where members of the ruling party get preference over promotional posts. While other teachers with the requisite skills, experience and qualification may spend their entire career as Post level one educators (entry level), members and leaders of the South African Democratic Union (SADTU) which is an alliance partner to the ruling party, the African National Congress (ANC) get preferential treatment when it comes to promotional posts in the public sector. This occurs irrespective of whether these members are qualified or not (News24.2011) A lot of teachers and, civil society and members of the public have bemoaned this practice as part of the spoils system the ruling party is renowned for. The practice has had an attendant effect of demoralizing and demotivating committed and competent teachers who are ultimately lost to the profession because they cannot stomach this blatant system of patronage and being overlooked despite their competency.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The legacy of apartheid has left the profession in dire straits. Hopes that the advent of democracy will tilt the scale in favour of the professionalization of the teaching profession have not materialized as expected. The massive financial injection in education has not been met with the concomitant investment in the teacher as one of the most fundamental constituent part of the education milieu. In order to halt the high teacher turnover, the following recommendations can arrest this negative trend:

- Decisive well thought measures over and above the Fundza Lushaka bursary scheme need to be commissioned to market the attraction of teaching as a profession.
- Competitive remuneration packages have to be offered to teachers almost equal to those offered by independent schools to halt this migration.
- The professionalization of teaching not as a theory but rather in practical terms.

- Incentives for teachers who continuously produce good results is necessary in order to motivate and inspire them to remain in the profession.
- Massive investment in infrastructure development seeing that one of the causal factors of high pupil-teacher ratio is the shortage of schools particularly in rural areas.
- Enforcement of strict disciplinary measures on learners will restore the confidence of teachers in the profession and make them buoyant to go an extra mile in providing quality education to learners.
- To seriously invest in the area of teacher training and development unlike the current trend where teachers are trained in the implementation of a new curriculum in 5 days and be expected to be competent.
- Reopening of teacher training colleges to cope with the increased demand for teachers.

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THE IMPACT OF MECHANICAL GUIDANCE AND JUSTIFICATION REQUIREMENT ON JUDGMENT OF AUDITORS OF DIFFERENT RANKS IN MATERIALITY DETERMINATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the impact of providing mechanical guidance and justification requirement on decision making of audit managers and audit seniors of Big N firms in planning materiality determination. This paper fills the gap by examining materiality decision in the planning stage as previous research papers have focused mostly either on materiality decision at later auditing stages or on materiality decision on accounting issue and accounting restatement. Using an experimental methodology, we find that first the mechanical guidance could limit attention of auditors of both ranks and thus weaken their risk awareness. Second, justification requirement could increase cognitive effort of audit managers but could not significantly influence audit seniors. Finally, we do not find the interaction effect of mechanical guidance and justification on both audit managers and audit seniors. This paper provides useful implications for standard setters, regulators as well as financial practitioners by shedding light on the limitation of providing mechanical guidance in planning materiality determination and emphasizing the benefits of justification requirement, which likely depend upon either the familiarity with the justification task or auditors' roles or both.

KEYWORDS: guidance for materiality, justification requirement, audit planning

INTRODUCTION

Following the collapse of Enron, a greater number of public users of audited financial statements have questioned the audit materiality of the financial reports, which in turn erodes the creditability of the financial statements. Materiality is viewed as an excuse for auditors to avoid litigation. Determining overall materiality or materiality for planning is important for auditors because it affects the whole auditing process. Big audit firms have provided guidance for setting materiality levels, such as certain percentages of earnings before taxes, which we call mechanical guidance hereafter. But one large audit firm in Thailand ceases providing mechanical guidance for materiality determination this year. Since types of decision aids or guidelines have differing impacts on judgment performance (Asare and Wright, 2004), this paper investigates the impact of providing mechanical guidance on auditors' judgment on planning materiality determination. Justification is found to increase auditors' judgment performance (Ashton, 1992; Wheeler and Arunachalam, 2008). This paper examines the main effect of justification requirement on auditors' planning of materiality determination. Besides the environmental factors, this paper also studies a personal factor captured by professional rank.

This paper would fill the gap by examining materiality decision in the planning stage as previous research papers have focused mostly either on materiality decision at later auditing stages, such as recording or

waiving audit differences (Hermanson, 1997; Braun, 2001; Esters and Reames, 1988; Morris and Nichols, 1988; Carpenter et al., 1994; Ng and Tan, 2007) or on materiality decision on accounting issue (Carpenter and Dirsmith, 1992) and accounting restatement (Chen et al., 2008). In addition, this paper would provide some insights for standards setting bodies and practitioners what types of materiality guidance should be provided to auditors as it presents the direct effects of both provided mechanical rule and justification. The next section discusses hypotheses development followed by the research methodology. The experimental result section discusses the impact of mechanical guidance and justification requirement on auditors' judgment. The last section concludes this research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Even though the materiality has become increasingly important for auditors, it is difficult to find the optimum materiality level which might be at different levels for different persons. The standard setters and regulators have put more effort into issuing the materiality guidance to accommodate auditors' decision making. Some large audit firms have internally developed mechanic guidance and imparted it to their audit staff members to assist the latter when planning materiality so as to raise internal consistency in audit firms. But one big audit firm in Thailand starts using only materiality framework instead of providing mechanical guidance this year. This practice indicates that the mechanical guidance could present both advantages and disadvantages to an auditor when making a decision. Studies have shown benefits of mechanical guidance in raising efficiency (McDaniel, 1990), accuracy, consistency, and consensus (Ashton, 1992). On the contrary, some studies show the drawbacks, such as limiting thinking efforts (Todd and Benbasat, 1992; Asare and Wright, 2004; Wheeler and Arunachalam, 2008), especially when used with ill-structured tasks, and lowering thinking efforts toward preferential decision called confirmation bias (Bedard and Biggs, 1991). Based on the anchoring effect (Joyce and Biddle, 1981), the given mechanical guidance which suggests basis and percentage range for planning materiality determination is expected to limit auditors' attention and induce auditors to ignore relevant risk factors. Specifically, we posit that auditors with the provided mechanical guidance would set higher planning materiality amount than those without the mechanical guidance.

H1: In determining the planning materiality, auditors will set higher (lower) materiality amount when they are provided (not provided) the mechanical guidance.

Justification is another technique that has been used to motivate people to increase cognitive and physical efforts to do the tasks, but this does not necessarily leads to performance improvement due mainly to the task complexity (Chang et al., 1997). When an individual is required to write down the evidence or reason to support his decision, it would require more cognitive effort and more deep thinking. Justification is found to increase accuracy and consistency of judgment (Ashton, 1992). On the contrary, when an individual is not required to provide justification, he could make a decision quickly and might not deeply and carefully think about relevant information. Auditors who are required to justify their planning materiality determination would think more thoroughly about relevant risks and be more aware of their decision. Thus, we hypothesize that auditors with justification requirement would concern more with relevant risks, which leads to lower materiality amount for planning.

H2: In determining the planning materiality, auditors will set lower (higher) materiality amount when they are required (not required) to make justification.

Even though the guidance and justification requirement were found to increase the accuracy of auditors' judgment on classification of bond ratings, the interaction effect between these two factors has not been examined (Ashton, 1992). The justification requirement was found to remedy confirmation bias by forcing participants to deeply assess reasons to support their answers, whereas the factor evaluation checklist (structured checklist) could not reduce the confirmation bias occurring during information search strategies of tax professionals (Wheeler and Arunachalam, 2008). Explicitly, this paper posits that auditors who are required to justify their decisions would set lower materiality amount than those without justification requirement when auditors are provided the mechanical guidance.

H3.a: Under the availability of mechanical guidance, auditors with justification requirement will set lower materiality amount than those without justification requirement.

When auditors are not provided with the mechanical guidance, they are not limited in their scope of thinking. Justification requirement is an incentive tool to encourage auditors to think more deeply and thoroughly through relevant risk information. As a consequence, without mechanical guidance, auditors who are required to justify their decisions would think more deeply and carefully of all relevant information. Specifically, this paper posits that without mechanical guidance, auditors with justification requirement would set lower materiality amount than those without justification requirement.

H3.b: Without the mechanical guidance, auditors with justification requirement will set lower materiality amount than those without justification requirement.

Besides the environmental factors, guidance, as well as justification, personal factors are found to affect auditors' judgment performance (Tan and Kao, 1999; Tan et al., 2002; Chang et al., 1997; Rose, 2007; Agoglia et al., 2009). Since different auditor levels perform different task demands, the importance of each attribute of each auditor level in performing assigned tasks successfully would be different (Emby and Etherington, 1996; Tan and Libby, 1997; Tan, 1999). During the planning stage, auditors must understand their client's business and assess engagement and inherent risks. Audit managers are likely to perform less structured tasks, such as evaluating client plan, assessing management attitude or aggregating risk assessment, while audit seniors perform more structured tasks, such as determining ownership of entity or determining unusual accounting policies (Abdolmohammadi, 1999). Since managers encounter various pressures, both outside and inside audit firms, they manage and balance pressures in order to succeed in their career. Their tacit managerial skills become one of the most important attributes for their success (Tan and Libby, 1997). In addition, experience with the task will enable auditors to develop their knowledge which leads to higher performance. Hence, this paper posits that a higher professional rank auditor (manager level) can better judge on planning materiality by incorporating more relevant risks in comparison with a lower rank auditor (senior level).

H4: Regardless of the effect of guidance or justification requirement, audit managers could incorporate more related risk factors or set lower planning materiality amount than audit seniors.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and procedure

We engaged 85 audit managers (mean audit tenure = 10 years) and 123 audit seniors (mean audit tenure = 4 years) from Big N firms in Thailand but excluded one audit manager and three audit seniors as they

failed to answer the experimental case completely. Almost all of the participants have audited manufacturing companies and ninety-one percent of the participants reported their familiarity with their firms' mechanical guidance. We separately conducted our experiment during in-house training sessions run by each audit firm. The different experiment sessions did not significantly impact planning materiality determination ($p = 0.09$). We did not put a constraint on time in our experiment as it could impact participants' decision (Ordonez and Benson, 1997; Glover, 1997; McDaniel, 1990). Each session took approximately 30 minutes. The combination of the mechanical guidance and the justification requirement yielded four case types. Participants were randomly assigned to each case.

Table 1: Case material based on mechanical guidance and justification requirement

	With Mechanical guidance	Without Mechanical guidance
With Justification requirement	Case 1	Case 3
Without justification requirement	Case 2	Case 4

This table shows the combination of two environmental factors in constructing the experimental cases

All participants received a package of case comprising client's background information, the two-year consecutive financial statements, and distinctive answer sheet for determining planning materiality amount. After completing the materiality task, they provided demographic information.

Independent variables

Our research design is a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ between subject variables, with mechanical guidance (provided versus not provided), justification requirement (required versus not required), and auditor level (manager versus senior) identified by each audit firm. Under the provided mechanical guidance, the following instructions adopted from the Audit and Accounting Manual (2005) of the American Institute of Certified Public Accountant (AICPA) are shown step by step in the case material:

Step 1: Use 5% - 10% of earnings before income taxes

Step 2: Use 1% - 1.5% of total assets or total revenues, whichever is higher

Step 3: Take the higher amount of (1) or (2) as planning materiality

In the absence of mechanical guidance, we provide only materiality definition as *"The planning materiality level will be used to determine the audit procedures in order to get sufficient evidence for issuing an audit opinion and to assure that financial statements have no material misstatement or errors that could impact the decision of financial statement users"*.

The justification condition requires participants to write down their reasons to support their determination of materiality. We did not manipulate in such a way that their reasons will be reviewed by their supervisors. Thus, the justification condition in this paper could be a weak form of justification requirement. Under no justification requirement, participants are not required to write any reasons to support their decision.

Dependent variable

Participants are required to provide the basis and percentage used for calculating the materiality amount. Then, the final amount of materiality will be calculated and used as dependent variable.

Case Materials

We initially used material events as indicated by Pinsker et al. (2009) because they included both quantitative and qualitative material events that auditors should be concerned with in materiality judgment. Some inherent risks and control risks of inventories and fixed assets were added to the case materials. The client for this case is a manufacturer of steel assemblies. We selected manufacturing industry because specific industry knowledge, such as that of financial institution industry, is not required. The overall information of client (“ABC public company”) and summary of comparative financial information for two years were given. The current year in the case presented a profit from selling obsolete machines for about 3.48 million Baht, which was recognized as “other income”. The current machinery was expected to be in use for the next seven years. This implies that gain from selling obsolete machines in the current year was a non-recurring item which should be excluded before calculating materiality for planning. In addition, the company invested in one associated company four years ago, but this year it has just received dividend for the first time in the amount of 4.4 million Baht. This dividend income was expected to be excluded before calculating materiality for planning. The case materials were reviewed and commented by one senior manager and two audit partners from two big audit firms.

We manipulated the financial statement by showing high total assets (192.72 million Baht) while having earnings before taxes of only 17.24 million Baht. If the participants followed the guidance, they would set the materiality amount 1%-1.5% of the total assets. If participants took into account the nature of business and concerned more relevant risks, they would use earnings before taxes as the initial base for materiality determination. Since the case states that the company has just received dividend from an associated company invested four years ago and this year the company has gains by selling fixed assets, which is not expected to recur for another seven years, participants would adjust for these two one-time items before calculating materiality for planning.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Hypothesis 1 expects that the materiality amount determined by auditors with the existence of mechanical guidance will be higher than that set by auditors without guidance. As predicted, Table 2 shows that the main effect of mechanical guidance is statistically significant ($p = 0.0011$) and Table 3A also reveals that the natural logarithm of materiality amount under guidance provision is higher than that under no guidance condition (6.67 versus 6.40; $p = 0.0008$).

Table 2: ANOVA results of natural logarithm of materiality amount determined by auditors

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Between-Subjects					
Guidance	3.498	1	3.498	10.98	0.0011***
Justify	0.975	1	0.975	3.06	0.0819*
Level	0.072	1	0.072	0.23	0.6343
Guidance x Justify	0.005	1	0.005	0.02	0.8997
Guidance x Level	0.027	1	0.027	0.08	0.7730
Justify x Level	0.832	1	0.832	2.61	0.1077
Guidance x Justify x Level	0.076	1	0.076	0.24	0.6255
Error (Total)	59.904	195	0.319		

*This table shows main significant effect of guidance and marginal impact of justification requirement. ***, ** and * indicate significance at 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively*

Table 3A: Main effect and Two-way interaction of Mechanical guidance and Justification requirement: Natural logarithm of Materiality Amount (standard deviation) for all participants

Mechanical guidance	Justify	No Justify	Main effect of guidance	Compare contrast
Present	6.61 (0.37) Cell GJ = 49	6.73 (0.50) Cell GNJ = 49	6.67 (0.44) Cell G = 98	GJ – GNJ = -0.12 (p = 0.31)
Absent	6.33 (0.59) Cell NGJ = 50	6.46 (0.73) Cell NGNJ = 48	6.40 (0.66) Cell NG = 98	NGJ – NGNJ = -0.13 (p = 0.26)
Main effect of Justification	6.47 (0.51) Cell J = 99	6.60 (0.64) Cell NJ = 97		

This table presents the natural logarithm of materiality amount rather than materiality amount for each combination of guidance and justification requirement. This transformation is done to comply with homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions.

The second hypothesis expects that justification requirement could increase thinking effort of auditors. The results in Table 2 reveal that justification requirement marginally affects materiality determination of auditors ($p = 0.0819$). Table 3B shows the marginal impact of justification requirement (6.47 for justification versus 6.60 for no justification; $p = 0.1$).

Table 3B: Main effect and Two-way interaction of Justification requirement and Auditor ranks: Natural logarithm of Materiality Amount (standard deviation) for all participants

Justification requirement	Managers	Seniors	Main effect of Justification	Compare contrast
Justify	6.37 (0.56) Cell JM = 41	6.55 (0.47) Cell JS = 58	6.47 (0.51) Cell J = 99	JM – JS = -0.18 (p = 0.15)
No justify	6.65 (0.46) Cell NJM = 50	6.56 (0.75) Cell NJS = 56	6.60 (0.64) Cell NJ = 97	NJM – NJS = 0.09 (p = 0.42)
Main effect of Auditor ranks	6.51 (0.53) Cell M = 82	6.55 (0.62) Cell S = 114		

This table presents the natural logarithm of materiality amount rather than materiality amount for each combination of justification requirement and auditor ranks. This transformation is done to comply with homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions.

Table 2 illustrates that the interaction effect of guidance and justification insignificantly impacts materiality determination, while the main effect of mechanical guidance significantly influences the materiality determination and the main effect of justification marginally affects the materiality determination (p value of interaction effect = 0.8997; p value of main effect of guidance = 0.0011; p value of main effect of justification = 0.0819). This suggests that there would not be interaction effect between mechanical guidance and justification requirement.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b predict that justification requirement could increase thinking efforts and lead to assessing relevant information more deeply and thoroughly both in the presence and absence of mechanical guidance. Specifically, hypothesis 3a posits that under the availability of mechanical guidance, auditors with justification requirement determine lower materiality amount than those without justification requirement. We compare mean of natural logarithm of materiality amount of Cell GJ in Table 3A (6.61) with mean of natural logarithm of materiality amount of Cell GNJ in Table 3A (6.73). The result in compare contrast column of Table 3A does not statistically support our hypothesis 3a ($p =$

0.31). In the absence of mechanical guidance, the natural logarithm of materiality amount under justification requirement is insignificantly lower than that under no justification requirement (6.33 vs. 6.46, respectively, $p = 0.26$), inadequately supporting hypothesis 3b. These results indicate that justification requirement could not significantly reduce the cognition bias of the existence of mechanical guidance

Hypothesis 4 expects that audit managers will perform better than audit seniors as the former will use their tacit managerial knowledge and their experience to incorporate and assess relevant risks. The planning materiality of audit managers is expected to be lower than that of audit seniors. Unexpectedly, Table 2 disproves our expectation as the main effect of professional level is insignificant ($p = 0.6343$). When we provide mechanical guidance to both professional ranks, audit managers set insignificantly lower materiality than audit seniors (6.64 vs. 6.70, respectively, $p = 0.59$ see Table 3C). Both audit managers and audit seniors set almost the same materiality level when they are not provided the mechanical guidance (6.39 vs. 6.40, respectively, $p = 0.93$ see Table 3C). Under justification requirement, audit managers set insignificantly lower materiality than audit seniors (6.37 vs. 6.55, respectively, $p = 0.15$ see Table 3B). When they are not required to justify their answers, audit managers insignificantly underperform audit seniors. The materiality level of audit managers is unnoticeably higher than that of audit seniors (6.65 vs. 6.56, respectively, $p = 0.42$ see Table 3B). Although the difference in materiality level between audit managers and audit seniors under each condition of guidance and justification is insignificant, the impact of justification requirement on audit managers might be different from that on audit seniors. We will further investigate this in the next section.

Table 3C: Main effect and Two-way interaction of Mechanical guidance and Auditor ranks: Natural logarithm of Materiality Amount (standard deviation) for all participants

Mechanical guidance	Managers	Seniors	Main effect of Guidance	Compare contrast
Present	6.64 (0.48) Cell GM = 40	6.70 (0.42) Cell GS = 58	6.67 (0.44) Cell G = 98	GM – GS = -0.06 ($p = 0.59$)
Absent	6.39 (0.55) Cell NGM = 42	6.40 (0.74) Cell NGS = 56	6.40 (0.66) Cell NG = 98	NGM – NGS = -0.01 ($p = 0.93$)
Main effect of Auditor ranks	6.51 (0.53) Cell M = 82	6.55 (0.62) Cell S = 114		

This table presents the natural logarithm of materiality amount rather than materiality amount for each combination of mechanical guidance and auditor ranks. This transformation is done to comply with homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions.

Additional analysis

We divided the samples into audit manager group and audit senior group; and separately tested the impact of mechanical guidance and justification on both groups. Audit managers are significantly affected by both mechanical guidance and justification requirement (p of main effect of guidance = 0.028, p of main effect of justification = 0.0149, Table 4), while audit seniors are significantly affected only by mechanical guidance (p -value of main effect of guidance = 0.0108, p -value of main effect of justification = 0.9202, see Table 5). There is no interaction effect between guidance and justification factors for both audit managers and audit seniors (see Table 4 and Table 5).

Table 4: ANOVA Results of natural logarithm of materiality amount determined by Audit managers

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between-Subjects					
Guidance	1.253	1	1.253	5.01	0.0280**
Justify	1.551	1	1.551	6.20	0.0149**
Guidance x Justify	0.052	1	0.052	0.21	0.6502
Error (Total)	19.507	78	0.250		

*This table presents the ANOVA results and shows main significant effect of guidance and marginal impact of justification requirement on audit managers. ***, ** and * indicate significance at 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively*

Table 5: ANOVA Results of natural logarithm of materiality amount determined by Audit seniors

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between-Subjects					
Guidance	2.470	1	2.470	6.73	0.0108**
Justify	0.003	1	0.003	0.01	0.9202
Guidance x Justify	0.025	1	0.025	0.07	0.7944
Error (Total)	40.398	110	0.367		

*This table presents the ANOVA results and shows main significant effect of guidance and marginal impact of justification requirement on audit seniors. ***, ** and * indicate significance at 1, 5, and 10 percent levels, respectively*

According to contrast comparison for audit manager group in Table 6, justification requirement could induce audit managers to think more carefully when not being provided with mechanical guidance than when being provided with mechanical guidance (difference of natural logarithms of materiality amount between in the presence and absence of justification under no guidance condition = -0.32, $p = 0.04$, while that under guidance condition = -0.23, $p = 0.16$). Even though audit managers are required to justify their answers, they are likely to limit their attention to the provided guidance. This is supported by the natural logarithm of materiality amount determined by audit managers with mechanical guidance of 6.52, while that without mechanical guidance is 6.23 under justification condition ($p = 0.06$, see Table 6).

Table 6: Main effect and Two-way interaction of Mechanical guidance and Justification requirement on Determination of materiality amount of Audit managers

Mechanical guidance	Justify	No Justify	Main effect of Guidance	Compare contrast
Present	6.52 (0.39) Cell GJM = 20	6.75 (0.54) Cell GNJM = 20	6.64 (0.48) Cell GM = 40	GJM – GNJM = -0.23 ($p = 0.16$)
Absent	6.23 (0.65) Cell NGJM = 21	6.55 (0.35) Cell NGNJM = 21	6.39 (0.55) Cell NGM = 42	NGJM – NGNJM = -0.32 ($p = 0.04$)
Main effect of Justification	6.37 (0.56) Cell NJM = 41	6.65 (0.46) Cell NJM = 41		
Compare contrast	GJM – NGJM = 0.29 ($p = 0.06$)	GNJM – NGNJM = 0.20 ($p = 0.21$)		

This table presents the natural logarithm of materiality amount rather than materiality amount for each combination of mechanical guidance and justification requirement for audit managers. This transformation is done to comply with homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions.

Table 7: Main effect and Two-way interaction of Mechanical guidance and Justification requirement on Determination of materiality amount of Audit seniors

Mechanical guidance	Justify	No Justify	Main effect of Guidance	Compare contrast
Present	6.68 (0.34) Cell GJS = 29	6.72 (0.48) Cell GNJS = 29	6.70 (0.42) Cell GS = 58	GJS – GNJS = -0.04 (p = 0.80)
Absent	6.41 (0.53) Cell NGJS = 29	6.39 (0.93) Cell NGNJS = 27	6.40 (0.74) Cell NGS = 56	NGJM – NGNJM = 0.02 (p = 0.91)
Main effect of Justification	6.55 (0.47) Cell NJS = 58	6.56 (0.75) Cell NJS = 56		
Compare contrast	GJS – NGJS = 0.27 (p = 0.10)	GNJS – NGNJS = 0.33 (p = 0.05)		

This table presents the natural logarithm of materiality amount rather than materiality amount for each combination of mechanical guidance and justification requirement for audit seniors. This transformation is done to comply with homogeneity of variance and normality assumptions.

According to contrast comparison for audit senior group in Table 7, justification requirement could not significantly impact audit seniors when performing the planning materiality determination task. Under both conditions of with and without mechanical guidance, the natural logarithm of materiality amount determined by audit seniors who justified and those who did not justify is not significantly different (6.68 vs. 6.72 for auditors who justified and not justified, respectively in the presence of mechanical guidance, 6.41 vs. 6.39 for auditors who justified and not justified, respectively in the absence of mechanical guidance). However, it could not be concluded that justification requirement would not induce more deep thinking from audit seniors. Audit seniors are usually engaged in justification process during audit review either in the form of writing or oral communication. Furthermore, audit seniors are normally required to write justification to support audit evidence, and the practice would be beneficial for them in justifying their decisions. On the other hand, audit managers' main responsibility is to review the audit results and they infrequently write a justification. The unfamiliarity with the justification task necessitates the managers to devote more cognitive efforts to writing the reasons, which also leads to better materiality determination.

One might argue that the materiality determination task might be so complex that the audit seniors' judgments could not be improved by justification requirement because justification effect depends on task complexity (Chang et al., 1997). However, in this case almost all of the participants reported that they had task experience in materiality determination (i.e., mean task experience is two years and only three seniors reported that they did not have task experience). Furthermore, forty-five percent of the audit seniors who were not required to justify provided their reasons in the answer sheet, whereas merely twenty-four percent of the audit managers whose justifications were not required gave the reasons in the answer sheet. Another possible explanation is that justification level manipulated in this paper might be too low to encourage audit seniors to seriously put in their thinking efforts because their answers would not be reviewed by their audit firms and their answers would remain undisclosed. According to the above additional analysis, audit managers are affected by both the mechanical guidance and justification factors. Specifically, the presence of mechanical guidance could limit attention of audit managers solely to the guidance and could lead the managers to concern less with relevant risks. The justification could induce audit managers to think more deeply and concern more with relevant risks. On the contrary, justification could not affect audit seniors in this task of planning materiality determination. However, the presence of

mechanical guidance could also limit attention of audit seniors. These results give rise to an implication that the impact of justification on judgment of auditors might depend on either the familiarity with justification task or auditors' roles or both.

CONCLUSION

This paper investigates the question of whether the availability of mechanical guidance limits auditors' attention to relevant risks when determining materiality for planning. Justification requirement is further examined to determine whether it increases thinking effort and can remedy the cognition bias arising from the existence of mechanical guidance. We also consider whether professional rank has an impact on materiality determination.

Consistent with our expectation, our experimental results suggest that the mechanical guidance could limit attention of auditors. Specifically, we find that the materiality determination of auditors with the existence of mechanical guidance is significant higher than that of auditors without mechanical guidance. This indicates that auditors with mechanical guidance concern less with relevant information in the case. Although one might consider justification requirement in this paper a weak form of justification as participants wrote their thinking reason to the experimenter, our result shows that justification requirement could induce audit managers to deeply contemplate relevant risk information in the case, but justification requirement could not influence judgment of audit seniors. This might be explained by the fact that audit seniors are normally required to provide justifications and have familiarity with the task and that their answers are not reviewed by their superiors and their names remain undisclosed.

The results of this research study will contribute a new insight to the knowledge pool of existing auditing literature. While most prior research focuses on materiality decision in later stages of auditing, this study fills the gap in materiality literature by studying at the planning stage of audit. This would offer some thoughts for standard setters, regulators, and practitioners to exercise greater caution when implementing mechanical guidance through auditors. Justification requirement provides opportunities for improving the quality of auditors' judgment but its effect likely depends on either the familiarity with the justification task or auditors' roles or both.

The experimental study described in this paper has some limitations. First, this paper includes not only ten material events selected from Pinsker (2009), which subsequently are assigned as either low or high risks, but also some inherent risks and control risks. However, these material events do not necessarily reflect a realistic decision environment. Second, the experimental instrument is in the form of paper-based case while auditors normally use computer aids in practice. This could limit the auditors' ability to search for more information as they do in real practice. Third, the experimental procedure asks individual auditor to set planning materiality, while in practice there would be a discussion among engagement team before determining planning materiality. Fourth, only two types of guidance are examined in this paper. There might be other decision aids that could be used with greater success. Finally, we only compare justification requirement to no justification requirement. Other forms or types of justification requirement that could impact auditors' judgment (Agoglia et al., 2003) are not investigated in this paper.

Since the reviewer's preference was found to influence auditors' evaluation of evidence and cognitive effort (Peecher, 1996; Tan et al., 1997) and supervisor preference could influence subordinate to bias his decision toward supervisor preference (Piercey, 2009) as supervisor was found to give higher performance rating to subordinate who had goal-congruence and had strong justification (Tan and

Shankar, 2010), future research might investigate how the preference of reviewer or supervisor impacts auditors' materiality determination and how it influences written justification. In addition, types of justification, such as supporting, balance, and component justification memos, could be examined for planning materiality decision.

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TIMED CORE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS: THE ROAD TO THE COMPANY'S OPTIMAL PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper studies the relationship between structural equation modeling and Balanced Scorecard in a Swiss non-profit establishment. Using financial and non-financial performance indicators collected directly from the organization, the paper proposes a rational construction and analysis of Balanced Scorecard by selecting the factual metrics for the right strategic areas. This choice is made by applying a sequence of Partial Least Squares in the proposed model. Furthermore, the approach establishes the cause-and-effect sequence originally defined by Kaplan and Norton as: the measures of organizational learning and growth will influence the measures of internal business processes which sequentially will impact the measures of the customer perspective which, lastly, will affect the financial indicators. It will be noted that the Kaplan and Norton model of Balanced Scorecard is different from the findings in this study, a case somehow too general to handle today's complex market environment. Following this, the paper puts forward a time-managed approach to identify the evolution of the main contributors to the current company's strategy as well as their behavior in the future organizational performance. The suggested approach will be applied and demonstrated in a detailed real case of a Swiss non-profit organization.

INTRODUCTION

An innovative approach of strategic management was introduced in the early 1990s by Robert Kaplan from Harvard Business School and David Norton, co-founder and president of Balanced Scorecard Collaborative Inc., based in Boston, USA. They named this approach the Balanced Scorecard (BSC). Pinpointing some of the drawbacks and ambiguity of previous management systems, the BSC method proposes a coherent guidance as to what companies should measure in order to "balance" the financial perspective. The BSC summarizes a series of performance indicators that offers executives a quick but comprehensive representation of their business. The BSC includes financial indicators that illustrate the outcomes of actions already taken and it complements the financial measures with operational indicators on customer satisfaction, internal processes, and the company's innovation and development activities – "operational measures that are the drivers of future financial performance" (Kaplan & Norton, 1992).

However, one of the limitations of the BSC lies in its structure. Despite the fact that the authors provide us with some key points and describe the steps for building the BSC, the concepts are rather ambiguous and can be difficult to apply in an organizational environment. There are three main goals in this study. The first goal is to merge the above concepts and try to advance several statements for a representative construction of a BSC using the Partial Least Square (PLS) technique. The objective is to generate a realistic model that can be applied in any organization environment, thus modeling the concept of BSC. The second goal is to validate the assumptions with a nonprofit organization case where performance indicators selected will outline the different strategic perspectives, and a rational explanation for this selection is established. A cause-and-effect structure will be generated and clarifications made as to which

strategic perspectives (latent variables) are impacting and which are to be influenced. One of the main conclusions of this example is that the Kaplan and Norton's model of BSC is nothing more but a particular case of our conclusions. The final aim is to closely monitor on a timely basis the upmost indicators that impacted the organizational performance, indicators that will shape the future company's strategy. The paper is structured as follows. In the next section, the main BSC concepts will be presented. The "idealistic" process of 4-axes construction is then highlighted followed by a logical structure-allowing for the identification of the number of strategic perspectives as well as the performance indicators connected to each perspective. A tentative modeling of BSC that can be implemented in any organization environment is put forward. This is pursued by a real example of a nonprofit establishment in which the PLS method is applied in order to build a coherent BSC. Finally, the key performance indicators are analyzed on a regular time basis in order to identify the ones that contributed most and shaped the current organizational strategy. Using this information, one is able better predict the future company trends and take enhanced corrective measures to quickly adapt in a challenging and complex organizational environment.

The Need for A New Validation Approach

According to Kaplan and Norton, the BSC is a management tool (not only a measurement model) that enables companies to acknowledge their vision and strategy and convert into action. Consequently the BSC allows top management a thorough compilation that translates the organizational strategic goals into a coherent set of performance measures. It provides response across the internal company processes as well as external results in order to constantly advance strategic performance and outcomes. When completely set up, the BSC converts strategic planning from an abstract task into the fundamental point of an organization. As mentioned by Fielden's (1999), companies worldwide start on influencing the ability of BSC for translating vision and strategy into measurable objectives.

The BSC can manage the base of the organization's efforts in identifying and communicating the crucial key interests to managers, employees, investors and even customers (Kaplan & Norton, 1993). With four strategic perspectives, the BSC reduce information excess by controlling the number of measures used and compels executives to concentrate on the handful of performance indicators that are most essential. Accordingly, it enables companies to contour financial results while simultaneously monitoring the resources and obtaining the intangible assets they would need for future development (Kaplan & Norton, 1996). The BSC poses managers with the facility to identify performance indicators that could accurately predict the wealth and health of an organization. By allowing the capacity to decode strategy in rapid and quantifiable actions, a BSC manages strategy in an organizational environmental and unveil hidden assets and information. Furthermore, by connecting both internal and external people with these strategies, recurrent learning and development can be achieved (Pineno, 2002).

However, the BSC has drawbacks with some of its key assumptions and relations. Firstly, there is not a causal but rather a sound connection between the strategic areas analyzed. Nørreklit (2000) contends that customer satisfaction does not automatically create superior financial outcomes. Measuring the financial consequences of enhanced customer satisfaction or quality improvements involves a financial calculation. Sequences of action that produce a high ratio of customer value at low costs lead to good financial results. But this is not an issue of causality; it is commonsense since it is integrated in the concepts. Consequently, the BSC makes illogical suppositions, which may conduct to the anticipation of measures which are incoherent, causing sub-optimal performance. In addition, the BSC is not a representative strategic management tool mainly because it does not certify any rapport between organizational and

environmental reality (e.g. competition). As a result, a discrepancy must be accepted between the strategy formulated in the actions actually undertaken, and the assumed strategy (Nørreklit, 2000).

Within this broad-spectrum environment of ambiguity and criticism, some authors (Shields, 1997; Shields & Shields, 1998) have called on management accounting researchers to make better use of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Structural Equation Modeling is a statistical technique comprising a family of different methods (path analysis, Partial Least Squares models and latent variable SEM) that allows the simultaneous analysis of a series of structural equations. However, there appears to be some consensus that all SEM involve two characteristics: first, the estimation of multiple interrelated dependent relations between variables, and second the ability to represent latent variables in these equations while accounting for estimated measurement error connected to the unsatisfactory measurement of variables. These methods are particularly helpful when a dependent variable in one equation turn into an independent variable in another equation (Hair et al., 1998).

An essential concern to log is the need of a significant sample size for the majority of SEM models. A suggested rule of thumb for latent variable SEM is a minimum sample size of 100 (Medsker et al., 1994). Furthermore, it has been advised that a sample volume of 200 may be required to produce valid fit measures and to prevent making inaccurate conclusions (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; James & James, 1989; Boomsma, 1982; Medsker et al., 1994). In spite of these concerns, Smith and Langfield-Smith (2004) conclude in one of their management studies that eleven of the 20 surveys (55%) had sample volumes beneath the accepted threshold of 200. Even if the recommended sample size of 100 is considered the lowest bound of tolerability, three of the 20 researches (Magner, Welker, & Campbell, 1996, Chalos & Poon, 2000, Abernethy & Lillis, 2001) fall underneath this level, denoting that the conclusions drawn from these studies could be questioned.

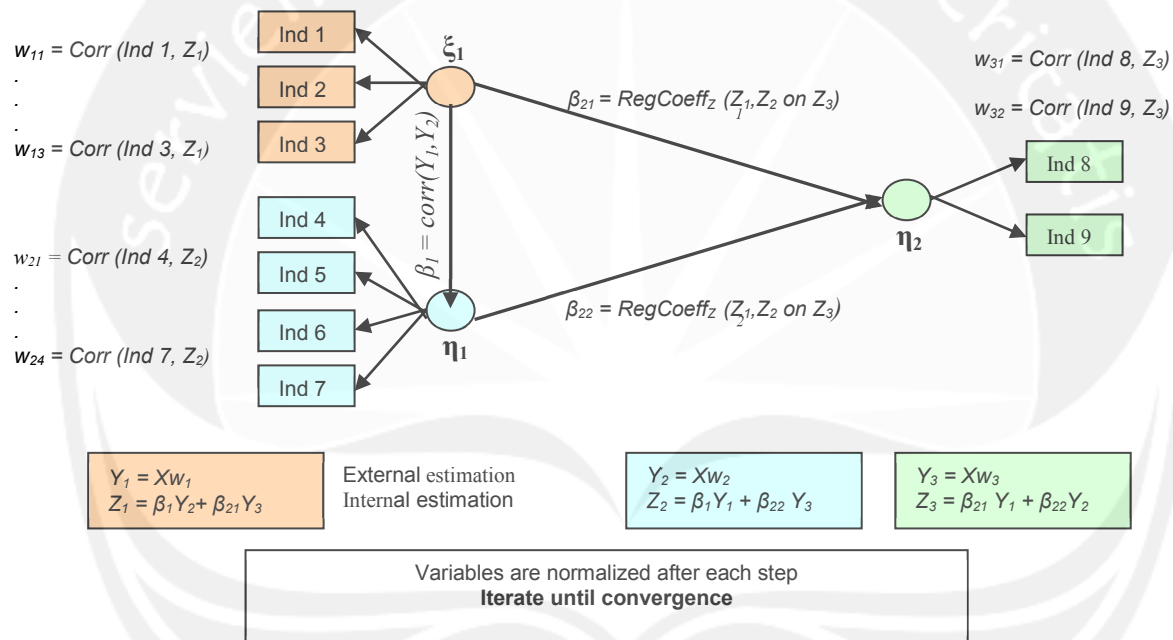
As a result of that, management accounting researchers may be restrained from using covariance based methods caused by the significant sample size requirements, and puts forward the statement that the technique is only appropriate in areas where theory is relatively robust. Despite the fact that these shortcomings are true for latent variable SEM techniques, Partial Least Squares (PLS) modeling presents an alternative. Compared to others, PLS regression is a fairly recent technique that generalizes and merges features from principal component analysis (PCA) and multiple regressions. It is specifically useful when require predicting a series of dependent variables from a (very) large sequence of independent variables (i.e., predictors). It was employed in the social sciences (specifically economics, Herman Wold 1966) but became popular first in chemometrics (i.e., computational chemistry) due in part to Herman's son Svante, (Geladi & Kowalski, 1986) and in sensory evaluation (Martens & Naes, 1989). But PLS regression is also becoming an alternative in the social sciences as a multivariate method for non-experimental and experimental data alike (neuroimaging, see McIntosh, Bookstein, Haxby, & Grady, 1996). It was first pioneered as an algorithm similar to the power method (used for calculating eigenvectors) but was rapidly retained in statistical milieu (Hervé, 2003).

The usage of PLS, despite of its intrinsic limitations (specifically that it is a limited-information method, aimed to maximize prediction, rather than fit), figures out to be a way in which statistical modeling in management accounting research can move forward without the requirement to obtain large samples, something which management accounting researchers have usually found problematic. Another benefit of PLS is the method's ability to accommodate non-normal data, triggered by less demanding assumptions behind the technique (Smith & Langfield-Smith, 2004). Nevertheless, there is some misunderstanding in the terminology utilized in the PLS field. Herman Wold first introduced the notion of Partial Least

Squares in his study about principal component analysis (Wold, 1966) where the NILES (nonlinear iterative least squares) algorithm was developed. This algorithm (and its extension to canonical correlation analysis and to specific situations with three or more blocks) was afterwards called NIPALS (nonlinear iterative partial least squares) (Wold, 1973; Wold, 1975).

The notion of “PLS approach” is somewhat too broad and combines PLS for path models on one side and PLS regression on the other. Following a suggestion by Martens (1989), this study exploits the term PLS for Structural Equation Modeling to designate the use of “PLS Path Modeling” as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Example of PLS Path Modeling



Any PLS model is described by two key relations, the first named the outer model, illustrating the connection between the latent variable and its manifest variables and a second one called the inner model defining the relationships among the latent variables themselves.

Relationships between the observed variables and the latent variables (outer model)

Each latent variable ξ_j is implicitly explained by a group of observed variables x_{jh} . Each observed variable is related to its latent variable by a simple regression:

$$x_{jh} = \pi_{jh0} + \pi_{jh} \xi_j + \varepsilon_{jh}$$

Relation between the latent variables (inner model)

The causality model leads to linear equations connecting the latent variables:

$$\xi_j = \beta_{j0} + \sum_i \beta_{ji} \xi_i + v_j$$

The latent variables related to ξ_j are divided into two categories: the precursors of ξ_j which are latent variables affecting ξ_j and the successors which are latent variables affected by ξ_j .

For any precursor ξ_i of the latent variable ξ_j , the inner weight e_{ji} is equivalent to the regression coefficient of Y_i in the multiple regression of Y_j on all the Y_i 's connected to the precursors of ξ_j . If ξ_i is a successor of ξ_j , then the inner weights e_{ji} is equivalent to the correlation between Y_i and Y_j (Tenenhaus & Vinzi, 2004). The available software has been for many years LVPLS 1.8 developed by Lohmöller (1987, last existing version). Lohmöller has broadened the basic PLS algorithm in numerous ways and published all his research outcomes in 1989. More recently, an updated software has been elaborated by Chin (2001, for the last version, left still in beta test) entitled PLS-Graph 3.0. It included a Windows user-friendly graphical interface to PLSX, which is actually the initial engine for PLS path modeling existing in LVPLS 1.8. The only addition is a cross-validation of the path model parameters by jack-knife and bootstrap. Bootstrapping is the technique of gauging components of an estimator (for example its variance) by measuring those aspects when sampling from an estimating distribution. One typical option for computing distribution is the observed distribution of the empirical dataset.

In the situation where a group of observed variables are assumed to be from an identically and independent distributed population, this can be solved by creating a number of resamples of the observations (and of same size of the observations), each of which is achieved by random sampling with replacement from the initial set of data. The benefit of bootstrapping compared to analytical techniques is its high simplicity - it is significantly easy to use the bootstrap in order to find estimates of standard errors and confidence intervals for complex estimators of the distribution, such as percentile points, proportions, correlation coefficients and odds ratios. Even if more, newer and more complex PLS programs are available today (e.g. SmartPLS), a greater examination of the PLS Path Modeling permitted us to develop our software from scratch with the aim of computing the path weighting scheme and the bootstrap validation procedure.

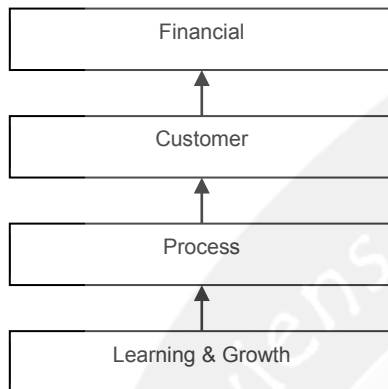
Bonding Balanced Scorecard with Partial Least Squares

Ittner and Larckner concluded in 1998 that "(...) decisions using multicriteria performance measurement systems should be computed using explicit, objective formula that prescribes the weights to be attached to each measure, or should be based on subjective evaluations where the weights to be attached to each measure is implicitly or explicitly chosen by the decision maker". This should be always considered when building, checking and validating assumptions of causality relationships between the performance indicators within the context of the BSC implementation in a company. While this might seem difficult from a practical perspective, the PLS technique offers a valid solution.

As shown in Figure 2, the initial statements of causality relationships between the four strategic perspectives of the Kaplan and Norton's BSC remain subjective. The use of a structural equations model is recommended to establish, in a more objective way, the intensity of the relations between the latent variables defined by groups of observed or measurable indicators. Indubitably, whereas the choice of the perspectives and the hypotheses that link them remain biased in the case of Kaplan and Norton, the model

of structural equations aims "to provide a meaningful and parsimonious explanation for observed relationships within a set of measured variables" (MacCallum, 1995).

Figure 2: Generic Relationship Map (Kaplan and Norton 1996)



In a structural equations approach the latent variables cannot be assessed in a direct and precise way. Consequently, these latent variables require measurable variables, which are described through performance indicators that can be directly observed and evaluated. The structural equations method is derived from the principal component analysis of the data (confirmatory or exploratory, in line with each specific case) to distinguish and validate the model of the causal relationships which represent the focal point of BSC. It is essential to highlight that one of the restrictions intrinsic in the application of a system of structural equations in the BSC milieu, are the statistics requirement expected for the data validation, which compels a significant quantity of observations in order so as to boldly validate the results achieved. The gathering of a large series of data is not easy, particularly in small and medium-sized firms. This is why the use of PLS presents a huge benefit in this particular case or in any case where large datasets are not available.

A Pragmatic Case: Example Of A Non-Profit Organization

The suggested method of this study, although universally applicable to any kind of organization, is presented using an example of a non-governmental and non-profit institution. Based in Geneva, Switzerland, this international governmental organization has associative statute active at multinational levels in the field of human rights protection. Devoted to the primacy, the coherence and the application of the international law and the principles which make progress the human rights, the association is joining together the national and international lawyers, offering their competences in regards to legal expertise for promotion and defense of the aforesaid rights. The organization has branches in regional offices of Thailand, Nepal, Guatemala and South Africa and is employing a total of around 40 people.

When fully implemented, the proposed method for BSC construction using PLS approach will allow the following:

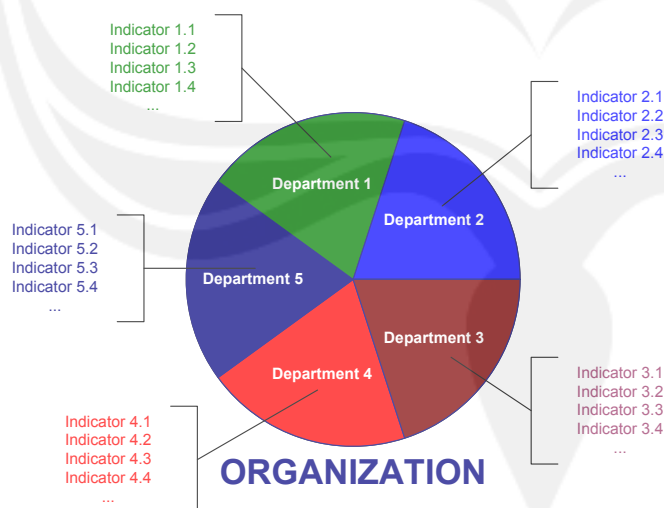
- Identification of the vision and strategy by highlighting the crucial performance indicators. The stress is laid on the fact that financial measurements must be “balanced” with non-financial measurements, coming from other strategic perspectives.

- While seeking to define the sequences of actions which ultimately create the success of an organization, the process helps retaining only the key performance indicators dependent on the objectives of the strategic perspectives.
- Once the strategy and key actions are seized, the organization must then identify its crucial competences, essential to the development and the improvement of the processes relative to its strategic success
- Finally the construction of a BSC adapted to the various hierarchical levels, communication and fixing of short and long-term targets for the various key indicators.

In a nutshell, there are five chronological main steps in the suggested methodology of this study that will allow the construction and implementation of a rational and optimal BSC: (1) gather historical data from the organization, (2) organize and prepare the final database, (3) ascertain and define the numbers of strategic perspectives and performance indicators connected to those, (4) assemble the cause and effect link between all strategic perspectives and, lastly, (5) employ and operate this management tool for long-term vision.

As showed in Figure 3, **the first step** is associated with the collection of all historic key performance measures throughout the organization. Even though this seems a simple assignment, it actually entails a massive time gathering the metrics employed in the institution, particularly building a valid historic database. This exercise is crucial and will directly influence all of the following steps. Applying this step in the selected organization resulted in a total of 54 variables summarizing their evolution over 12 periods on a quarterly basis (3 years).

Figure 3: Identifying and gathering company's performance measures



Taking into account the sizeable database of indicators, **the second step** is related to the final cleaning of the database (Figure 4). As stated previously, the collected measures could contain errors and will

potentially pollute the findings. Consequently, the variables should be characterized by (a) reliability and consistency, (b) same occurrence in time, (c) ability to capture a fraction of the organizational current strategy, (d) information singularity and (e) clarity and straightforwardness. This step is achieved through consistent analysis and intense top management consultations and will ensure that the retained performance indicators are the key drivers of the organization. After this step only 48 variables from the non-profit organization have finally been kept.

Figure 4: Example of cleaning and setting up the final database

Strategic performance indicator database					
	Ind 1.1	Ind 1.2	Ind 1.3	...	Ind 5.10
Month 1	x	x	x		x
Month 2	x	x	x		x
Month 3	x	x	x		x
...		x	y		x
Month 30		x	x		x

Missing variable

Missing variable

Unreliable variable

However, albeit this rational managerial selection has been employed, the company still has a large database which is quite challenging to administer for the BSC construction. As illustrated in Figure 5, the third main step is to filter and congregate the variables within specific axes (or strategic perspectives) able to encapsulate a part of the organization's performance.

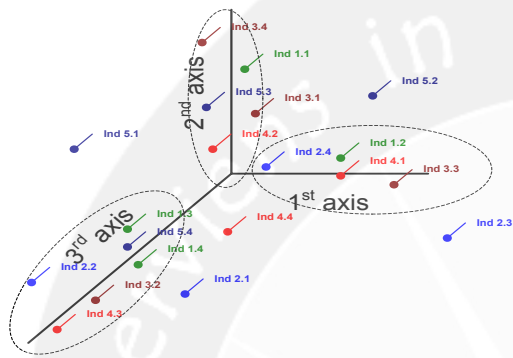
There are three main attainments in performing this step: first is to generate the number of strategic axes summarizing an acceptable level of the total company's performance, second is to filter each axis and retain only the performance indicators that are highly correlated, disregarding any unnecessary and irrelevant information and third is to label these assemblies of indicators by studying the nature of information that gravitates each strategic perspective or axis.

There are several existing statistical methods that are able to accomplish this classification. Both factor analysis and principal component analysis (PCA) can be applied for this step. Although different, the two techniques are often mixed up, though factor analysis becomes equivalent to PCA if the "errors" in the factor analysis model are supposed to all have the same variance. Principal component analysis can be used for dimensionality reduction in a dataset by preserving those characteristics of the data that influence most its variance and by keeping lower-order principal components and disregarding higher-order ones. Such low-order components regularly summarize the "most important" features of the dataset. Factor analysis on the other hand, is a statistical technique employed to describe variability among analyzed variables in terms of fewer unobserved variables called factors. Factor analysis assists in identifying "factors" that explain a diversity of results on distinct tests.

As such, the PCA fits better this study requirement as it is appropriate for a non-predefined experimental model, while factor analysis is righter for models that have already a standard. As the statistical technique

applied (PCA) is handling historical data, the outcome of the actual research will subsequently be contingent on the data obtainable at the time of collection. Nevertheless, the purpose of this model is not to build the best indicators, which sometimes could lead to subjectivity and personal preference, but to actually emphasize the significance of the variables available.

Figure 5: Filtering the performance measures per strategic perspectives



The software applied for the PCA calculation was SPSS. In the presented example, when this step is conducted over the whole variables, one can clearly observe that with 4 components, approximately 93% of the total organizational variance is explained (Table 1). This percentage can be interpreted as the influence of the axes on the total performance: the higher this percentage, the more explanation it provides on the company's performance.

Table 1: Extract of Total Variance Explained

Component	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	24.26	50.53
2	11.97	75.46
3	5.78	87.51
4	2.76	93.26
5	1.37	96.12
6	0.80	97.79

The same PCA technique also provides the influence of the variables (indicators) against each of these 4 axes with the assistance of the component matrix establishing the correlation of all variables with each of these axes. Table 2 illustrates the correlation of the first 10 variables with each axis. The nearer a correlation is to 0, the less the corresponding variable impacts the axis. Finally, the variables will be ranked and filtered with respect to the correlation it has upon the axes.

The first 10-15 indicators per axis are favored for selection, ranked by their correlation with the axis. First, these metrics offers a good outlook on the information clustered and second, because the indicators

are sorted by correlation, their explanatory value will decrease when moving further in the ordered list. One may note that this straightforward selection will congregate the performance measures that are particular to one area of the company. To be precise, a simple mathematical clustering will distinguish the actual areas specific to the institution. The ranking and grouping of variables by axis will permit to label and define them strategically.

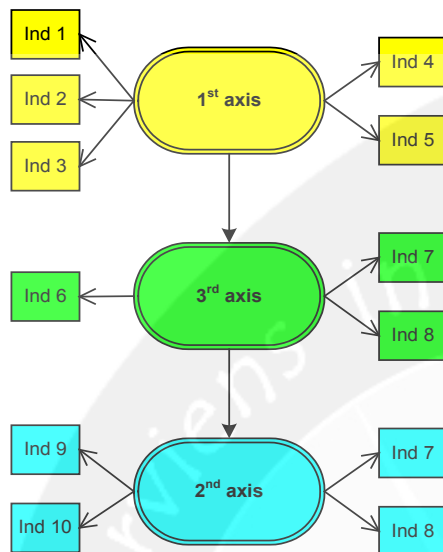
Table 2: Extract of the First 10 Indicators from Component Matrix

VAR no.	VAR name	1 st axis	2 nd axis	3 rd axis	4 th axis
VAR001	persofindetr	0.886	-0.259	0.324	-0.182
VAR002	persoju	0.765	-0.310	0.454	-0.257
VAR003	persoadmin	0.968	-0.153	0.092	-0.050
VAR004	arrivé	-0.021	-0.280	-0.098	-0.750
VAR005	départ	-0.192	0.134	-0.678	0.632
VAR006	agemoy	0.649	0.586	-0.109	0.288
VAR007	ho	0.902	-0.285	0.270	-0.073
VAR008	fe	0.799	-0.199	0.390	-0.348
VAR009	expeant	-0.221	0.273	-0.460	0.666
VAR010	formation	0.318	-0.521	0.567	-0.392

Statistically speaking, the top ranked indicators are highly correlated to the respective axis. However, after the PCA analysis, one still needs to do a small cleaning of the data by eliminating those measures which would not adequately explain the definition of the perspective. While this procedure it is not mathematically validated, it is primarily aimed to clear out certain metrics that are not rigorously accurate and would violate the definition of the axis. The rejection of any indicator must be well justified in front of the strategy for defining the strategic axes. In any economic environment (which by definition is uncertain) it is improper to consider that all indicators correlated to the perspective in cause are also representative from a strategic viewpoint. Those indicators that do not describe the definition of the axis should not be selected in the final model as these might potentially corrupt the final result.

With the intention of better controlling and comprehending the final model and in order to maintain certain accuracy on the strategic perspectives, the final number of indicators per axis should rarely exceed 10. At the end of this third step, the organizational strategy from the presented example was acknowledged to gravitate along 4 perspectives: Regional Representation, Financial Perspective, Quality Perspective and International Law and Protection each of them containing 6 to 10 explanatory variables as described in the next step. As exemplified in Figure 6, the **fourth major step** in ascertaining the actual strategy of the company is to employ a PLS Path Modeling regression on the final strategic perspectives. To determine the most viable cause-and-effect chain between the perspectives, all possible valid connections between these axes should be studied. The most stable PLS model from all possible combinations is regarded as the closed to the organization's current strategy. The stability of the PLS model could be assessed applying a bootstrap technique on each possible graph.

Figure 6: Exemplification of a cause-and-effect chain using PLS Path Modeling

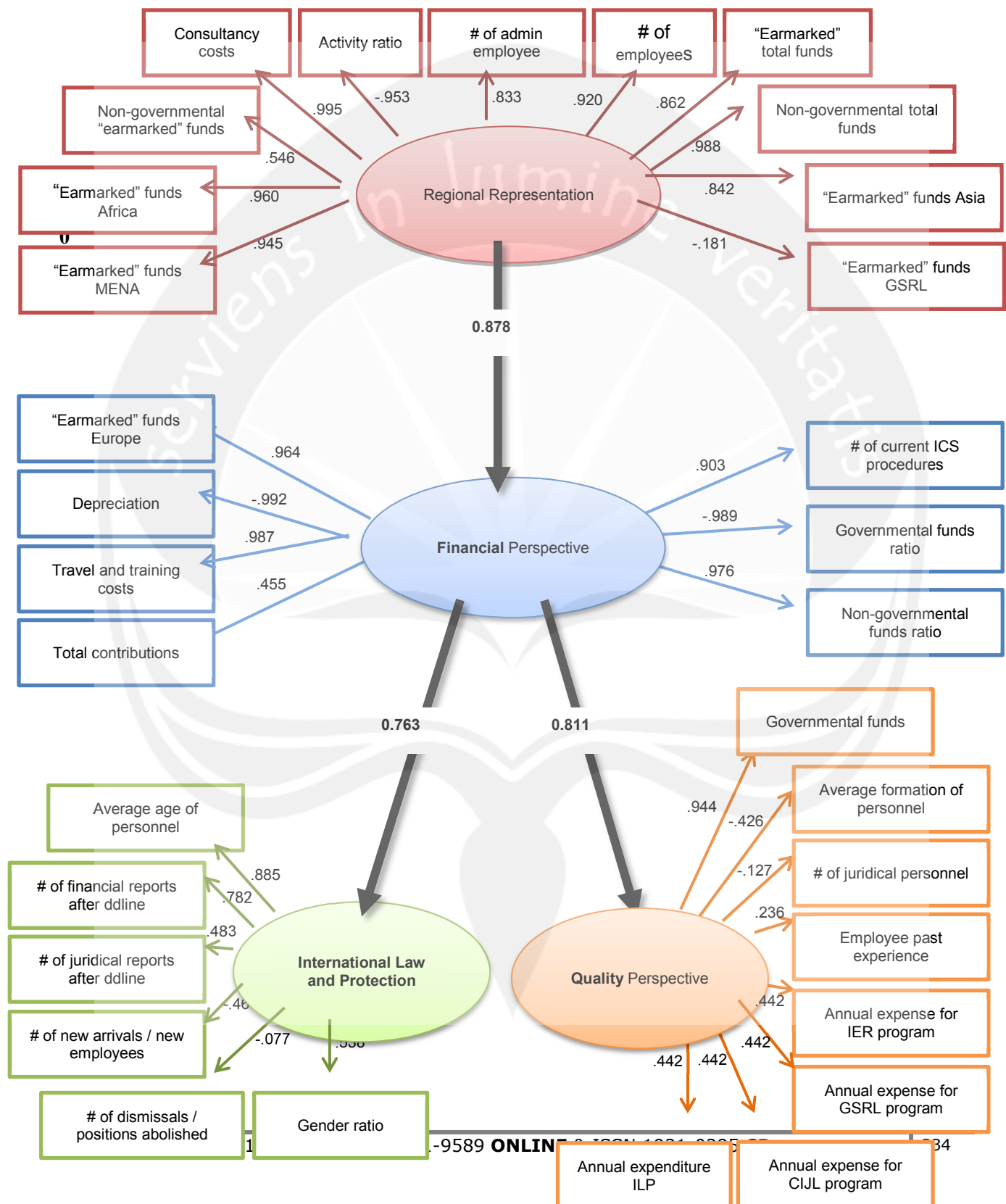


Applying this step to the specific example of this study, all possible valid connections between the 4 axes, that is to say a total number of 52'720 possibilities were examined with the in-house created software and the most stable PLS graph was chosen from all valid combinations represented in Figure 7. This assembly is the optimal structure of connection between the four axes and turns out to be more realistic than any other model - the closest to the actual organizational strategic vision.

This representation shows that the angular stone of the strategy is characterized by the Regional Programs which, in turn, influence the financial health of the organization. The financial perspective affects at the same time the general quality of work as well as the whole of the "International Law & Protection" Program. In order to seize what these three bonds contain, we will study successively the causes suggested by the graph above. The objective is to briefly try to foresee what comes out from these causal connections. The diagram emphasizes a capital element by spotlighting the Regional Programs. Indeed, we find among the variables which define this axis the nongovernmental funds under all its aspects: nongovernmental funds, nongovernmental restrictive funds (earmarked), total restrictive financing (earmarked), as well as the funds specifically intended for Asia, Africa and MENA. Consequently, we tend to believe that these programs are at the origin of the financial performance of the organization. And since the causal links are one-way, activities of the regional programs can only be the subject of auto-financing and therefore the activities are not covered by any formed of organizational reserve.

Since the contributions for the Regional Programs are higher than the expenditure needed within the framework of their activities, it is perfectly obvious that are actually contributing to reserves of the organization. The reason why the Europe is attached to the Financial Perspective and not to the Regional Representation where one would see fit is that the principal activities as well as the headquarters are based in Geneva. This region is mainly seen as a support area rather than a "fundraiser" one.

Figure 7: BSC's cause-and-effect chain using PLS approach (with 12 quarterly time periods)



Applying the logic further, the accumulated reserves can fund and support the International Program “ILP” as well as the Quality area. This is explained by the fact that the organization is characterized by a very high reputation and quality of the work. The education level of the personnel coupled with related expenditure is therefore essential. Contrary to the initial model of Kaplan and Norton (1992), the quality perspective does not influence the customer satisfaction which, in fine, affects the financial area of the organization. This is indeed true as funds raised from various regional projects are not dependent on the overall outcomes of the organization. Or, in other words, the International Program “ILP” is financed in an organic way (bond between the financial health and the International Program), in order to provide a form of results which do not produce any “return on investment” (bond between the financial health and quality). This can be explained by two factors: 1) the quality of the work provided by the organization is already over and above the required standard and/or 2) the quality of the work is not important in the stakeholders’ eyes (contributors). Whatever the cause, this last conclusion needs further investigation from the management side, especially that the current strategy is considered as problematic. It should be also noted that any management tool is usually needed to be implemented in a period of transition and important changes within the organization.

When it comes to model validation from a statistical point of view (Table 3), the overall figures are assessing in a good way both measurement (outer) and structural (inner) model. As a general rule of thumb, in order to validate the outer model (measurement model), the Average Variance Explained (AVE) should be above 0.5 (Chin, 1998) and Composite reliability greater than 0.6 (Werts, Linn, and Jöreskog, 1974). Although all figures are exceeding the required threshold, one should note the borderline for Quality Perspective. While this perspective is perfectly validated, the low value will demand for a closer investigation together with the business of the measures that are building this block.

Table 3: PLS model validation criteria

	AVE	Composite reliability	R-square	Redundancy index
Regional Representation	0.728	0.939		
Financial Perspective	0.834	0.821	0.770	0.641
Intl. Law and Protection	0.656	0.844	0.582	0.464
Quality Perspective	0.540	0.785	0.656	0.333

As for structural (inner) model validation, the best gauge to use is the R-square level. Values of 0.67, 0.33 and 0.19 are considered to be strong, moderate and respectively weak for the inner model valuation (Chin, 1998). The R-square have acceptable values for ILP Program as well as for the Quality Perspective, even very close to the highest acceptance threshold. Furthermore, for the Financial Perspective one can remark a strong significance, materializing the conclusion that all values are validating in a satisfactory way our model. As stated in the beginning of this study, the inner and outer relations are based on structural equations. Hence, behind each PLS Path model lies equations that supports the relations between indicators and the corresponding axis (outer model equations) and between the axes or strategic perspectives themselves (inner model equations). The fifth major step is consequently based on applying these equations in order to study and forecast the relations for the long term. From a practical point of view, there are substantial advantages in doing that:

- a) analyze the variance impact of one (or several) indicators to the whole model;

- b) forecast the strategic changes by looking at the relationships between the axes;
- c) visualize and manage both direct and indirect changes needed for an important change in the company's strategy;
- d) simulate the impact of resources allocation decisions on the future performance, thus complementing the traditional budget approach;

However, one should keep in mind that an organization takes time in order to recalibrate to any change or crisis situation. Any change in the company's strategy should be done in a pondered and controlled way. Moreover, it should be noted that a non-profit organization cannot be revolutionized or radically transformed as a commercially-driven company might be.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS AND REMARKS

The crucial part in the proposed methodology is the selection of the number of axes and of the corresponding performance indicators. It is essential that the key performance indicators describe to a certain extent the strategy of the organization. This hints to the decision to filter out the main components for outlining the strategy with the desired depth of analysis. Unquestionably, the strategy metrics differ among organization, especially among different sectors (e.g. profit vs. non-profit). The research aim of this paper was to elaborate and empirically validate an inclusive framework that channels Balanced Scorecard model with Structural Equation Modeling approach and endorses a modern comprehension of factors underlying the current strategy, in order to better manage and control the corporate performance.

The first essential step towards this goal was the development of a general frame of reference that harmonized previously conflicting theoretical assumptions related to Balanced Scorecard as well as its ease of implementation. On this basis, the proposed framework is embracing several major concepts:

1. addresses the issues of strategic vision of any organization and translates the actual strategy into an easy-to-use model for better integration, communication and long-term management;
2. underlines the key performance indicators that have the ability to seize the most relevant information from the company, information that is strongly connected to the current objectives the organization is aiming for;
3. compiles distinctive strategic perspectives that summarizes company information in a suitable way, in order to create a comprehensive illustration driving organizations in their road to success;
4. determines the relationships between strategic perspectives in a cause-and-effect chain that highlights the interactions taking place at a strategic level, helping in spotlighting the company's advantages and weaknesses;
5. overcomes the static feature of previous models revealing the dynamic evolution over time by employing mathematical PLS equations, refining the planning and control of the main constituents within an organization.

The main objective of this study was to put in debate the Kaplan and Norton BSC theory compared to a more pragmatic approach. Having founded the strategic research framework, we attempted to empirically validate the proposed model by developing a strategic map in the context of a Swiss nonprofit organization. The stability of this model has been validated through the application of the bootstrap technique. For this purpose, the SPSS software was used along with a PLS software we specifically built for this kind of analysis. The results obtained indicated that the BSC problems can be formalized in a rigorous manner. It is thus possible to reassess the remarks progressed by Kaplan and Norton as exposed in the analysis of this case. However, it should be stressed that the necessary prerequisites are relatively constraining. Therefore it is essential to have an adequate number of indicators together with a consistent historical sample of data. Furthermore, the noted real value of BSC lies more in the diffusion and the comprehension of the strategy on all the levels within the company. Thus this requires strong communication, interpretation and analytical skills.

The application of PLS Path Modeling translates the actual strategy into a cause-and-effect model that can be monitored and controlled using a handful of essential performance indicators. One might debate that by treating historical data, the model summarizes and obsolete information by illustrating a picture that cannot be employed to influence the future planning. While the deduction is appropriate, the model is actually identifying the actual strategy applied by the organization. Only by fully acknowledgement of the current situation one can plan ahead for the period to come. As suggested in this paper, as the PLS regression is more suited for maximizing prediction, the model is also capable of portraying the forecast strategy of the company. Furthermore, this approach allows the simulation of the resource allocation impact on the company's overall performance. Lastly, it should be noted that these management tools are applied in a moment of a significant need for strategic change in the organization. The use of this approach allows not only understanding the chain of causality between different strategic areas of the company's performance, but also reinforces the intuition with "a measure of the measures".

To conclude, we believe that it is relevant to develop a more formal methodology in order to validate the company's strategy in a rational way, while using a simplified model. Indeed the PLS method suffers from a deficiency of theoretical foundation. But similarly, Kaplan and Norton's approach was strongly criticized in the specialized literature from this point of view as well. The difficulty with which future researchers will be challenged lies in the compromise between the pragmatism sought by the organizations and the need for the theoretical framework required by scholars

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EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF THE LABOR DISPLACEMENT ON THE HOUSING MARKETS

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ABSTRACT

There are few studies of the labor displacement for the housing markets. The average house price in Taipei has increased by 20 percent from last year. Housing prices have reached a record high, which drew complaints from the public. Due to the inclined-policies, and the participations of Taiwan businesses and Mainland investors, property prices keep climbing up, despite the recent financial crisis. According to Taiwan RDEC's (The Research, Development and Evaluation Commission) internet poll, the top public discontent is the "Over-priced housings in metropolitan area". "Housing" is an important demand among people. There sure will be serious public discontents, if the governments do not have clear objectives and regulations in terms of policies and legislations. But at the same time, we can see the increasing "added worker effect," which is an increase in married women's labor supply in response to their husbands' unemployment spells.

JEL: R21, R23

KEYWORDS: Education distribution, Marriage distribution, Housing markets, Labor displacement

A CO-OPETITIVE FRAMEWORK FOR ACCOUNTING HARMONIZATION: THE CASE OF THE FASB AND IASB CONVERGENCE AGREEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims at analyzing the evolution of the relationships between two major accounting standards setter bodies (FASB and IASB - Financial Accounting Standards Board and International Accounting Standards Board) through a strategic theoretical framework. This study shows that the interactions between those institutions can be defined as coopetition. Scholars' attention to coopetition defined as a simultaneous pursuit of cooperation and competition by firms (Bengtsson and Kock, 2000; Gnyawali et al. 2008) has been increasing over the years with increased managerial significance. A case-based exploratory method is used to highlight this paradoxical relation. These results are particularly interesting because they deal with a case of institutional coopetition, a topic that has been two less investigated by scholars.

INTRODUCTION

The current global economic crisis highlights the impact of the accounting standards on the evaluation of firm performance. In such a context, the type of standards companies use becomes increasingly critical. Both, FASB and IASB, are two of the most important standards setter bodies responsible for accounting standardization in the world, each one developing its own set of standards: the US GAAP and the IFRS (United-States General Accepted Accounting Principles – International Financial Reporting Standards). The economic and financial globalization pointed out the need for global accounting standards. As an answer to this question, those institutions, previously acting as competitors, began to collaborate. From a strategic point of view, this evolution is analyzed as coopetition.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Coopetition: A New Dyadic Strategy

In strategic management, competition and cooperation have often been presented as two opposing forces. Bresser and Harl (1986) show that sequences between cooperative and competitive strategies creates many dysfunctions. Several authors consider that it may be beneficial for the companies to combine competition and cooperation, two strategies that were previously thought to be *a priori* contradictory (Bengtsson and Kock, 1999, 2000; Brandenburger and Nalebuff, 1995, 1996). The creation of the neologism 'coopetition', a contraction of cooperation and competition, gives rise to a new research field, which analyzes relationships that are simultaneously cooperative and competitive. Brandenburger and Nalebuff (1995, 1996) are the first authors to propose a framework of coopetition. They use game theory to define the coopetition as "a bringing together of interests between complementors when cooperation and competition occur simultaneously" (Dagnino et al., 2007, p. 88). More recently, Bengtsson and Kock (1999, 2000) develop a theory of coopetition based mainly on the social network analysis and the resource based view (RBV). The authors define coopetition as a "dyadic and paradoxical relationship which emerges when two companies cooperate in some activities, and are at the same time in competition

one with the other on other activities” (Bengtsson and Kock, 2000, p. 412). This definition of the concept is the most relevant. Coopetitive strategies have been growing over the years with increased managerial significance. The diffusion of coopetition goes beyond multinational firms. Indeed, coopetition becomes a real strategic standard between SME’s (Morris et al., 2007; Gnyawali and Park, 2009), between subsidiaries (Luo, 2007) but also between institutions. Too less attention has been paid to coopetition between institutions, creating a gap on the literature about this topic. This research is focused on the strategic decision-making process of institutions. The objective is to understand why competing institutions are involved in such paradoxical relationships. In order to do so, we explore the literature about the macro drivers of coopetition.

The Macro Drivers of Coopetition

Actors don’t have the same propensity to develop coopetition (Bengtsson and Kock, 1999, 2000; Gnyawali and Park, 2009). Some of them focus their attention on coopetition while others deliberately refuse to work with their competitors (Gnyawali and Park, 2009). The reasons for this choice are not well understood. Scholars tried to explain the adoption of coopetitive strategies by examining several levels of drivers: industry, dyadic, organization and intra-organization. But, the complexity of coopetition can’t be summarized at one level of analysis. In order to understand why institutions adopt coopetition, we try to develop a framework about macro drivers of coopetition.

Coopetition is more likely to emerge in dynamic and complex environments in which knowledge is the core of firm’s competitiveness (Carayannais and Alexander, 1999). Though, coopetition appears mostly in hi-tech industries (Gnyawali et al., 2008). Three characteristics of hi-tech industries explain why coopetition become a strategic standard: The short life-product cycle, the technological convergence and the importance of R&D costs (Gnyawali and Park, 2009).

Michael Porter (1980) considers that the structure and the environment influence inter-organizational competitive behaviours. The same logic can be applied to coopetition: the structure and the environment influence inter-organizational coopetitive behaviours. Okura (2007) show that coopetition emerges because a specific structure exists to allow the actors to achieve common objectives on some activities and private objectives on others. Moreover, the markets’ structures can encourage cooperation or competition. They also pressure the way in which both strategies combine one with the other. The edition of formal rules, like the Sherman Act in 1980, drives the strategic choices of the actors. Institutions have the power to influence the structure of the market and thus to induce coopetition (Bonel and Rocco, 2007).

The structure of a network is also powerful to stimulate collaboration between competitors (Ring and Van de Ven, 1992; Easton and Araujo, 1992; Gomes-Casseres, 1994). In clusters, collaboration between competitors is critical for the innovation process (Bengtsson and Solvell, 2004). The Silicon Valley is a good example of potential coopetitive structure (Ferrary, 2003).

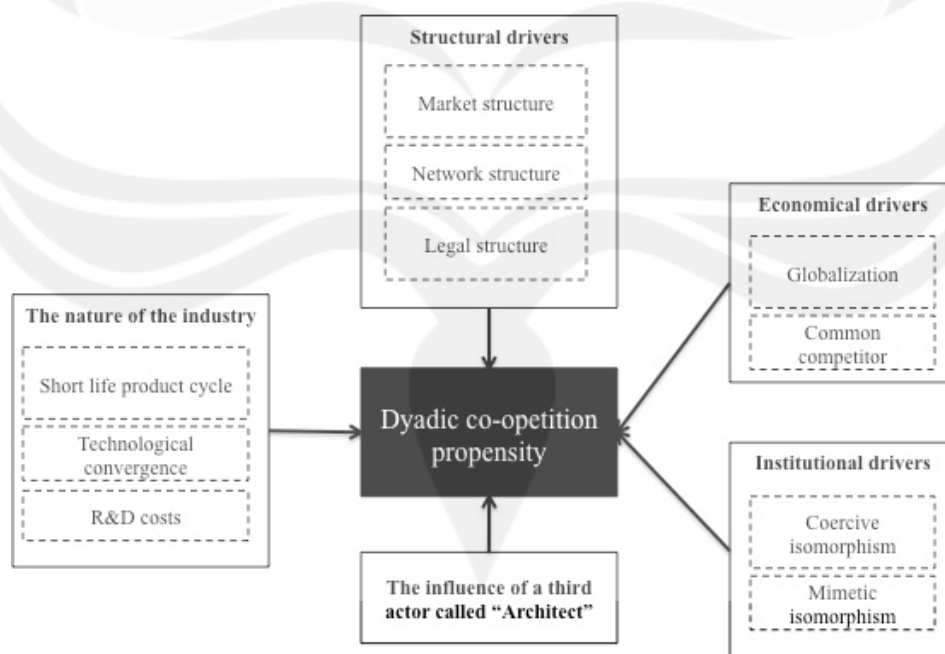
The dyadic relationship could be direct (without being mediated by a 3rd party such as client, consultant, government, institution) or mediated by such a third party (Jacobides and Billinger, 2006). Previous researches show that the presence of a third actor, who is not a competitor, provides interesting dynamics coopetition. Depeyre and Dumez (2010) compared the role of a third actor to an architect in terms of designing and driving coopetition. Castaldo et al. (2010) point out that the intermediary impacts not only the emergence of coopetition but also the management of the relationship. Globalization increases

hypercompetition (D'Aveni, 1995) and created new collaborative opportunities (Contractor and Lorange, 1998). In spite of being competitors, actors have to face the same environmental constraints. In such a context, pooling their forces appears as a good opportunity to survive maintaining their market shares (Tidstrom and Ahman, 2006; Bonel and Rocco, 2007). Two competitors can also decide to cooperate in order to win against a third common competitor (Bengtsson and Kock, 1999).

The diffusion of coopetition like a strategic standard is surprising. The neo-institutional theory explains the phenomenon by the presence of a common institutional environment (Meyer and Rowan, 1977). This perspective offers interesting insights to understand the emergence of coopetition (Oliver, 1991). Coopetition can result from three types of isomorphic institutional pressures (Di Maggio and Powell, 1983; Scott, 1995). First, coercive isomorphism comes from political influence. An actor can formally or informally pressure actors to fit with cultural standards of the society. These pressures can be seen as incentives by the actors to join the collusion. In that sense, coercive isomorphism influences coopetition. Second, mimetic isomorphism explains the diffusion of coopetitive practices within an industry (Luo, 2004) or in hi-tech industries (Gnyawali and al., 2008). The adoption of coopetitive strategies results from the actors' will to be consistent with environmental norms and standards. Third, normative isomorphism that is related to the professionalization of the labour force has less power to explain the emergence of coopetition than the two other types of isomorphism.

The literature review presented above offers interesting insights to understand macro drivers of coopetition. Based on the different drivers identified, we propose the following integrated framework (figure 1). This framework will be discussed further with the results of our case study.

Figure 1: an integrated framework of coopetition's macro drivers



METHOD

A Qualitative In-Depth Case Study

Case-based exploratory methods seem very appropriate to understand a phenomenon that is poorly understood (Eisenhardt, 1989), has multiple and complex elements (Dodgson et al. 2008) that evolve over time (Langley, 1999). In-depth study exploring details of a multi-faceted and paradoxical phenomenon as coopetition is the best way to understand the difficulties associated with the design of coopetitive strategy (Gnyawali and Park, 2011). Accordingly, we conducted in-depth studies of one exemplar case in order to develop insights about the macro drivers of the phenomenon (Yin, 1994). Indeed, the relationships between the FASB and the IASB are unique and offer us an exemplar case of investigation. The data gathering is carried out starting from analysis of secondary data: internal data (internal reports, reports of meeting, etc.) and external data (general and specialized press review). The mode of reasoning is based on abductive logic, since the results of the case study and the academic insights have been simultaneously processed.

Accounting Standardization

Werner Sombart has famously defended the idea of a link between economy and the double entry accounting evolution (Lemarchand and Nikitin, 2000). During the last century, the main industrial countries develop their own accounting standards in order to help companies to report their financial information in priority whether to investors or to the tax authorities and creditors, depending on the accounting model they refer to: the Anglo-Saxon or the Continental one (Nobes, 1983). At this time, this latter dissociated the “Macro-Uniform Government-driven Tax-dominated” from the “Micro-fair-judgmental commercially-driven” approach. Depending on the country, accounting regulation is assumed by the State or some inter State organization (the case of the European Union – EU), or by an independent entity like the FASB (the case of the USA: although considered as independent, the FASB is controlled by the Security Exchange Commission) or a totally private independent organization like the IASB. The form of accounting regulation is contingent to each country, depending on historical, social, economic, legal and political specificities (Colasse, 2005).

These contingencies lead to the elaboration of different accounting languages almost in every country. These differences interferes with the intelligibility and comparability of financial information beyond borders and consequently with the access of companies to foreign financial markets. Accounting standards become an important actor of the development of International companies. From the late 70's to nowadays, the relationships between the main accounting standards setters have evolved as described hereafter.

The Case Study

At a European level, the EU decides to enter into a harmonization process by developing the 4th, the 7th and the 8th directives (1978, 1983, 1984) to deal with this situation. At an International level, the IASC develops a set of International accounting standards, the IAS. At the same time, the US GAAP are considered as the best accounting system. Consequently, most companies use them in order to achieve understandability and comparability of their financial statements among International investors. The supremacy of the US GAAP decreased since the adoption of the IAS/IFRS by the European Union. Since the creation of the IASC by Henri Benson in 1973, the need for accounting standards harmonization lead

the FASB and the IASB to cooperate in order to reach a consensus on some specific themes (Street and Shaughnessy, 1998). In 1993, the FASB was one of the four Anglo-Saxon standards setters (the Australian Accounting Standards Board (AASB), Canadian Accounting Standards Board (AcSB), FASB and UK Accounting Standards Board (ASB)) the IASC began to work with in order to achieve accounting compatibility between their standards. At the same time, the accounting standards of the FASB and the IASC were in competition in the harmonization process conducted in Europe (Colasse, 2004).

In the 90's, the European Union did not succeed in harmonizing the accounting practices throughout its territory, and European companies began to use the US or the International accounting standards to reach information comparability on financial markets. At that point, the question of the choice of one of those sets of standards emerged; in 2002 the UE chose the IAS/IFRS to avoid the USA hegemony.

Relationships between FASB and IASB have evolved since then and ended up at a common project of accounting standards convergence. The Norwalk agreement (2002) leads to interdependencies between them. Initially competitors, they have to collaborate to develop a single accounting standards set. Since then, these institutions have been at the same time partners and competitors. The framework of the drivers of co-opetition is relevant to understand the definition of firms' strategies. Since institutions like the FASB and the IASB strategically behave as global companies, we ask whether this framework is also relevant to explain the evolution of their relationships.

RESULTS

The results provide insights regarding three macro drivers of cooperative strategy emerging between the FASB and the IASB. First, following Jacobides and Billinger (2006), our results confirm the influence of a third actor called « architect » in the emergence of cooperative relationships. The European Union is identified as the architect of co-opetition as its choices constraints the FASB and the IASB to collaborate. Since the EU chose international standards, the US GAAP have been less used by multinational firms. Thus, influential developed countries have started to make their own accounting standards converged with the IFRS. Consequently, the SEC finally accepted financial statements based on IFRS standards on US financial markets. Second, in the perspective of the neo-institutional theory (Di Maggio and Powell, 1983; Scott, 1995), the results of the case study point out the critical role of coercive isomorphism in the emergence of cooperative strategy. Indeed, after scandals such as the Enron case, the US GAAP are considered less reliable. The context benefits the IFRS. Since then, a growing number of Americans started to be seduced by the IFRS (Veron, 2007). Besides, the Sarbanes-Oxley act (July 2002) mandated the SEC to evaluate if a principles-based accounting system set could be introduced in the US. As the IFRS are a principles-based accounting system, the Norwalk Agreement, enables the FASB to revise its own accounting standards.

Third, considering the strategic intent in the collaboration between two accounting standards setter bodies, the results of our case study show a yet non-investigated macro driver. Whereas co-opetition between global companies is driven by technological standardization (Gnyawali and Park, 2009), this case of institutional co-opetition is driven by normative harmonization. Accounting standard development is presented as a kind of economic policy that offers to the concerned standard setter organization a sort of political power (Veron, 2007). The question of the power of standard setter organization appears to be the core of the subject, whereas the institutions point out the interest of stakeholders and more specifically the one of investors as the main goal of their action ("efficient allocation of capital by investors everywhere in the world" (Shapiro, 2011)).

CONCLUSION

This study contributes to both coopetition and strategic management literature. We highlight the macro drivers of coopetition. Institutional drivers have been two less investigated by scholars. Our study provides interesting insights to fulfill the gap regarding this topic in coopetition literature. In that sense, relationships between the FASB and the IASB can be seen as an exemplar case of institutional coopetition.

The case study also contributes to accounting literature providing a strategic framework to analyze the relationships between two accounting standards setter bodies. Such a framework is actually relevant to understand the decision-making process of these two actors. Our study is presenting some limitations that offer opportunities for future research. First, this study is based on secondary data that could be completed with semi-structured interviews conducted with key actors. A quantitative study could enable the confirmation of our results. Second, we made a longitudinal study on a short period. Relationships between the FASB and the IASB are still evolving. Further study could analyze the next strategic steps.

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ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF THE USE OF SOLAR ENERGY IN KUWAIT

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ABSTRACT

In Kuwait, the current method of generating electricity using conventional power plants cannot provide the beneficiaries with adequate service unless more plants are constructed. In addition to their high cost, these plants cause environmental damage, creating the need to investigate an alternative source of clean energy. The objective of this study is to assess the technical and economic feasibility of implementing Photovoltaic (PV) solar energy in residential houses in Kuwait. First, data and information were collected and the appropriate PV system was selected according to cost and PV specifications. Second, the equivalent annual costs of the PV system with various discount rates were estimated together with the cost per kWh both for new and existing houses. Third, the annual reduction of CO₂ emissions resulting from implementing grid-tied PV systems was calculated. Taking into consideration the financial savings from CO₂ reduction, the cost per kWh was estimated and compared with the current cost. The purported discount rate adopted by the Kuwaiti government's long term plan is 6.7%. However, a range of discount rates from 0% to 20% was applied and results obtained. The results showed that with a 6.7% discount rate the annual savings on energy costs for a new house and a previously constructed one were KD 745 and KD 653 respectively. The results also revealed that the payback periods for the PV system for these houses are 15 and 15.5 years respectively. It is concluded that building integrated PV (BIPV) solar energy is economically and technically feasible in Kuwait when the discount rate is equal to, or less than, the break-even point of 10.36% discount rate.

KEYWORDS: BIPV, Equivalent Annual Cost, Pay-back Period, Renewable Energy, Solar Energy.

INTRODUCTION

The energy consumption in Kuwait is increasing at a rate of 8% annually (Alotaibi, 2011). The accelerating growth of both the population and new cities, and the need for new infrastructure, especially in forms of electricity and water, has doubled the loads of electrical power plants, and constitutes challenges to find alternative sources of electrical power. Residential buildings consume a high percentage of electricity and can reach 70% of total production during the summer (MEW, 2010). The current method used to generate electricity cannot effectively provide the beneficiaries with adequate service all through the year, unless more new conventional power plants are constructed (Al-Faris, 2002). Conventional power plants are major oil consumers; the consumption in these plants alone would reach 26.5% of the total Kuwaiti oil production by 2020. With the oil production rate of 2008, all of the oil produced would be consumed locally by 2027 (Alotaibi, 2011).

Kuwait is considered one of the highest carbon dioxide emitters per capita in the world (30.2 ton/person), mostly due to gases emitted from conventional electricity plants (UN data, 2010). Emissions of toxic gas from traditional power generators, which run on fossil fuels, are harmful to the environment and humans alike. In these circumstances, there is a growing interest in renewable and eco-friendly energy sources such as solar energy, to be used as auxiliary sources of energy. Solar energy is one of the renewable

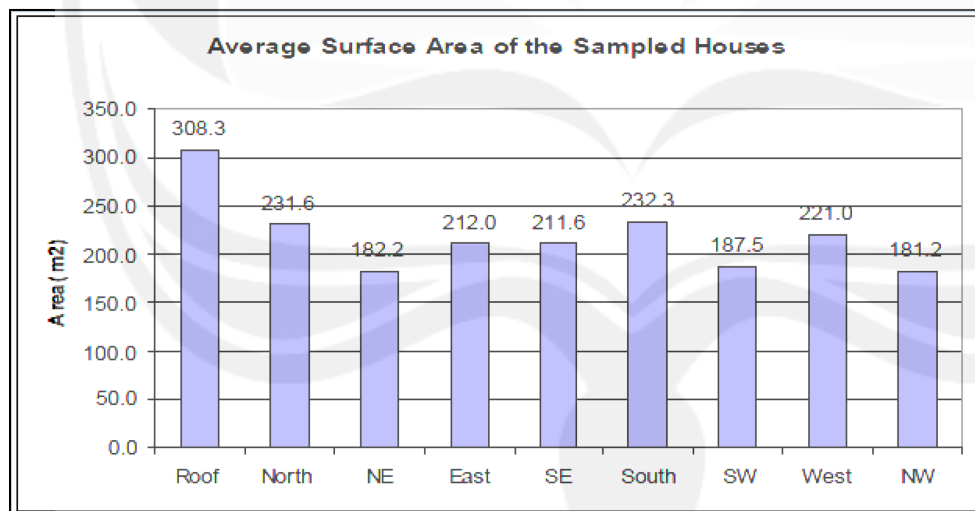
energy sources that can be a partial substitute for fossil fuel, to avoid most of the negative impact of fossil fuels (Kumar and Tiwari, 2009). Photovoltaic (PV) technology is proven and easy to use and the global PV market is predicted to increase substantially in the future. (Hoffmann, 2006).

KUWAIT GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION AND AVERAGE RESIDENTIAL BUILDING

Kuwait is a desert country with a clean, hot and dry climate. From the NASA clearness index, K_T , the average yearly reading for Kuwait over a twenty-year period is 0.59, which is considered almost clear sky all year long. For values above 0.5, the location is considered to have clear skies most days of the year (Islam, et al., 2009). The maximum yearly total global solar radiation corresponds to a tilt angle of 30° , which is equal to Kuwait's latitude. The PV arrays for a proposed system should have the same orientation, 30° angle facing south (Al-Hasan, et al., 2004). The average annual sun hours for Kuwait are 9.2 hours daily. With average peak hours of 7.5 daily, average solar radiation of 5.5 kW/m^2 and diffused radiation of 1.6 kW/m^2 , only 1 kW/m^2 would normally be needed to activate the solar cell to its maximum power output (Alnaser et al., 2004).

Al-Mumin and Al-Mohaisen (2008) showed that the average roof area of a typical Kuwaiti house is 308.3 m^2 , as shown in Fig.1. The average Kuwaiti house consists of two and a half floors, and consumes an average of 166.25 MW/yr (MEW, 2009). The latest MEW report (2010) stated that there are 375529 houses or consumers in the residential sector. The actual cost of producing electricity in Kuwait is 34 Fils/kWh ($\$0.12/\text{kWh}$) (Ramadhan and Nasseeb, 2011).

Figure1: First Column Represents the Average Roof Surface Area of Kuwaiti Houses (Source: Al-Mumin and Al-Mohaisen, 2008).



PARAMETERS OF THE SELECTED BIPV SYSTEM

Pv Modules

Selecting the proper module depends on a number of factors, for example: maximum efficiency, minimum area modules occupy, highest output power a system can give and cost of the PV module. The specification data of four different types of PV modules were collected (Samsung, 2011, DMSOLAR,

2011, SinoSolar 2011 and BestSun 2011). Hadi (2011) analyzed these data and concluded that the BestSun156P300-72 module is the most appropriate module to be installed in Kuwait. Table 1 presents the main comparison features between the four modules, some specific data for each module and the comparison results.

The Inverter

Electricity supply in Kuwaiti uses 3-phase power, which leads to the selection of a model TLS-ZB 40kW inverter unit. The cost per inverter is \$8810, with a twenty-year manufacturer's warranty (Tresstech, 2011).

Table 1: Comparison of Four Different PV Modules

Features	Samsung LPC241SM	DmSolar DM-280M2-3	SinoSolar SA260-96	BestSun156P300-72
Cell type	mono-crystalline	poly-crystalline	mono-crystalline	poly-crystalline
Effeciency	15.06%	14.40%	NA	15.6%
Module's output wattage	241	280	260	300
Module Price \$	582	518	429	465
Price/Watt \$	2.41	1.85	1.65	1.55
NOCT	46 +-2C	47 +-2C	NA	46 +-2C
Weight	18.6 Kg	23.2 Kg	NA	23Kg
Temp. Cycling	(-)40 t0 +85 C	(-) 40 to +90 C	NA	(-) 40 to +85 C
Roof Area m2	308.3	308.3	308.3	308.3
Occupied area (ms)	1.60066	1.940352	1.659	1.940352
Total AAPM plus shade	2 m2	2.3 m2	2 m2	2.3 m2
No. of Modules	154	134	154	134
System power watt	37114	37520	40040	40200
Cost of Modules \$	89444.74	69412	66066	62310

The Balance of the System (BOS)

BOS of a PV system consists of all the system or engineering components. It primarily consists of an inverter to transform the direct current (DC) output from the PV array into a form of alternating current (AC) electricity that can be synchronized with, and connected to, the electric utility grid. It also involves support structures and the cost of labor in the system installation. The BOS accounts for 30% to 40% of the cost of the PV system. In some studies, 35% was chosen as the average BOS cost factor of the PV system, taking into account that none of the other components are added to the cost of the modules. In most cases, the cost of the inverter, which is the second most expensive component of the system, is added to the module cost, thus decreasing the BOS cost from 35% to 25% (Ayompe, et al., 2010).

ESTIMATING THE PV SYSTEM INITIAL COST

Modules And Inverter Initial Costs

The roof area of the average residential house is 308.3m². Each module of the selected model BestSun156 P300-72 occupies 2.3m² including the shaded area between module panels.

Number of modules per PV system = total roof area / area of a single module
 $= 308.3\text{m}^2 / 2.3\text{m}^2 = 134$ modules per house

Initial cost of one module with 300-watt peak output power = \$ 465 (Table 1)

Initial cost of all modules = \$465 * 134 = \$62,310

Initial cost of the inverter = \$8,810/system (Tresstech, 2011).

BOS Initial Cost And Total PV System Initial Costs Per House

System initial cost = modules initial cost + inverter initial cost + BOS initial cost(1)

It is assumed that the cost of BOS = 25% of the system cost (Rigter and Vidican, 2010).

Let x = the initial cost per system in equation (1)

$$x = \$62,310 + \$8,810 + 0.25x$$

BOS initial cost = \$94,827 * 0.25 = \$23,707 per house

Total PV system initial costs = \$94,827 / house

ESTIMATING THE EQUIVALENT ANNUAL COST (EAC) OF THE PV SYSTEM

Cost of Operations and Maintenance (O&M)

Using the following equation (Park, 2009):

$$AAOM = P \cdot (1+f)^n \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Where: AAOM is the average annual cost of operation and maintenance, P is the present O&M cost

(System data manual) = \$500, f is the annual inflation rate expected = 3.24% (InflationData.com, 2011), and n is the system estimated useful life = 20 years. Then, AAOM = \$688.40

Total Equivalent Annual Costs (Eac)

$$EAC = A_i + AAOM \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

Where:

EAC is total system equivalent annual cost, A_i is the equivalent annual cost of the system initial cost at certain discount rate (i) and is derived from the following equation:

$$A_i = P * CRF \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

Where: P is the system initial cost, CRF is the capital recovery factor and is obtained from the following equation:

$$CRF = \left[\frac{i \times (1+i)^n}{(1+i)^n - 1} \right] \dots\dots\dots(5)$$

Where: *i* is the discount rate and *n* is the system useful life, assumed to be 20 years.

The purported discount rate adopted by the Kuwaiti government's long term plan is 6.7%. However, a range of discount rates from 0% to 20% was applied. The resulting EACs in US\$ and Kuwaiti Dinars (KD) are given in Table (2).

Table 2: EAC of BIPV System with Different Discount Rates

Discount rate	Initial cost (\$)	Initial cost per/year (\$)	O&M/year (\$)	System EAC	
				(\$)	(KD)
0%	94,827	4741.3	688.4	5432.0	1,514.4
5%	94,827	7609.1	688.4	8297.6	2,313.4
6%	94,827	8267.4	688.4	8,961.2	2,496.9
6.7%	94,827	8743.3	688.4	9431.8	2,629.6
10%	94,827	11138.3	688.4	11826.7	3,297.3
15%	94,827	15149.7	688.4	15838.1	4,415.7
20%	94,827	19473.3	688.4	20161.7	5,621.1

SYSTEM ANNUAL OUTPUT POWER (AOP) AND COST PER kWh

AOP in Kuwait = average insolation /m2/yr * module efficiency * modules area(6)

(Ramadhan and Nasseeb, 2011) The average annual solar insolation for Kuwait = 2080 kWh/m2/yr (Ramadhan and Nasseeb, 2011 & Alnaser, et al., 2004),

Module efficiency = 15.6% (BestSun, 2011)

Area occupied by 134 modules = 134 * 1.94 m2 (Table 1) = 259.96 m2

AOP in Kuwait = 2080 kWh/m2/year * 0.156 * 259.96 m2 = 84351.8 kWh/yr

Cost of electricity per kWh = EAC/AOP(7)

Cost of electricity per kWh (at 0% discount rate) = $\frac{1,514.4 \text{ KD}}{84,352 \text{ KW/yr}} = 18 \text{ KF/kWh}$

1KD=1000 Kuwaiti Fils (KF)

Table (3) shows the cost/kWh at several discount rates in US cents and KF

Table 3: Cost per kWh for the BIPV system at different discount rates

Discount rate		0%	5%	6%	6.7%	10%	15%	20%
System EAC	US \$	5432	8298	8956	9432	11827	15838	20161
	KD	1514	2313	2497	2630	3297	4416	5621
System AOP (kWh/house)		84352	84352	84352	84352	84352	84352	84352
Cost/kWh	US Cent	6.4	9.8	10.6	11.2	14.0	18.8	23.9
	KF	18.0	27.4	29.6	31.2	39.1	52.3	66.6

* 1US dollar = 0.2788 Kuwaiti Dinar (KD) ** 1 Kuwaiti Dinar (KD) = 3.586 US dollars

SYSTEM NET COST AFTER DEDUCTING THE CO₂ COST/kWh

CO₂ emission has a cost; this cost however ranges widely, depending on several factors (Roberto, 2010). In this study the average cost of CO₂ emission is taken as \$30/ton (Ramadhan and Nasseeb, 2011; Chel, et al.; 2009; Johnson and Keith, 2004). The amount of CO₂-e prevented by the use of solar energy, i.e. the equivalent amount of carbon dioxide emitted to the atmosphere by conventional energy sources, is given (EPA, 2011) as:

Annual amount saved of CO₂ per kWh = 7.18×10^{-4} metric tons CO₂/kWh(8)

$$= (7.18 \times 10^{-4}) \text{ metric tons CO}_2 \text{ per kWh} \times 84351.8 \text{ kWh} = 60.6 \text{ metric tons/house/year}$$

Cost of CO₂ saved by the PV system = $60.6 \times \$30 = \$1818/\text{house}$ (KD 507/house)

Cost of CO₂ saved per kWh = Annual cost of CO₂ / PV system annual output power
 $= \$1818 / 84351.8 \text{ kWh} = \$0.022/\text{kWh}$ (KF 6.1/kWh)

Net cost per kWh (at zero interest rate) = EAC per kWh – CO₂ cost per kWh
 $= 18 - 6.1 = \text{KF } 11.9 / \text{kWh}$

Table 4 shows the net system cost per kWh at several discount rates.

COST COMPARISONS BETWEEN PV AND CURRENT SYSTEMS

The current electricity cost in Kuwait is 34 KF/kWh (Ramadhan and Nasseeb, 2011). The discount rate adopted by the Kuwaiti government's long term plan is 6.7%.

Cost per house at 6.7% discount rate using PV system = 2123.5 KD/house

Current annual cost = Cost/kWh * Annual PV system output
 $= 34 \times 84351.8 = 2868 \text{ KD/year}$

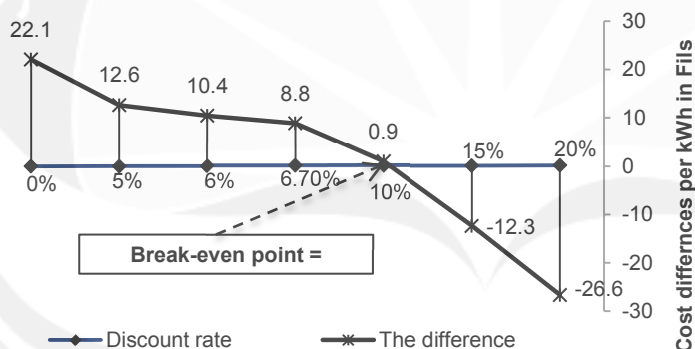
Annual saving per house = $2,868 - 2123.5 = 744.5 \text{ KD/house}$

Table (5) shows the cost comparisons between the PV system and current system per kWh and per house per year for several discount rates. Figure 2 shows the cost differences per kWh between PV system and conventional system at different discount rates. Fig.3 shows the annual cost differences per house at different discount rates. It is shown that the PV system is economically feasible when the discount rate is \leq the break-even point of 10.36% discount rate.

Table 4: Cost Comparisons between PV & Current Cost for a New House

Discount rate	PV system cost /kWh	PV System annual cost / house	Current cost/kWh	Cost Differences KF/kWh	Current annual cost/house	Annual Cost differences KD/house
0%	11.9	1007.7	34	22.1	2868	1860.3
5%	21.4	1807.3	34	12.6	2868	1060.7
6%	23.6	1990.8	34	10.4	2868	877.2
6.7%	25.2	2123.5	34	8.8	2868	744.5
10%	33.1	2791.2	34	0.9	2868	76.8
10.36%	34.0	2868.0	34	0.0	2868	0.0
15%	46.3	3909.6	34	-12.3	2868	-1041.6
20%	60.6	5115.0	34	-26.6	2868	-2247.0

Figure 2: Cost Differences per kWh between PV and Conventional Systems



SYSTEM PAY-BACK PERIOD FOR NEWLY CONSTRUCTED HOUSES

The estimated payback period (PBP) is given as (Chel and Tiwari, 2011):

The system PBP = (system total annual cost per house at certain discount rate * system lifespan in years) / current annual cost of electricity per house

Where: system annual cost at 0% discount rate is 1007.7 KD, system lifespan is 20 years and current annual cost of electricity per house is 2868 KD/house/yr.

$$\text{PBP at 0\% discount rate} = \frac{1,007.7\text{KD} \times 20}{2,868\text{KD}} = 7 \text{ years}$$

PBP at several discount rates is given in Figure (4). It is shown that at 6.7% discount rate the PBP is 14.8 years, and at the break-even discount rate of 10.36% it is 20 years.

Figure 3: Annual Cost Differences per House at Different Discount Rates

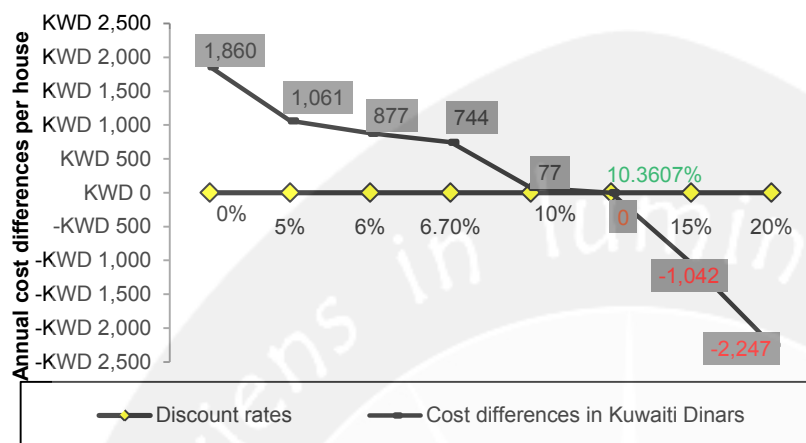
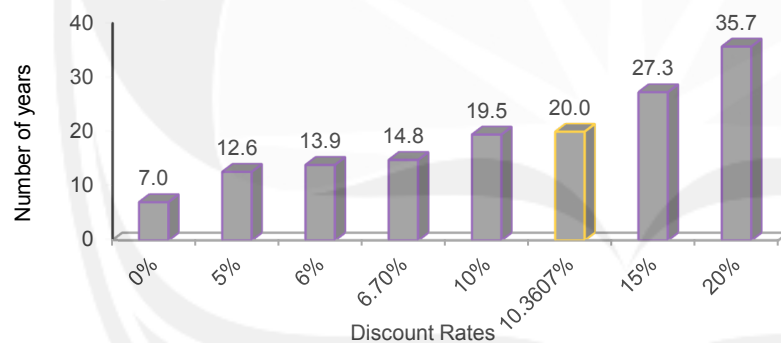


Figure 4: PBP of PV System for Newly Constructed Houses



PV SYSTEM FOR PREVIOUSLY CONSTRUCTED HOUSES

The only difference between implementing a BIPV system on a newly constructed and a previously constructed house is the cost of the BOS component. The infrastructure of previously constructed houses does not accommodate the PV system directly. Some adaptations are required to the main utility box and the installation of the wiring conduits. To cover all additional costs, the estimated BOS initial cost of the previously constructed house is estimated to be 15% more than the BOS cost of a new house. The same methodology used for estimating the cost for newly constructed houses was used. The net cost/kWh was calculated for several discount rates. The results showed that the net cost is 12.5 and 24.6 Kf/kWh for 0.0% and 6% discount rates respectively. The results also revealed that with a 6.7% discount rate, annual saving for a previously constructed house is KD 653. The PV system is economically feasible when the discount rate is \leq the break-even point of 9.82% discount rate and the payback period is 15.5 years.

CONCLUSIONS

Due to the extensive use of conventional power plants, Kuwait is considered one of the highest carbon dioxide emitters per capita in the world, 30.2 ton/person/year. The PV system would reduce the country's emissions by almost twenty three million tons per year. The sunny climate of Kuwait creates excellent conditions for increasing the peak hour output of the PV system, which in turn lowers the cost of the BIPV system. Taking into consideration the financial saving of the CO₂ reduction resulting from using the new system, the EAC of the BIPV system is lower than the EAC of the current conventional source of energy. At 6.7% discount rate, the estimated cost/kWh of the BIPV system for a new house is 25.2 KF, while for a previously constructed house it is 26.3 KF. The current conventional electricity cost is 34 KF/kWh. The annual savings, therefore, of BIPV for newly and previously constructed houses are 744 and 635KD/house respectively.

The estimated payback periods of the BIPV system, with 6.7% discount rate, for newly and previously constructed houses are 14.8 and 15.4 years respectively. These are shorter than the twenty-year lifespan of the BIPV system. BIPV solar energy is economically and technically feasible in Kuwait when the discount rate is equal to, or less than, the break-even point of 10.36% for new houses and 9.82% for existing houses.

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IMPORTANT KNOWLEDGE FOR STRATEGIC INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Recently, the concept of CIPO (Chief Intellectual Property Officer) is attracting attention as a leader in enterprise management to promote strategic Intellectual Property management. CIPO is a key player to link and achieve Business, Research and Development, and Intellectual Property strategy with CEO and CTO. However, there are no training courses focused on CIPO education in companies or outside institutes like graduate schools. The purpose of this study was to investigate important knowledge for CIPOs to develop an ideal CIPO training course for CIPO candidates. The results showed a clear demand for CIPO training course at graduate schools, and the important knowledge for strategic intellectual property management were related to "Business" and "Human" skills, rather than "Legal" and "Legal practice". The overall results suggested that CIPO training course at graduate schools should apply "business school" approach rather than "law school" approach which is more legal focused.

INTRODUCTION

Intellectual Property (IP) is recognized as one of the company's most important assets. As Technology management is having a dramatic impact on IP Management, the concept of CIPO is attracting attention as a leader in enterprise management to promote strategic IP management. CIPO is a kind of CxO, and a key player to link and achieve Business, Research and Development, and IP strategy with CEO and CTO. Under such circumstance, there is an increasing demand for educational institutions like graduate schools to take more serious action for IP education and training. In Japan, a standard called "Intellectual Property Skill Standards (IPSS)" was developed for IP professionals by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (2007). IP management specialists' education has been started at universities around the world. However, there is no training course focused on CIPO education in graduate schools in the world. The purpose of this study was to investigate the important knowledge of CIPOs to develop ideal CIPO training courses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Kato investigated the carriers and experiences of CIPOs in Japanese companies (Kato, 2010). Phelps and Kline explained the roll of CIPO in major IT companies in detail (Phelps and Kline, 2009). The necessities of the training for intellectual property managers, training methods and programs, etc. have been discussed in several studies (ex. Nagata, 2004). Marushima, the former CIPO of major manufacturers in Japan introduced CIPOs' responsibilities of the position (Marushima, 2008). Despite the numerous studies related to this issue, there has been no conclusive answer to the program of CIPO Education in companies or outside institutes like graduate schools.

METHODOLOGY

We provided questionnaire surveys to various CIPOs in Japan (domestic) and Overseas (international). The surveys were sent to companies that submitted a high volume of patent applications which based on the ratio analysis of previous questionnaires classified by the volume of submitted patent applications per year. The survey was also sent to IP businesses sectors that were keen to have a CIPO.

In this study, the definition of CIPO was

- 1) Leader in enterprise management to promote strategic IP management; or
- 2) A Key player to link and achieve Business strategy, Research and Development strategy; and
- 3) Develop IP strategy with CEO and CTO.

The questionnaire forms were sent to the 168 Japanese companies (based on JPO survey in 2008), between March-April 2009 and 137 international companies (Top 150 USPTO Applicants in 2008 and Top 100 PCT Applicants in 2009, excluding Japanese companies), in May 2010, also, to the 51 international companies based on Intellectual Property Business Congress 2010 (IPBC) attendees' list, in Oct 2010. Responses were obtained from 59 domestic companies (35.1%) and 13 international companies (6.91%).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Categories, Sub-Categories and Knowledge Items

We used a five-point Likert scale to investigate the important knowledge necessary for CIPOs. The most important attribute was ranked 5 by the respondents and the least important was ranked 1. 25 items were selected from the IPSS categories. Graduate school's IP and business course subjects were also used as a reference. There were 4 big categories related to "Performance Evaluation" such as (1) Business, (2) Law, (3) Legal practice and (4) Other. Each big category had sub-categories related to "Practice". In (1) Business, there were 3 sub-categories (Management, IP management, Standardization). Table 1 shows sub-category and items in (1) Business.

Table 1: Items in Category (1) Business

sub-category:	items:	name of items
management	corporate strategy/ management strategy	knowledge 1
	management of technology	knowledge 2
	marketing	knowledge 3
	accounting/financial affairs	knowledge 4
ip management	ip management/ strategy planning	knowledge 5
	ip licensing	knowledge 6
	ip evaluation	knowledge 7
standardization	international standardization strategy	knowledge 8

in (2) "law", there were 2 sub-categories (domestic ip law and international ip law). table 2 shows sub-category and items in (2) law.

Table 2: Items in Category (2) Law

sub-category:	items:	name of items
domestic ip law	patent law	knowledge 9
	design patent law	knowledge 10
	trademark law	knowledge 11
	precedents of ip law	knowledge 12
	copyright law	knowledge 13
	unfair competition prevention law	knowledge 14
	civil law	knowledge 15
international ip law	ip related treaty	knowledge 16
	foreign patent law	knowledge 17

In (3) "Legal practice", there were 2 sub-categories (Domestic, International). Table 3 shows sub-category and items in (3) Legal practice.

Table 3: Items in Category (3) Legal practice

Sub-Category:	ITEMS:	Name of ITEMS
Domestic	Patent application practice	Knowledge 18
	IP litigation practice	Knowledge 19
International	International patent application practice	Knowledge 20
	Foreign patent application practice	Knowledge 21

In (4) "Other", there were 3 sub-categories (Technology, Foreign language, Human skills). Table 4 shows sub-category and items in (4) Other.

Table 4: Items in Category (4) Other

Sub-Category:	ITEMS:	Name of ITEMS
Technology	Technology	Knowledge 22
Language	Foreign language	Knowledge 23
Human Skills	Human resource management/leadership	Knowledge 24
	Negotiation	Knowledge 25

Result of Important Knowledge for CIPOS

Table 5 shows the average scores of Knowledge 1-25. Items scored larger than 4 point were considered to be important knowledge for CIPOs. As a result, 8 items were scored larger than 4 points by domestic CIPOs. BUSINESS: Corporate strategy/ management strategy (Knowledge 1), Management of technology (Knowledge 2), IP management / strategy planning (Knowledge 5), IP licensing (Knowledge 6) , LAW: Patent law (Knowledge 9) , OTHER: Foreign language (Knowledge 23), Human resource management/leadership (Knowledge 24) , Negotiation (Knowledge 25) .

6 items were scored larger than 4 points by international CIPOs. BUSINESS: Corporate strategy/ management strategy (Knowledge 1), Management of technology (Knowledge 2), IP management/ strategy planning (Knowledge 5), IP licensing (Knowledge 6) OTHER: Human resource management/leadership (Knowledge 24), Negotiation (Knowledge 25).

There were similarities between the domestic and international CIPOs. Such as knowledge from (1) "Business" and (4) "Other" category were highly valued. It would be thought more attention should be given to those fields. Accordingly, CIPO training course at graduate schools should apply "business school" approach to develop the ability of management skills and human skills rather than "law school" approach which is more legal focused. The main difference seen between both groups was that international CIPOs did not value "law" and "language" as important knowledge.

Needs for the educational course for CIPOs in Graduate schools

We asked the necessity of CIPO training program in graduate schools, adequate course (Doctors, Masters, Certificate, etc.) and desirable course period. From the results of these questions, more than half domestic and 70% of international CIPOs surveyed recognized the needs of CIPO educational course. More than 60% of both domestic and international CIPOs responded that the course should be Master Degree Course for a period of between 1 or 2 years.

Table 5: Result of average scores of Knowledge 1-25

Name of ITEMS	Domestic	International
Knowledge 1	<u>4.43</u>	<u>4.73</u>
Knowledge 2	<u>4.27</u>	3.91
Knowledge 3	3.79	3.45
Knowledge 4	3.64	3.73
Knowledge 5	<u>4.41</u>	<u>4.82</u>
Knowledge 6	<u>4.09</u>	<u>4.64</u>
Knowledge 7	3.88	<u>4.27</u>
Knowledge 8	3.59	3.09
Knowledge 9	<u>4.05</u>	3.91
Knowledge 10	3.66	3.18
Knowledge 11	3.80	3.27
Knowledge 12	3.70	3.45
Knowledge 13	3.50	3.09
Knowledge 14	3.77	3.00
Knowledge 15	3.55	3.09
Knowledge 16	3.63	3.36
Knowledge 17	3.77	3.45
Knowledge 18	3.88	3.64
Knowledge 19	3.68	3.45
Knowledge 20	3.21	3.36
Knowledge 21	3.39	3.36
Knowledge 22	3.52	3.64
Knowledge 23	<u>4.14</u>	3.36
Knowledge 24	<u>4.43</u>	<u>4.64</u>
Knowledge 25	<u>4.25</u>	<u>4.64</u>

Interview surveys

Interview surveys were conducted to determine whether the findings of this research were applicable to CIPO education course in graduate schools, and to obtain opinions about industry-university cooperation. Interview surveys were conducted on the basis of a loose structure consisting of open ended questions. Interviews took place mid-August 2011. Participants were Dr. Kazunari Sugimitsu (Developer of the “Intellectual Property Skill Standards (IPSS)”, Professor, Ph.D., Patent Attorney), Mr. Tsutomu Kigoshi (Director, Patent, Thomson Engineering Lab. (Technicolor), JD, Patent Attorney) and Mr. Giichi Marushima (Corporate Advisor, The former CIPO of Canon Inc., Patent Attorney).

All the Participants mostly agreed to our conclusion drawn from data collection and analyses undertaken through this study. They strongly agreed to the importance of established collaboration between companies and outside educational institutions specialized in CIPO education. Some impressive comments were as follows. “Most subjects could be adapted from MBA courses and converted as IP courses by adding subjects valued as important experience in this survey.” (Kazunari Sugimitsu). “OJT is one of the best ways to educate CIPO and its candidates. It even works for developing skills to drive the business. However, since CIPO is one of the top executives, lectures should not be given in the workplace by junior staff. Therefore, it is Graduate School’s responsibility to contribute CIPO education.” (Tsutomu Kigoshi). “Collaboration between company and the outside institute is hard to achieve. Educating CIPOs would not be easy whether if it’s done in the work place or the outside institute. The success of the course

is depending on how many practical curriculums could be included. Universities should consider giving lecture on IP at the undergraduate schools, too.” (Giichi Marushima).

CONCLUSION

The results of this study showed a clear demand for CIPO training course at graduate schools. Master's degree on the competition basis for 1 or 2 years thought to be sufficient for CIPO course in graduate schools. The important knowledge for strategic intellectual property management was related to Business and Human skills, rather than Legal or Legal practice. Needless to say, IP law and practice related knowledge will be needed for CIPOs; however the basic legal education was desired to be offered. This means, CIPOs do not have to be legal-professionals. The overall results suggested that the CIPO training courses at graduate school should apply "business school" approach rather than “law school” approach which is more legal focused.

While very few universities internationally offer a special course for IP management, Kanazawa Institute of Technology (K.I.T.) Toranomon Graduate School has been equipping oneself for 2012. This will be first of its kind in the world as a CIPO training course. The course is a Master degree program for working people, along with programs in CIPO education based on the results. K.I.T will be continually attempt to drive themselves to find better approach for CIPO education to respond the social needs. In the end, it is necessary to establish collaboration between companies and outside educational institutions specialized in CIPO education, and undertake the re-surveys for a certain period of time, to improve the programs in effective means.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by KAKENHI 20607006 (Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (c)).

BIOGRAPHY

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HOUSING FINANCE BY THE COMMERCIAL BANKS IN INDIA : GROWTH, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

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ABSTRACT

According to the Ministry of Urban Development and Poverty Alleviation, the shortage in housing in the country's urban areas numbered 24.71 million in 2007. India will face shortage of over 26 million houses by 2012. Demand for residential houses is rising sharply because of growing young working population, increasing urbanization, declining household size resulting in more nuclear families with growing household income and improved availability of loans. The allocation of funds for housing at all India level by the commercial banks was Rs. 723.78 crore in 1994-95 and it rose to 8389.10 crore into 2003-04. As against allocation, the achievement of housing finance by commercial in 1994-95 was Rs. 748.61 crore and it rose to 45378.20 crore in 2003-04. The recent growth of Indian Private Banks proves that these banks have the role to play in this field in the coming years. There are some challenges for the housing finance sector in the form of some problems. The major portion of the houseless population is in low and lower middle income segments. The poor repayment capacity of the borrowers is a major problem for this sector.

INTRODUCTION

Housing Finance is one of the constituent of the services sector in India. Now, the services sector accounts for more than half of India's Gross Domestic Production (GDP). Its contribution in India's GDP is 56.4 per cent in 2008-09. At present, India emerged as one of the fastest growing economies of the world and the services sector played a significant role in this remarkable performance of the Indian Economy. Housing Finance is an important constituent of the services sector. Against this background the present paper throw some light on the Housing Finance in India.

As far as the shortage of houses are concerned, it is a global problem. Although the problem is very chronic in the developing countries, most of the advanced countries also face this problem though in varying degrees. The problem of housing has not been solved in India since its independence. In spite of a continuous effort in the country, the problem has become more serious especially in the urban sector of the economy. The problem of housing shortage is likely to grow at a very fast rate in the years to come. So, it is very clear that the housing finance needs to be stimulated so that the supply of housing could be increased at a faster rate so as to fill the gap between demand and supply of housing. Against this background the present paper has the following objectives :

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The specific objectives of the study are as follows :

- (i) To review the magnitude of the problem of housing shortage in India;
- (ii) To evaluate the growth of housing finance by the commercial banks in India;
- (iii) To find out the various challenges ahead in this sector ;

- (iv) To find out the various prospects for the growth in this sector ;

METHODOLOGY

To examine the objectives, the study is based on the secondary data, collected from the various Financial Institutions like Annual Reports of National Housing Bank (NHB), Census of India, Various Five Year Plans of India and reports of various commercial banks etc. For the purpose of the analysis of the data, various statistical tools like averages, percentages and growth rate have been used. The rest of the paper is structured as follows : Section II reviews the Magnitude of the problem of housing in India. Section III evaluates the growth of housing finance by the Commercial Banks in India for the period of 1993-94 to 2003-04. Section IV discusses the various challenges ahead in this sector. Section V explains the various prospects for the growth of this sector. Finally, section VI concludes the major findings and suggestions.

Magnitude Of The Problem Of Housing In India

The First Five Year Plan estimated the shortage as 18.4 lakhs houses in urban areas in addition to 10 lakh houses for displaced persons from Pakistan. The Second Five Year Plan estimated that the shortage of houses in urban areas might increase by 1961 to about 5 millions as compared to 2.5 million houses in 1951. Based upon the census, the National Building Organisation has assessed the housing inadequacy in the country during 1985 of the order of 247 lakh dwelling units (188 lakhs in rural areas and 59 lakhs in urban areas). The Working Group on Housing has estimated the urban housing shortage at the beginning of Tenth Plan at 8.89 million units and the total number of houses required cumulatively during the Tenth Plan period is assessed at 22.44 million. According to the report of the Technical Group on estimation of Housing shortage constituted in the context of preparing Eleventh Five Year Plan document, housing shortage during the plan period (2007-12) including the backlog was estimated as 26.53 million. Most of the housing shortage is for the Lower Income Group sections which does not seem to be getting translated into economic demand due to lower affordability by the poor.

A survey by the National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) in 2007 also showed that one out of every seven urban households in the country lived in slums. That would mean that about 8 million people live in slums and it is 2 million more than a decade ago.

Growth Of Housing Finance By Commercial Banks In India

Indian Housing Finance market is mainly dominated by multiple sources of finance. Most of the households resort to more than one source of housing finance because of their inability to secure sufficient housing finance from a single source. The housing finance market can be conveniently divided into Formal Housing Finance Market and Informal Housing Finance Market. The housing credit from institutional sources is termed as formal housing finance. Formal Housing Finance market constitutes- Commercial Banks, Employers supplying housing loan facilities against employee's provident fund contribution, specialize housing finance institutions such as HUDCO, HDFC and LIC etc. and private housing finance institutes. Among the formal institutions, the commercial banks are playing a dominant role in the housing finance market of India.

Till late seventies, the commercial banks were not exposed to any type of housing finance. Although the commercial banks are the late entrants in the field of housing finance yet they have surpassed the total lendings done by the Housing Finance Companies over the past few years. The information relating to housing finance as provided by various scheduled commercial banks in India during 1994-95 to 2003-04 has been given in Table 1. This information pertains to the allocation and achievement of housing finance

by commercial banks. The percentage increase in allocation and percentage increase in achievement for each year has also been computed.

Table 1 : Housing Finance by Commercial Banks in India (Rs. Crore)

Year	Allocation	%age Increase in Allocation	Achievement	%age Increase in Achievement	Per cent of Achieved Loan to Allocated Loan
1994-95	723.78	30.99	748.61	76.03	100.27
1995-96	927.03	28.08	842.03	12.48	90.83
1996-97	1071.45	15.58	1805.62	114.44	168.52
1997-98	1295.19	20.88	1284.00	-28.87	99.14
1998-99	1480.831	14.33	3951.992	207.78	158.49
1999-2000	3051.52	106.06	9911.35	150.79	324.80
2000-2001	3405.95	11.61	9787.24	-1.25	287.35
2001-2002	5159.22	51.48	14744.85	50.65	285.79
2002-2003	8574.10	66.19	33840.53	129.50	394.68
2003-2004	8389.10	-2.15	45378.20	34.09	540.91
Compound Growth Rate	27.7	—	50.8	—	—

Source : Report on Trend and Progress of Housing in India, 1999, 2003 and 2004.

The allocation of funds for housing at all India level was ₹ 723.78 crore in 1994-95. This amount rose to ₹ 8389.10 crore in 2003-04, showing that in money terms the amount for housing during 1994-95 to 2003-04 increased by 914.298 per cent per annum. As against allocation, the achievement of housing finance by commercial banks in 1994-95 was ₹ 748.61 crore. It rose to ₹ 45378.20 crore in 2003-04. The amount of achievement in housing finance during the same period increased by 2189.44 per cent per annum. The growth rate of achievement is much higher than the growth rate of allocation from 1994-95 to 2003-04. Achievement as percentage of the amount of allocation is more than 100 per cent in most of the years except 1995-96 and 1997-98. The compound growth rate for achievement (50.8) is more than the compound growth rate for allocation (27.7). The information relating to Bank group wise direct disbursement of housing finance during 1999-2000 to 2003-04 has been shown in Table 2.

Table 2 : Bank Group wise Direct Housing Finance Disbursal (Rs. Crore)

Banks	1999-2000	2000-2001	2001-2002	2002-2003	2003-2004	Compound Growth Rate
SBI & Associates	1205.06 (33.5)	1950.09 (35.1)	2636.34 (30.8)	4782.88 (20.3)	6478.80 (19.7)	40
Nationalised Banks	1710.10 (47.5)	2800.90 (50.4)	4963.62 (57.9)	9129.47 (38.8)	13722.91 (41.8)	51.6
Indian Private Banks	522.30 (14.5)	645.06 (11.6)	696.79 (8.1)	8864.03 (37.6)	11102.52 (33.8)	84.3
Foreign Banks	159.94 (4.4)	157.06 (2.8)	269.66 (3.1)	776.99 (3.3)	1512.16 (4.6)	56.9
Total	3597.40 (100.0)	5553.11 (100.0)	8566.41 (100.0)	23553.41 (100.0)	32816.39 (100.0)	55.7

Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage to total. Source : Report on Trend and Progress of Housing in India-June 2003 and 2004.

It is clear from the data that the share of SBI & Associates in total direct housing finance disbursement has declined from 33.5 per cent in 1999-2000 to 19.7 per cent in 2003-04. The share of Nationalised Banks has also decreased from 47.5 per cent in 1999-2000 to 41.8 per cent in 2003-04. Although the share of Nationalised Banks in total direct housing finance has declined yet it has the dominant role in providing the direct housing finance among the Commercial Banks. Nationalised Banks has the highest

share in total direct housing finance for each year from 1999-2000 to 2003-04. In 2003-04 it had provided 41.8 per cent of direct housing finance. The role of Indian Private Banks has been increasing since 1999-2000 in the field of direct housing finance in India. Indian Private Banks has only 14.5 per cent share in the disbursement of total direct housing finance in India while it rose to 33.8 per cent in 2003-04, thereby, surpassing the SBI and Associates. Indian Private Banks have the second highest share only after Nationalised Banks in 2002-03 and 2003-04. The Foreign Banks have a meager share in providing direct housing finance in India. Foreign Banks have increased a little share from 4.4 per cent in 1999-2000 to 4.6 per cent in 2003-04. It seems that no doubt the Nationalised Banks are dominating the housing finance market in India yet the recent growth of Indian Private Banks particularly in 2002-03 and 2003-04 proves that these banks have the role to play in this field in the coming years.

Challenges Ahead in This Sector

The large population base, the massive housing backlog, the fast expanding urban population, mushrooming slums and squatter settlements are becoming a major socio-economic challenge for India. The working Group on Housing for the Tenth Plan has observed that 90 per cent of housing shortage pertains to the weaker sections. So, most of the housing shortage is for the Lower Income Group sections which does not seem to be getting translated into economic demand due to lower affordability by the poor. The liberalisation and the active entry of commercial banks into housing finance market, deregulation of interest rate increased the competition in the housing finance market and affected the volume of housing companies in the recent years.

Prospects for the Growth of this Sector

The Economic Times dated September 16, 2010 stated that India will face shortage of over 26 million houses by 2012, which would lead to spurt in housing prices as demand-supply gap widens and rising purchasing power of the middle class people. With India back on a high trajectory demand for commercial and residential space is likely to witness an upward trend. Demand for residential property is rising sharply because of growing young working population, increasing urbanization, declining household size resulting in more nuclear families with growing household income and improved availability of loans. Co-chairman of FICCI Real Estate Committee Pranay Vakil said over \$ 1.2 trillion investment was needed to meet the rising demand for urban development. Urban population in India would nearly double to 600 million in the next 15 years from nearly 350 million now and this would put massive pressure on urban infrastructure including housing. In the present paper, the analysis of growth rate of housing finance by the commercial banks from 1994-95 to 2003-04 also proves that there is a great opportunity for the financial institutions in the housing sector of India. Moreover, housing activity would be an engine for substantial generation of employment in the country.

Major Findings and Suggestions

- (i) The housing shortage is rising in India at a faster rate. It was 18.4 lakh houses in the First Five Year Plan and it rose to about 26.53 million in the Eleventh Five Year Plan.
- (ii) Around 90 per cent of housing shortage pertains to the weaker sections and most of them have no access to housing finance.
- (iii) The compound growth rate of achievement is much higher (50.8) than the growth rate of allocation of funds for housing of the commercial banks from 1994-95 to 2003-04.
- (iv) The Nationalised Banks are dominating the housing finance market in India.

- (v) The growth of Indian Private Banks in housing finance after 2001-02 proves that these banks have the role to play in this field in the coming years.
- (vi) The Foreign Banks have a meager share in providing direct housing finance in India. These Banks have increased a little share from 4.4 per cent in 1999-2000 to 4.6 per cent in 2003-04.

SUGGESTIONS

Housing activity can make various contributions to the financial sector, insurance business, capital market, construction material industry and employment etc., thus ensuring more Gross Domestic Production (GDP) growth. This potential needs to be channelised and realized by promoting housing supply and the mortgage industry. The facilitating role of the Government and financial institutions along with private intervention to address the housing needs of the society should be recognized. Efforts should be made to identify the legal and administrative constraints in the housing finance market and these should be addressed suitably. There should be a strong public-private partnership for tackling the housing and habitat issues in India. There is a strong need for more reforms in the banking sector in India.

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ASSESSING INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE ON INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ADOPTION: A NEW COMPETING MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to propose a new model in assessing individual performance on information technology adoption. The new model to assess individual performance was derived from two different theories: decomposed theory of planned behaviour and task-technology fit theory. Although many researchers have tried to expand these theories, some of their efforts might lack of theoretical assumptions. To overcome this problem and enhance the coherence of the integration, I used a theory from social science literature, particularly from Blumer's theory of symbolic interactionism. This theory indicates, as Blumer himself noted, that "the symbolic interactionist approach rests upon the premise that human action takes place always in a situation that confronts the actor and that the actor acts on the basis on defining this situation that confronts him." Symbolic interactionism may have theoretical strengths on the basis that reality is understood as a social production; interaction is symbolic; humans have the capacity to engage in self-reflexive behaviour; interactionism regards society as ongoing process; and social and physical environments set limits on behaviour, but do not determine behaviour. In this essence, normally, humans use technologies not for the sake of technologies but for supporting their primary tasks, being job related or entertainment oriented. Thus, there is an interaction between human and his/her technology. In this paper, I suggest some propositions that can be tested later using experimental research design or longitudinal survey research.

JEL: M15

KEYWORDS: individual performance, human-technology interaction, decomposed theory of planned behaviour, task-technology fit theory

INTRODUCTION

The interaction between information technology and individual performance has been an ongoing concern in Information System (IS) research. Since information technology adoption is related with human, researchers use psychology theory to predict human behaviour on that regard: Theory of Reasoned Action/TRA (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), Theory of Planned Behaviour/TPB (Ajzen 1985, 1991), Technology Acceptance Model/TAM (Davis, 1989), and recently, Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour/DTPB (Taylor and Todd 1995, Hsu and Chiu 2004, Koeder et al. 2011). As to predict individual performance, IS researcher uses the concept of "fit" to investigate the interaction of task and system characteristics and their effects on information system usage and task performance: Task-Technology-Fit/TTF theory (Goodhue and Thompson 1995, Dishaw et al. 2002, Klopping and McKinney 2004, McGill and Hobbs 2006, Usoro et al. 2010).

This paper proposes a new model of the relationship between the adoption of information technology and individual performance by taking on insight from these two research streams (user behaviour as predictors of system usage and task-technology-fit as predictors of performance). The core content of this new model, called Human-Task-Technology Interaction and Performance Model (HTTIP), is the contention

that in order for information technology has a positive impact on individual performance, then the technology was not only be accepted and used, but also the technology must be a good fit or match with the task it supports.

To develop a new model, I focus on the DTBP (Taylor and Todd 1995) and TTF (Goodhue and Thompson 1995). The DTBP has advantages over other acceptance models in that it identifies specific prominent beliefs that may influence information technology usage. The model was found to have better predictive power compared to the initial TPB and TAM. Likewise, the TTF theory defines a model that has been used to explain information system utilization. Goodhue and Thompson's (1995) research describes the relationship between the task requirements of the user and the functionality of the system and their impact on utilization. Performance impacts will occur when the technology meets the users' needs and provides features that support the fit of the requirements of the task. In their research, Goodhue and Thompson suggest that utilization ideally be measured as the proportion of times users choose to utilize or use system. Hence, to enhance the coherence of integration of these two models (DTPB and TTF), I employ a theory from social science literature, particularly Blummer's theory of symbolic interactionism.

UNDERPINNING THEORY OF ACCEPTANCE

Researchers and practitioners have a strong interest in understanding why human accept information technology so that better methods for designing, evaluating, and predicting how users will respond to new technology can be constructed. Lack of user acceptance is a significant obstacle to the success of new IS. Some facts indicate that users are often unwilling to use information system when if it used, it will troublesome or the outcome will not reached his/her expectation. Therefore, user acceptance has viewed as the important factor in determining the success or failure of any information system project (Davis 1993).

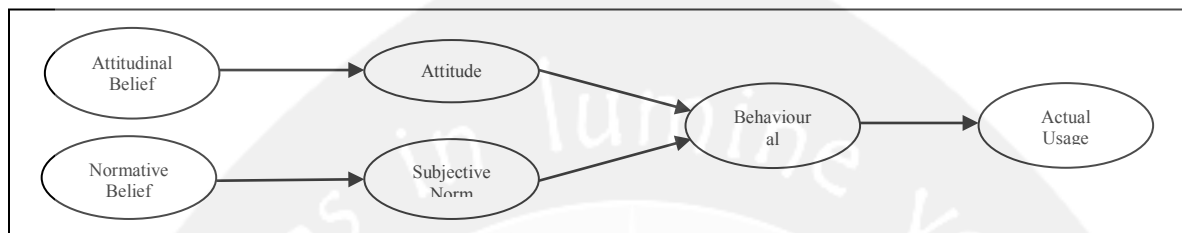
Several underpinning theories have been developed to examine and understand the factors effecting acceptance of information technology application in organisation. Although each model has a different insight towards the acceptance process and each theory has different construct, there are some similarities in them. For example, while TRA includes usage behaviour, behaviour intention, attitude, and subjective norms; TPB uses the same construct as TRA with additional construct of perceived behaviour control. Meanwhile, TAM includes different antecedent of behaviour intention, such as external variables, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and attitude. DTPB as an extension of TPB, includes some construct from Diffusion of Innovative theory (DOI): usage behaviour, behaviour intention, attitude, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, attitude, compatibility, peers influence, superior influence, self-efficacy, resource facilitating conditions, and technology facilitating conditions.

Theory of Reasoned Action

TRA was proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and is a well established model in social psychology research that can explain nearly any human behaviour. This theory suggests that person's performance of specific behaviour (eg. Use of technology) is determined by his/her intention to perform the behaviour and behavioural intention is jointly influenced by his/her attitude and subjective norm with relative weights that estimated by regression (Figure 1). Attitude is equated by the salient belief about the consequences of performing the behaviour and the affective evaluation of those consequences. Beliefs are

defined by the person's subjective view that performing a given behaviour will result to a given consequences. Subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs and motivation to comply with perceived norms.

Figure 1: Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975)



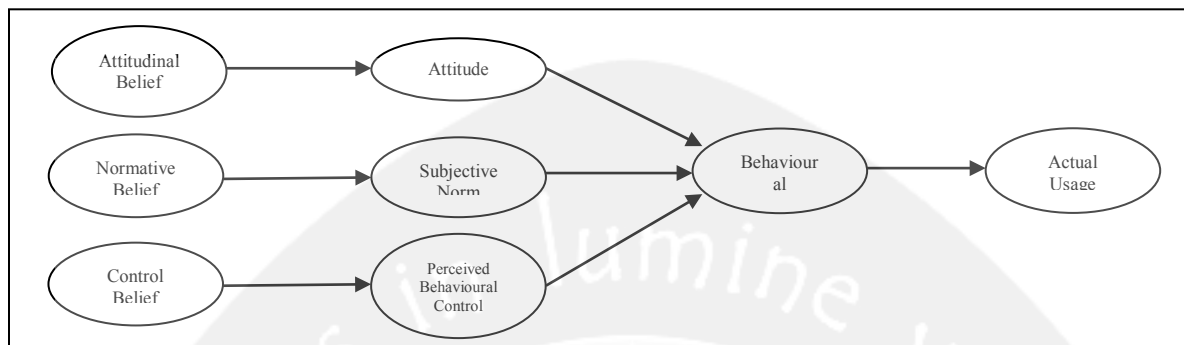
This figure shows the construct of TRA and explains that actual usage influenced by behavioural intention and behavioural intention both influenced by attitude and subjective norm, the antecedent of attitude is attitudinal belief, while subjective norm is normative belief.

A meta-analysis of TRA, performed by Sheppard et al. (1988), showed that TRA carried out well in the predictions of human behaviour and intention towards information technology. TRA also offered strong predictive utility in a situations such as non-voluntary behaviour and even when used to investigate intentions even before the individual had all the information necessary to form a completely confident intention (Dillon and Morris 1996). Besides that, Sheppard et al. (1988) pointed out three problems of TRA. First, one must differentiate between behaviour and intention. This could be a problem because avidity factors in addition to one, that is intention, determined how the behaviour is performed. Second, there is no provision in the model for considering whether the probability of failing to perform is due to ones behaviour or due to ones intention. Third, irrational decision, habitual actions or any behaviour that is not consciously considered cannot be explained.

Theory of Planned Behaviour

TPB was developed from the TRA by adding an additional construct, namely perceived behavioural control (PBC) to consider situations where an individual control or lack of the necessary resources to perform the target behaviour (Ajzen 1991) as seen in figure 2. PBC is determined by the availability of skills, resources, and opportunities. Since TPB consider the behavioural control, TPB assumed to be more general than the TRA.

Figure 2: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)



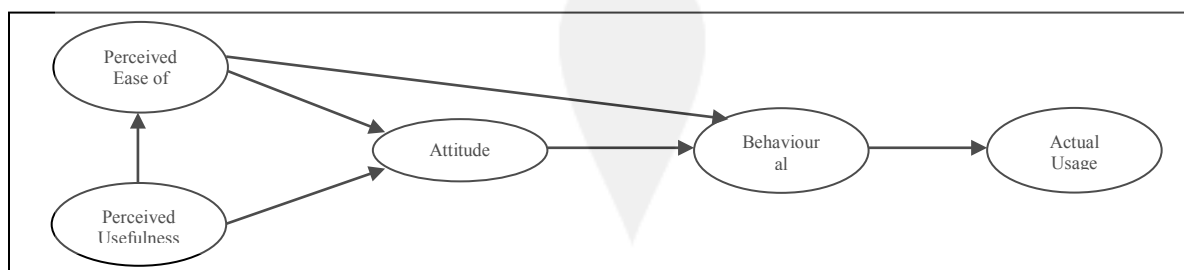
This figure shows the construct of TPB and explains that actual usage influenced by behavioural intention and behavioural intention not only influenced by both attitude and subjective norm, but also influenced by perceived behavioural control, and the antecedent each constructs are attitudinal belief, normative belief, and control belief, respectively.

Taylor and Todd (1995) pointed out that TPB is not without criticism. The relationship between the belief structure and the determinant of intention: attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behaviour control are not essentially well understood. Although TPB introduced one variable, perceived behaviour control, as an answer to all uncontrollable elements of behaviour, the beliefs set and construct may be difficult to operationalise the TPB and may not be consistently related to attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Furthermore, Taylor and Todd (1995) suggest that TPB model still requires individuals to be motivated to perform certain behaviour.

Technology Acceptance Model

TAM (Davis 1989) shared with the TRA on the general explanation that links attitude to behavioural intention but differ in drafting TAM attitude and behavioural intention. According to TAM, behavioural intention is jointly determined by attitude and perceived usefulness and together with the perceived ease of use explains the attitude. Broadly, the TAM indicates the general determinants of individual acceptance of technology and can therefore be used and has been applied to explain and predict individual behaviour across a broad range of technologies, end user computing and user groups (Davis et al. 1989). Because of its focus on technology, TAM appropriately used to observe the technology acceptance by individual professionals, but may still require theories or other models, because of its general and simple model.

Figure 3: Theory of Acceptance Model (TAM)



This figure shows the construct of TAM and explains that actual usage influenced by behavioural intention and behavioural intention is jointly influenced by attitude and perceived ease of use, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness reflect the beliefs about the value and user's friendliness of information system, respectively.

Some studies indicate that TAM represents a parsimonious model because it has been proven by many researchers in a different context and diverse technologies, such as in education (Teo et al. 2011, Sheikhshoei and Oloumi 2011), public service organization (Bouwman and Winjaert 2009), internet banking (Suh and Han 2002). Some researchers have also integrates TAM with TTF to obtain a more comprehensive explanation of human behaviour associated with the use of information systems (Dishaw et al. 2002, Klopping and McKinney 2004, Usoro et al. 2010, Schrier et al. 2010). Although there have been considerable amount of studies to support TAM model, TAM still need to be investigated for its inconsistent pattern; in some studies the relations were statistically significant, while other studies showed the opposite. Legris et al. (2003) found that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use are not the only predictors of technology acceptance and lack of many significant factors that influence adoption. TAM provides only limited guidance on technology usage (Lin 2007) and substantially ignores external and situational influences particular to a given circumstance, such as mandatory or non-mandatory (voluntary) usage (Taylor and Todd 1995).

Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour

DTBP is an extension of TPB, was proposed by Taylor and Todd (1995) to overcome some of the limitation of TPB. Taylor and Todd (1995) extended TPB by decomposing the attitudinal belief, normative belief, and control belief into several dimensional constructs to provide higher descriptive power and a more accurate understanding of the antecedents of behaviour (Figure 4a). They claimed that DTBP provides some advantages: first, by decomposing belief, the relationship between belief and the antecedents of intention should become clearer and more readily understood. Second, decomposition can provide a stable set of beliefs which can be applied across a variety of settings, and third, by focusing on specific beliefs, DTPB more managerially relevant. Because of the larger number of factors that may influence adoption and usage, DTPB should provide a more complete understanding of IT usage.

Several researchers have examined the validity of DTPB in understanding behavioural intentions (Taylor and Todd 1995, Hsu and Chiu 2004, Koeder et al. 2011). Hsu and Chiu (2004) studied electronic service continuance using DTPB. They indicated that even though DTPB provides better diagnostic value than original TPB model, it is still more complex because it introduced numbers of factors that may influence usage. Koeder et al. (2011) developed their model to identify the factors that encourage consumer to purchase e-book reader in Japan, with the focus on normative factors. They found that attitude towards connected e-book readers were the most important factor contributing to purchase behaviour. Koeder et al. (2011) study was differ from Taylor and Todd (1995) and Hsu and Chiu (2004) because they developed new constructs in decomposing attitude with relevance advantage and decomposing subjective norm with normative influences.

TASK-TECHNOLOGY FIT THEORY

TTF theory is seen as an important development in information system theory. TTF theory assumed that information technology is more likely to have a positive effect on individual performance and be used if the capabilities of information technology match the task that the user must perform (Goodhue and Thompson 1995) as seen in Figure 4b. To explain the linkage between information technology utilisation and individual performance, they developed a conceptual model of technology-to-performance chain. This conceptual framework was based on two separate research streams: first, the utilisation of information technology with its antecedent of attitude and behaviour, and second, the “fit focus” evident in research investigating the performance of individual information technology user.

The concept of “fit” assessment in strategy research has been discussed comprehensively by Venkatraman (1989) with six alternative perspective and approach of fit. 1) Fit as moderation perspective; effect of fit as a moderating variable of an independent variable (predictor variable) on dependent variable (criterion variable). 2) Fit as mediation perspective; an existence of intervening (indirect) effects between an antecedent variable and its consequent (criterion) variable. 3) Fit as matching perspective; fit is a theoretically defined match between two related variable. 4) Fit as gestalts; gestalts could be defined as the degree of internal coherence among a set of theoretical attributes (fit as on the identification of different group). 5) Fit as profile deviation; the degree of adherence to a specified profile. 6) Fit as covariation; a pattern of covariation or internal consistency among a set of theoretically related variables.

The first two perspectives are more commonly used than the remaining four perspectives (McGill and Hobbs 2006, Teo and Men 2008). Goodhue and Thompson (1995) use the concept of fit as moderating variable, as they proposed: “information system (systems, policies, staff of IS, etc) have a positive impact on performance only when there is a correspondence between their functionality and the task requirements of users.” Their study found moderately supportive evidence of TTF as a function of system characteristics and task characteristic, and strong evidence of performance in which TTF and utilisation must be included.

Even if TTF has some supporting evidences, some researchers have extended TTF with TAM in varying areas; conceptualization perspective (Dishaw et al. 2002), consumer of e-commerce (Klopping and McKinney 2004), education (Strong et al. 2006), e-Tourism (Usoro et al. 2010), hotel industry (Schrier et al. 2010) to obtain a more comprehensive explanation of human behaviour associated with the use of information systems. This new model of individual performance is trying to integrate TTF with DTPB, because even though TAM has a robust model, but TAM is a simple model, while DTPB assumed to provide more complete understanding of IT usage. To enhance the coherence of the two models, I use the sociology theory of symbolic interactionism.

SOCIOLOGY THEORY OF SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM

Social theory has a substantial part to play in the development of the discipline of IS, particularly in helping to understand and interact with the societal, organizational and personal contexts without which the technology is meaningless. Blumer has made a substantial contribution to that theory, and his theory of symbolic interactionism has been taken up by a number of IS researchers (Tan et al., 2003).

Blumer (1969) invented the term symbolic interactionism. He sees human action toward social objects as individual terms in describing the object, rather than the characteristics of the object. Blumer divided symbolic interaction into three premises of: a) People behave according to their understanding of objects and events that happen to them; b) An understanding of the individual objects and events rooted in the individual's interactions with others; and c) Understanding more about interpretation than just a mere literal sense that has been standardized.

He defined interpretation in two ways, first is the identification of the actor on an object in a situation that has meaning. The second is the internal communication within the actor's self and decide which objects that have meaning to the situation. Blumer (1969) identified interactions as an interpretation of language and symbolic gestures, and the determination of the understanding or the meaning of the actions performed by others. Humans should be able to understand one another, because social life is a "flow and

process” of negotiation. Reasonable for individuals to try to adjust their actions and behaviours with those in which the individual interacts.

Symbolic interactionism theory refers to the character that goes between people. Actor does not merely react to other actions, but he interprets and defines those actions. Human interaction is bridged by the use of symbols to find a meaning. Actor will select, examine, think, organize and transform meaning in relation to the circumstances in which and toward which his actions. Blumer (1969) says that the individual is not surrounded by an environment of potential objects, but it was he who formed objects. Individuals designing different objects, giving meaning, assessing compliance with the act, and making decisions based on those assessments. Thus, humans are actors who are aware and reflective, which unites the objects known through what is Blumer referred to as self-indication. Self-indication is the ongoing process of communication where individual know something, evaluate it, give it a meaning, and decided to act on that meaning. Human excellence is if he understood where he was going, what is his obstacles, and what he would earn.

Thus, this theory indicates that “the symbolic interactionist approach rests upon the premise that human action takes place always in a situation that confronts the actor and that the actor acts on the basis on defining this situation that confronts him.” Symbolic interactionism may have theoretical strengths on the basis that reality is understood as a social production; interaction is symbolic; humans have the capacity to engage in self-reflexive behaviour; interactionism regards society as ongoing process; and social and physical environments set limits on behaviour, but do not determine behaviour (Tan et al. 2003). In this essence, normally, humans use technologies not for the sake of technologies but for supporting their primary tasks, being job related or entertainment oriented. Thus, there is an interaction between human and his/her task-technology.

Dillon and Morris (1996) pointed out that interaction between human-technology has been addressed by human-computer interaction (HCI) researches. They explained that HCI research has moved from its original concern with hardware ergonomics and screen design to user issues of interest. They also indicated that even if HCI is not equivalent with the concept of acceptance, most HCI researchers assume that the more usable a technology is made, the greater it chances in proving the acceptable to users. Zang and Li (2004), in their assessment of HCI research in management information system (MIS), casted light upon the research studies that HCI concerned with the ways human interact with information, technologies, and task, especially in business, managerial, organisational, and cultural contexts. They synthesized a frame work indicating a board HCI issues and concerns. They concluded that the interaction of human and technology alone is still incomplete, since nothing happens in a vacuum. The interaction experience is relevant and important only when humans use technologies to support their primary tasks within certain contexts, being organizational, social or societal.

A NEW MODEL: HUMAN-TASK-TECHNOLOGY INTERACTION AND PERFORMANCE

The new model is an integration of DTPB and TTF. DTPB is selected in this new model because it provides fuller understanding of the determinant of behavioural intentions (Taylor and Todd 1995, Lin 2007). Both researchers compared three theories and model of usage behaviour: TAM, TPB, and DTPB. They examined the trade-off between parsimony and understanding associated with decomposition and showed that even if DTPB is more complex than the pure TPB because of its additional construct, by decomposing the belief structure of TPB increases the explanatory power and a better, more precise understanding of the model for behavioural intentions. Particularly they emphasized that the

unidimensional belief constructs of DTPB provides better understanding of behavioural antecedents (figure 4a). Thus DTPB is selected for its capability to understand human behaviour and a good predictor for system usage.

Likewise, TTF is chosen because of its theoretical assumption that information technology is more likely to have a positive effect on individual performance and be used if the capabilities of information technology match the task that the user must perform (Goodhue and Thompson 1995) as seen in Figure 4b.

Symbolic interaction occurs not only among subjects, but could also occur between subject and object. An example is the interaction between people and objects in the form of information and technology. The rapid developments in information and communication technology have driven the development study of the interaction between people and technology. Eason (1991) model divides human interaction with computers (technology) at three levels: level one related to human-computer interaction; expanded by a factor of two levels of users, tasks, and environments that may affect job performance, and level three, IT and between human-computer interaction impact on social life in the changed of nature of work, the way how the organization operates, and how humans interact with one another.

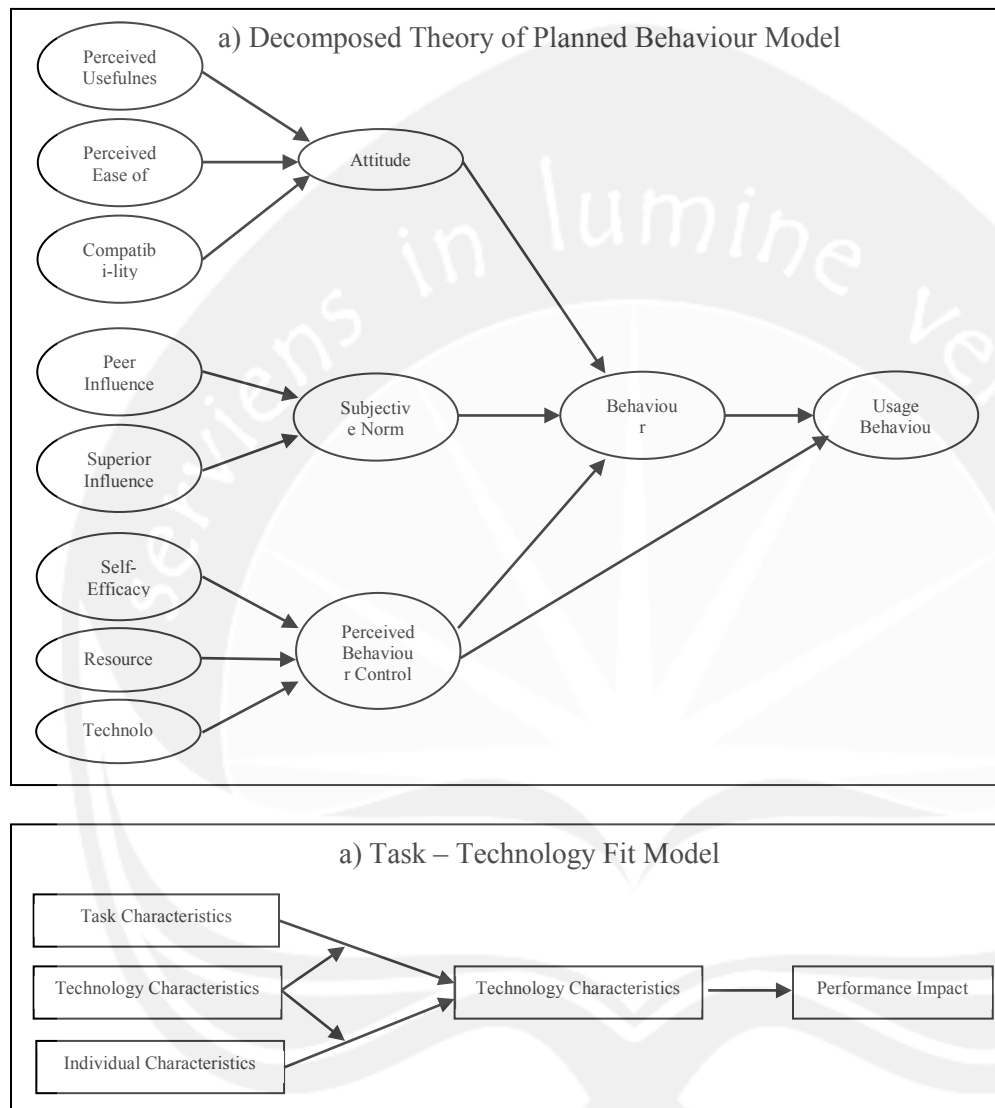
In HTTP model, the main components are human. Although there are many ways to understand human beings and their interactions with technology, eg in terms of demographics, physical skills and ergonomics, cognitive and effective, but in this model is focused on human behaviour intentions (cognitive aspects). For that I use DTPB model because of its comprehensiveness in predicting human behaviour.

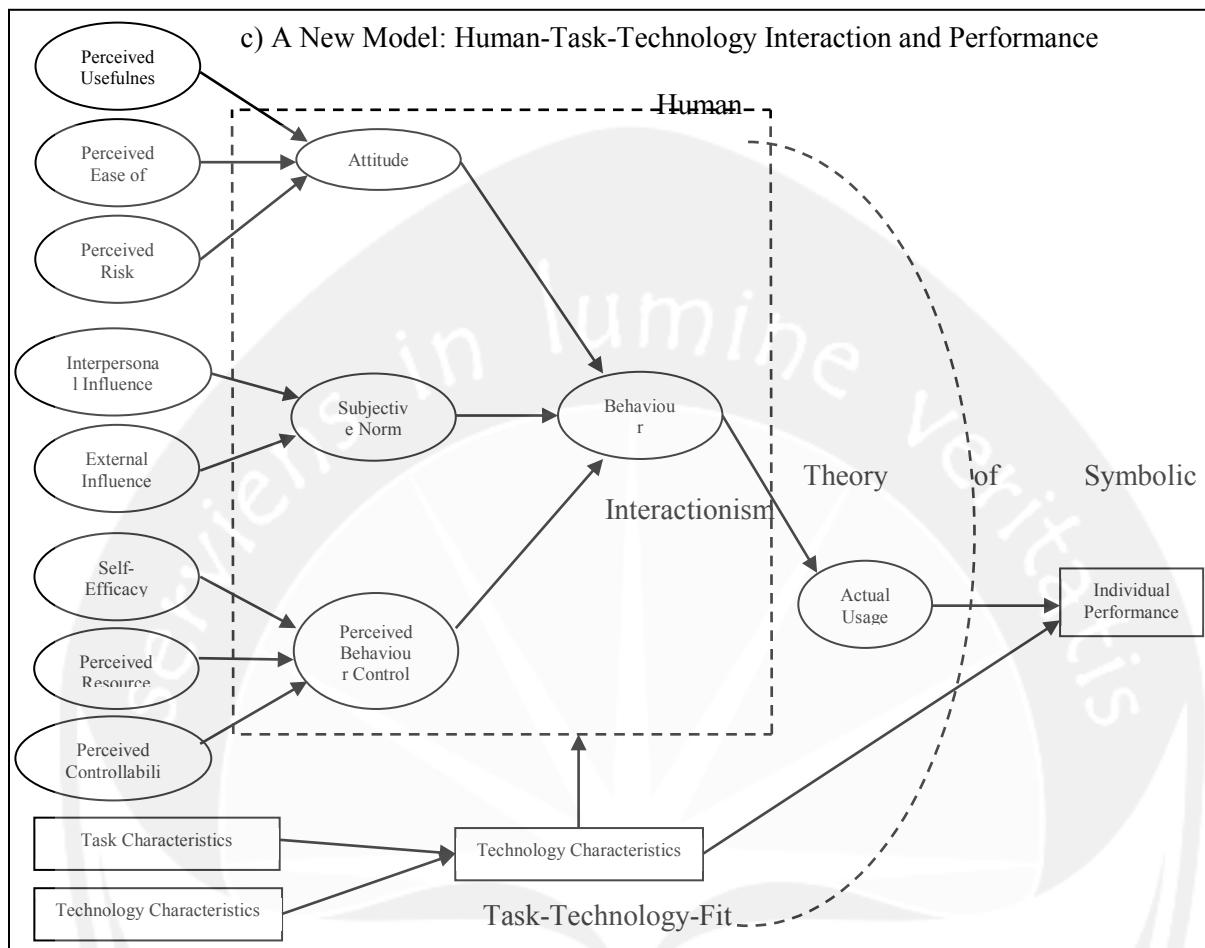
Decomposing Attitudinal Belief

Ajzen (1985) revealed two kinds of differences in attitudes which are attitude toward object and attitude toward behaviour. Attitude toward the behaviour is degree in which a person has pleasant or unpleasant evaluation. Ajzen further stated that attitudes are related to the behaviour intention has a direct effect on behaviour, while attitudes toward object has an indirect relationship. Thus, there are many factors that affect the consumer interest to use and adopt information technology. In HTTP model, attitude is decomposed to three constructs: perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and perceived risk. Perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness was originated from TAM model (Davis 1989). Teo, et al. (2011) provided evidence to support TAM as a viable and efficient model to explain the intention to use technology. Fisbein and Ajzen (1975) extended TAM model and proved that the differences in attitudes, perceived usability, perceived risk, and perceived playfulness is an attitude associated with the usage that are categorized as attitudes on behaviour.

Proposition #1 : Perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and perceived risk will have a significant influence on attitude towards technology use.

Figure 4: The Decomposed Theory of Planned Behaviour, Task-Technology Fit Theory, and Human-Task-Technology Interaction and Performance.





This figure shows the construct of DTPB, TTF, and HTIP. Figure 4a explains that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control will influence the behavioural intention towards usage behaviour. Attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control are decomposed into multi-dimensional belief constructs. Figure 4b indicates task, technology, and individual characteristic that effects task-technology fit towards individual performance. Figure 4c, as a new model, integrated DTPB and TTF as a more comprehensive model to explain the relation between human-technology and performance.

Decomposing Subjective Norm

In the TPB, subjective norm is the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behaviour or belief a person that someone or something important will be approved or not approved if it performs the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Relative interests of subjective norm in predicting the expected interest varies according to the behaviour and situation. Hsu and Chiu (2004) found the influence of subjective norm on behavioural intentions, contrary Tan and Theo (2000) found no significant effect of subjective norms on individual intention to adopt internet banking. Bhattacharjee (2000) stated that subjective norm is an important predictor of interest to use an electronic brokerage service. In his research, Bhattacharjee (2000) showed that subjective norm include two forms of interpersonal influence and external influences. Therefore, in this study, subjective norm decomposed into two components, namely interpersonal influences and external influences.

Proposition #2 : Interpersonal and external influence will have a significant influence on subjective norm towards technology use.

Decomposing Perceived Behaviour Control

Perceived Behaviour Control (PBC) tend to be a means as the individual's perception of ease or difficulty in performing the behaviour and it is assumed to be a reflection of past experience such as the availability of resources and opportunities (Ajzen, 1991). In his subsequent study in 2002, Ajzen suggested two-level hierarchical model in which the PBC is the holding of the construct of self-confidence (self efficacy) and controllability. Several studies applying the TPB to predict the behaviour of interest and prove that the self-confidence (self efficacy) and controllability significantly associated with intentions.

Self-efficacy is the ease or difficulty to perform the behaviour, or beliefs of individuals to perform the behaviour, whereas controllability is control of the behaviour or beliefs about how far do the behaviour is a will of its own behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Associated with self efficacy, individuals will feel more satisfied with the behaviour that they feel able to do so, or vice versa (Bandura, 1998).

One component of PBC is a condition that facilitates (facilitating condition) which reflects the availability of the necessary resources to perform a behaviour, such as money, time and other resources. Zang and Guttierrez (2007) states that perception resources (perceived resources) have a significant influence on persepsian behavioural control (PBC). Thus, in this study Perceived Behaviour Control (PBC) decomposed into three components, namely the self-assurance (self-efficacy), perceived controllability and perceived resources

Proposition #3 : Self efficacy, perceived resources, and perceived controllability will have significant influence on perceived behaviour control toward technology use.

Proposition #4 : Attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behaviour control towards technology use will have significant influence on behaviour intention to use technology.

Proposition #5 : Behaviour intention to use technology will have a significant influence on actual use of technology.

The second component of the HTTP model is task-technology fit which include task, technology, and a fit between both. Goodhue and Thompson (1995) define tasks as “action carried out that turn inputs into outputs.” Gebauer and Shaw (2002) differentiate three different tasks within the organization, namely operational tasks, management tasks, and information tasks. Meanwhile, technology is the making, usage, knowledge of tools, machines, techniques, systems of method in order to solve a problem or perform a specific function. Includes in technology are hardware, software, applications, data, knowledge, and supporting procedures.

Goodhue and Thompson (1995) indicate that the fit between task characteristics and features of information systems provide a conceptual basis for testing the quality of individual decision-making. System information helps users by providing information that can be used individually to carry out their duties. Therefore, the strong relationship between information technology and individual performance (McGill and Hobbs 2006, Teo and Men 2008) or utilization (Strong et al. 2006) is the fit between information technology that provides information to users and information needed to the task that must be

done. This TTF theory proposes that a better fit between technology and task will lead to better performance.

Proposition #6 : Task characteristic and technology characteristic will have a significant influence on task-technology fit towards individual performance

The TTF model, as a fit between task and technology, has been used as moderating variable within TAM model. Usoro et al. (2010) argued that “TAM and TTF model are individually effective in their explanation of the different factors affecting user acceptance and utilization of IT systems and the impact of their adoption on individual performance from two different perspectives – TAM focuses on user attitude while TTF focuses on the correspondence between the user’s task and the functionalities of the system.” Thus, integration of both TAM and TTF will be more effective than the individual models in its explanation and prediction of the adoption and utilization process for an IT system by the user (Klopping and McKinney, 2004). In this new model, I integrated DTPB with TTF, since DTPB is more comprehensive than TAM in predicting human behaviour of information technology usage. Theory of symbolic interactionism indicates that reality is understood as a social production; interaction is symbolic; humans have the capacity to engage in self-reflexive behaviour; interactionism regards society as ongoing process; and social and physical environments set limits on behaviour, but do not determine behaviour. In this essence, normally, humans use technologies to support their primary tasks with purpose in enhancing his/her performance.

Proposition #7 : The integration of DTPB and TTF predicts the actual use of information technology and individual performance.

This paper is an early attempt to provide a comprehensive model in assessing individual performance within information technology adoption. Some subsequent studies, using experimental research design or longitudinal survey research, must be employed to test the validity of the model and propositions.

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BIOGRAPHY

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A CLOSER LOOK AT CURBING FRAUD AMONG TAX RETURN PREPARERS

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ABSTRACT

Unethical tax preparers have been caught and convicted of criminal acts that have cost the cash strapped Federal and state governments millions of lost tax revenue. In order to further regulate this troubling industry, the Internal Revenue Service and some states now require paid tax return preparers to formally register with them and many may be required to pass tests that would establish minimal competency. Since taxpayers are ultimately responsible for their tax returns that are signed and filed by them, caution is advised in carefully selecting their tax return preparer. When choosing a tax return preparer: be cautious of tax preparers who claim that they can obtain large or larger refunds; avoid preparers who base their fees on a percentage of the refund; consider whether an individual or firm will be available to answer questions after the current tax season and in subsequent years; check tax preparers' credentials; and never sign a blank return.

INTRODUCTION

A recent US Department of Justice release declares: "Former Dallas Tax Preparer Sentenced to 15 years in Federal Prison on Conspiracy and Obstruction of Justice Convictions", re: Herbert Jena, September 16, 2010. Unfortunately, this has been a recent and recurring scenario where unethical tax preparers have been caught and convicted of criminal acts that have cost the cash strapped Federal and state governments millions of lost tax revenue.

Other Current Cases

Other recent cases of criminal acts by tax return preparers throughout the country include: A state certified tax preparer of California was convicted of tax fraud, identity theft, and financial fraud, and ordered to pay close to \$363,000 in restitution. She was sentenced to 42 months in prison and 3 years of supervised release. Re: Willena Stargell – September 19, 2011. A Flint, Michigan woman, operator of a tax return preparation center, was found guilty of 37 counts of preparing and filing false tax returns. She was sentenced to 33 months in prison, 1 year of supervised release, and ordered to pay \$3,700 in fines. The estimated tax loss was over \$110,000. Re: Chandra Hicks – September 14, 2011. A Manhattan, New York tax return preparer was found guilty of 12 counts of aiding and assisting in the preparation of false and fraudulent individual tax returns. She was sentenced to 12 months and 1 day in prison. The estimated tax revenue loss was between \$80,000 and \$200,000. Re: Gloria Gaviria – September 14, 2011.

Abuses

Under Section 7701(a)(36), tax return preparers include one or more compensated persons who prepare and sign tax returns as well as those who may not actually sign as preparer but advise on an income tax position or entry. Among the many abuses that tax return preparers have been convicted include:

- Claiming false business, rental, and itemized deductions
- Claiming false exemptions
- Claiming false credits such as the earned income credit
- Failing to report all required income
- Failing to remit payroll tax deposits and withholdings
- Filing false returns and seeking illegal refunds
- Redirecting refunds to their own accounts
- Guaranteeing large refunds and/or basing their preparations fees on refunds claimed

CIVIL PENALTIES

In addition to facing criminal charges and possible injunctions from further practice as tax return preparers, there are numerous civil penalties that may be assessed against tax preparers in this relatively unregulated business. These include the following penalties:

1. Under Section 6695 of the Internal Revenue Code (Other Assessable Penalties with Respect to the Preparation of Tax Returns for Other Person), a \$50 penalty per failure may be imposed against preparers for:

- Failure to furnish taxpayers with a copy of their tax return
- Failure to sign a return
- Failure to furnish preparer's identification number
- Failure to retain a copy or list of returns
- Failure to file a current information return

However, the total penalty per failure may not exceed \$25,000 and will be imposed only if the failure is without reasonable cause and is due to willful neglect.

2. Under Section 6695(f), a \$500 penalty per check may be imposed against any preparer who endorses or negotiates an income tax refund check made payable to another.

3. Under Section 6695(g), a \$500 penalty may be assessed for failure by a preparer to comply with required due diligence requirements relating to the eligibility or correct amount on returns claiming the earned income credit.

4. Under Section 6694 (Understatement of Taxpayer's Liability by Tax Return Preparer), a penalty equal to the higher of \$1,000 or 50% of the fee derived from a filed return may be assessed where a non-disclosed, unreasonable (no substantial authority) position is taken on a filed return. (Section 6694(a))

5. Under Section 6694(b), a penalty equal to the higher of \$5,000 or 50% of the fee derived from a filed return may be assessed for any understatement of tax resulting from the preparer's willful or reckless conduct or from any reckless or intentional disregard of the tax rules or regulations.

6. Under Section 6701 (Penalties for Aiding and Abetting Understatement of Tax Liability), a penalty of \$1,000 per individual return (\$10,000 per corporate return) may be assessed against anyone who aids in a return that they know would result in an underpayment of a tax liability.

DEFENSIVE ACTIONS

The IRS encourages people who suspect fraud by abusive and unscrupulous return preparers to report them to their nearest IRS office by phone or by writing. Form 3949-A is available for this purpose and whistle blowers may be entitled to a reward. In order to further regulate this troubling industry, the Internal Revenue Service and some states such as New York and California now require paid tax return preparers to formally register with them and obtain a preparer tax identification number (PTIN). Additionally, under IRS guidelines, registered tax return preparers (RTRP) may be required to pass a 2.5 to 3 hour test that would establish minimal competency. However, more importantly, these regulated tax return preparers must adhere to ethical standards in their preparation of tax returns and may be required to complete 15 hours per year of continuing education which include tax ethics, recent tax law updates, and other relating topics. Finally, the Treasury Department plans to apply Circular 230, which regulates the practice of licensed attorneys, CPAs, and enrolled agents before the Internal Revenue Service, to registered tax return preparers.

CONCLUSION

What To Look For When Choosing A Tax Preparer

When choosing a tax return preparer, the following points should be noted:

- Be cautious of tax preparers who claim that they can obtain large or larger refunds
- Avoid preparers who base their fees on a percentage of the refund
- Consider whether an individual or firm will be available to answer questions after the current tax season and in subsequent years
- Check tax preparers' credentials
- Never sign a blank return

Remember – the Taxpayer is ultimately responsible for their tax return that is signed and filed by him or her. Caution is advised in carefully selecting your tax return preparer and a reputable preparer should always be used.

BIOGRAPHY

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BEAUTY IN THE AGE OF MARKETING

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Abstract

Research has repeatedly demonstrated that beauty is positively related to a number of important outcomes including social and personal power, self-esteem, and preferential treatment from others (Bloch and Richins, 1992; cf. Adams, 1977; Goldman and Lewis, 1977). Moreover, studies consistently suggest that the use of physically attractive models results in positive effects (Berscheid and Walster, 1974; Bower, 2011; Buunk and Dijkstra, 2011; Landy and Sigall, 1974). Accordingly, advertisers utilize attractive models to promote a wide array of products ranging from cosmetics to electronics. Despite the emergence of physical attractiveness as a major component of consumer marketing, there is little cohesive theoretical development in this area. This oversight ignores a marketplace dominated by global marketing initiatives which cross nation-state and cultural boundaries. We have no coherent language system for the study of beauty, nor has there been a systematic attempt to develop a theory of beauty that is robust enough to be useful to marketing and advertising practitioners. The purpose of this paper is to contribute to that theoretical development. First, we refine terminology. Second, we review the marketing literature related to the subject area. Finally, we tentatively suggest how socio-cultural factors may affect consumer perceptions of beauty.

JEL: M31

KEYWORDS: marketing, beauty, consumer behavior, cross-cultural research

INTRODUCTION

Beauty, it is said, is in the eye of the beholder. It is, accordingly, subjective and presumably both socially and culturally influenced. From a marketer's perspective, this is a less than useful perspective, for beauty *sells*. A body of research suggests, for example, that physically attractive models used in advertising produce consumer expectations of accountability, dynamism and trustworthiness; therefore, marketers tend to use these models to enhance and strengthen the appeal of their advertisements and products (Kamins and Gupta 1994). Physically attractive people are known to be perceived by consumers as friendly, warm, dominant, sociable, outgoing, responsive, and possessing both self-esteem and intelligence (Bloch and Richins, 1992). Individuals favor and are favorably disposed towards physically attractive people (Caballero, Lumpkin and Madden, 1989). More broadly, research in other fields finds physical attractiveness both a determinant and moderator of various processes including heterosexual liking (Berscheid, Dion, Walster, and Walster, 1971), individuals' perception and evaluation (Sigall and Landy, 1973;), persuasion effectiveness (Mills and Aronson, 1965) and attributions of personal characteristics and future success (Clifford and Walster, in press). It is therefore not surprising that physical attractiveness has become a major component of consumer marketing. Beauty is power.

What *is* surprising is the lack of theoretical development in the field, and that becomes apparent when beauty is conceptualized not as an independent variable but as a marketing construct. Understanding consumers' perceptions of beauty, particularly in a complex, global marketplace, has become increasingly strategically important.

The pursuit of beauty is apparent throughout centuries and across cultures. Consumers, especially female consumers, use cosmetics, adornments, clothes, and even plastic surgery to increase and enhance their physical attractiveness (Bloch and Richins, 1992). In daily life, consumers are confronted with advertisements in which products -- varying from cosmetics and clothes to cars and television sets -- are promoted by attractive models and studies provide empirical support for the validity of this marketing approach (Buunk and Dijkstra, 2011).

Taken as a whole, the literature offers substantial evidence that beauty is an important construct. The literature also suggests areas of general consensus. One, beauty is usefully employed in the promotion of products, both in mass advertising and at point of purchase. Two, consumer attributions related to beauty are multidimensional and favorable. Three, these two axioms hold true across the globe. From a theoretical viewpoint, the literature has made several key contributions. It has developed a set of outcome variables and has tested relationships in a variety of contexts and through a variety of methodological approaches and effectively established nomological validity that allows us to accept these results as robust. Some work has explored cultural differences in consumer perceptions of beauty, laying the foundations for research. Other work has established the features which contribute to human physical beauty.

However, there is a relative paucity of work which sets out to provide a coherent theory of beauty. We lack, for example, a common language with which to work. The proliferation of inexact and variable usage of terms such as beauty, physical attractiveness, aesthetics, and other similar words confounds our task. The purpose of this paper is to begin to examine beauty as a complex marketing construct in order to provide the basis for theoretical development in this area. The paper is organized as follows. We begin the process of defining terms, each of which may present its own avenue for future theoretical development. These include beauty, attractiveness, and aesthetics. We then focus more narrowly on physical attractive and review findings in the literature, in order to suggest how the extant research might be assimilated to begin the process of construct development. Finally, we suggest how research may wish to undertake the task of exploring beauty in the age of marketing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Beauty is commonly considered a characteristic of individuals, objects, and places that is perceived pleasurable. It is studied in diverse fields such as sociology and anthropology (people and animals), art and aesthetics (objects), and tourism studies (places). It is a term which is unique and independent from other related terms, such as attractiveness and aesthetic.

Beauty is colloquially defined as "attractiveness" in advertising and marketing research, and has been measured on a continuum from attractive to unattractive (Langmeyer and Shank, 1994). Arguably, beauty is, however, more than a simple judgment of attractiveness. Beauty is psychologically complex and reflects multiple dimensions which provide for the inclusion of facets of beauty that are described by consumers in varied terms, such as cute, elegant, sexy, etc. (Solomon, Ashmore and Longo, 1992). This multiplex conceptualization makes the continuum approach problematic. Physical attractiveness generally includes the individual's analysis of specific characteristics including facial image, body proportion and shape and skin tone (Langmeyer and Shank 1994). For practical purposes, a common categorization in the field of advertising assessing physical attractiveness across six interrelated psycho-logical distinctions or differentiations including (1) Classic Beauty/ Feminine, (2) Sensual/Exotic, (3) Sex-Kitten, (4) Trendy, (5) Cute, and (6) Girl-Next-Door" (Solomon, Ashmore and Longo 1992). Physical attractiveness, then, is a term related to, but unique from, beauty.

The term aesthetics concerns the nature of beauty, creation, and appreciation of beauty. Parsing the term aesthetics from that of beauty may be particularly theoretically important in marketing from a global perspective. It is common to allude to, for example, the Western aesthetic, the Islamic aesthetic, or the post-modern aesthetic.

Throughout centuries and across cultures, people have used adornments in their pursuit of beauty (Bloch and Richins, 1992) and people adorn their bodies in various ways by covering fashionable or desirable parts graciously to achieve beauty or for aesthetic effect (Scott, n.d.). Empirical studies have shown that adornment usage, which is positively related to physical beauty, enhances attractiveness and perceptions of femininity (Cash, 1988; Guthrie, Kim and Jung, 2006). Moreover, adornment usage affects self – esteem and social power (Adams and Read, 1983). Adornments such as nail items, tattoos, hair styles, jewels, shoes and other grooming and beauty enhancing products have flooded the beauty market. Hundreds of millions of dollars are spent every year by companies to persuade customers to remain fashionable in order to fulfill their desire of both of material level of self-satisfaction and physical level of attractiveness. In addition to financial expenditures, consumers – particularly women -- are willing to suffer physical pain to fit a certain type of social expectation of beauty (Bloch and Richins, 1992). For example, women wear uncomfortable high heels to fit the social standard of beauty and enhance feelings of confidence and attractiveness (Solmon and Schopler, 1982).

As one of the major components in the pursuit of beauty, clothing presents an individual's image. Fashion appeal is a non-verbal communication (Vanderholf 1988), through which the observer can assume the wearer's emotional, educational, moral, economic and social status (Faiola and Pullen, 1982).

Consumers use cosmetic products to enhance their appearance and create a “positive declaration of the self,” and “inscribe attributes to [one's] personality” (Craik, 1993) and promote self-esteem (Creekmore, 1974). The application of make-up allows consumers to quickly and temporarily change their appearance. Commonly used cosmetics serve as a quick, easy and means to improve facial attractiveness and hence strengthen self-confidence (Miller and Cox, 1982). Improving physical attractiveness is one of the main reasons women apply cosmetics (Guthrie, Kim and Jung, 2006). Women wearing make-up express a more positive body and self-image and show more confidence than women not wearing make-up (Cash and Cash, 1982). Certain cultural and social standards of beauty and the perceived rewards for being physical attractive have pressured more and more women to apply cosmetics to change their appearance in order to conform to idealized social and cultural beauty standards and expectations (Kelson, Kearney-Cooke, and Lansky, 1990). Researchers have found out that women who identify with more traditional roles are more likely to apply cosmetics to achieve beauty (Forbes, Jung and Haas, n.d.), cosmetic usage is positively correlated with facial satisfaction (Cash and Cash, 1982), and that females who wear make-up have more overall appearance satisfaction, believe that they receive more attention than they would otherwise receive, and are also more likely to overestimate their attractiveness when wearing make-up and underestimate their attractiveness when they do not apply make-up (Cash, Dawson, Davis and Bowen, 1989).

Cosmetic brands adopt commonly understood and culturally embedded beauty standard to express to targeted groups' desirable images of beauty (Guthrie, Kim and Jung, 2006.). The influence of these brands and their advertising has been felt globally. For example, before 1910, women in Japan presented a traditional image of covering their face with lead-based white powder, but after 1910, western style transparent white and skin-toned powder become more commonly used (Peiss, 2002). . Increasingly,

consumers choose brands in order to reflect social status as well as desired facial image (Wood, 2004). Accordingly, brand managers are advised to relate brand personality to women's' cosmetic purchase behaviors and perceptions of facial image to identify different marketing strategies (Jamal and Goode, 2001).

Perception of facial beauty are affected by generic, social, cultural and environments factors (Naini, Moss and Gill, 2005). Culturally, socially, and historically subjective, issues related to facial beauty have fascinated scholars for centuries (Gunes and Piccardi, 2006). Facial beauty may be viewed as a combination of certain qualities which generate a sense of pleasure (Naini, Moss and Gill, 2005). Overall, facial symmetry, facial proportion and facial expression are the significant characteristics in the determination of facial beauty.

Regardless of variables such as race, age and sex, a universal standard of human physical beauty is thought exist, which can be simply expressed as ideal facial proportion (Gunes and Piccardi, 2006; Larrabee, 1997). The Divine Proportion (Jefferson, 2004), Golden Proportions (Borissavlievitch, 1985; Huntley, 1970) or the Facial Thirds (Farkas, 1994) have been widely accepted as ideal facial proportion measurements. Faces with the ideal facial proportions are not just physically attractive but also biologically healthy (; Rhodes etc. 2001; Simposon, 1999).

Researchers have noted that the level of symmetry is one of the fundamental factors that affect human face attractiveness (Gangestad, Thornhill and Yeo, 1994). Evolutionary biologists have proposed symmetry as a sign of health and high genetic quality that may be adaptive (Thornhill and Moller, 1997; Watson and Thornhill, 1994). Moreover, facial symmetry is theorized to be a signal of mate quality (Swaddle and Cuthill, 1995; Watson and Thornhill, 1994). Studies by Rhodes et al. (1998) report that by increasing the symmetric level of individual faces, the attractiveness of these faces can be increased and that by reducing the symmetric level, facial attractiveness can be decreased. However, some other related studies have shown that normal levels of asymmetric faces are more attractive than perfectly symmetric versions of the same faces (Kowner, 1996; Langlois, 1994). For example, research by Kowner and Langlois suggests that the average face is more attractive than the *perfectly* symmetric one, which comes to the conclusion that people prefer symmetric faces (perfectly symmetric excluded) than average faces. Facial symmetry is only one factor important to facial attractiveness (Rhodes et al. 1998). Psychologists and medical sciences have proposed that there is a timeless, ideal beauty based on facial proportion (Naini, Moss and Gill, 2005). In addition, different cultures hold their own perception of attractive facial image. For example, the ideal face image of beauty in Asian women's perception is a tiny face with large eyes and prominent nose (Kaw 1991). An eyelid without cease and a flat nose indicate "sleepiness," "dullness," and "passivity" (Kaw 1991 p79).

A number of researches have showed that Asian women tend to change their facial features through cosmetic surgery (Rosenthal 1991) in order to acquire "symbolic capital" (Bourdieu 1984; Kaw 1991). More and more Asian women seek cosmetic surgery for double eyelids to get wider and larger eyes and nose bridges for higher noses to avoid the stereotype oriental look and negative traits in their culture in order to be exotic and outstanding (McCurdy 1990; Kaw 1991). Many Asian women seek cosmetic surgeries to avoid the racial prejudice that correlates with Asian stereotyped facial beauty (Kaw 1991).

In Asia, fair skin is central to understandings of physical beauty and is correlated with a woman's social status, job prospects, and earnings potential (Leslie 2004; Li, Min, Belk, Kimura and Bahl 2008). White skin, especially in south Asia, is considered both noble and aristocratic (Bray, 2002). Skin whitening,

which can be traced back to colonialism (Li, Min, Belk, Kimura and Bahl 2008) and views regarding western beauty and nobility (Wagatsum 1967) fuses traditional Asian cultural values with Western aesthetics (Li, Min, Belk, Kimura and Bahl 2008). The ideal of white skin is the interaction of western-centrism and Asian ideologies represented by Confucianism (Russell 1996). Since whiteness remains as a significant element, women in Asia use various methods to brighten, whiten and lighten their yellow-toned or dark skin such as skin whitening or skin bleach cream, pearl powder, or skin whitening drugs (Bray, 2002; Jeon 1987).

Skin color bias, especially within the African American community, reflects the difficulty, disadvantage and pain of dark-skinned women (Thurman, 1929; Thomas and Keith, 2001). In African American communities, skin color plays a significant role in class and social status determinations (Thurman, 1929). Research suggests that dark-skinned women are considered on the bottom rungs of the social ladder, least marriageable, with the least education and career opportunities (Parrish, 1994; Warner, Junker and Adams, 1941). The physical attractiveness stereotype “what is beautiful is good” (Dion, Bersheid and Walster, 1972) creates a “Halo” effect to light-skinned women (Thomas and Keith, 2001). Attractive women are perceived to have lighter skin tones than unattractive women, and a darker-skinned woman may feel herself unattractive and think herself unsuccessful no matter how intelligent and inventive she is (Russell, Wilson and Hall, 1992). African Americans have been conditioned to believe in conformity to a beauty standard that equates light skin with an easier and more rewarding life (Bond and Cash, 1992; Gatewood, 1998). Interestingly, western Caucasians may seek *darker* skin tones. While suntanned skin was once the hallmark of the working-class, farmers and outdoor laborers, and a tanned skin viewed as unattractive and undesirable (Mahler, Beckerley and Vogel, 2010), this aesthetic was entirely reversed due to the efforts of the French designer, CoCo Chanel. American culture quickly adopted Chanel’s portrayal of tanned skin as not merely aesthetically pleasing and trendy (Berkeley, Wellness Letter, 1998) but also come to equate it with good health, wealth, and prestige (Bellafante, 2001).

Studies show that individuals compare their own level of attractiveness with that of fashion models (Richins, 1991). Stereotypes indicate that women’s values are judged by their physical attractiveness and the ideal image of attractiveness is considered as a “credible source” (D'Alessandro and Chitty, 2011) for women. Several researchers report that attractive body image, which can generally be represented by body shape, body proportion and weight, is a significant variable when comes to the general standards and judgment of beauty and effectiveness of advertisements (D'Alessandro and Chitty, 2011). Attractive body image is seen as an indicator of interpersonal, material, and career success (Sullivan, 1993).

Singh (1993a) suggests that body fat distribution may be presented by waist-to-hip ratio (WHR.). An indicator of health, youth and fertility usually lies between 0.67 and 0.80 for healthy and reproductively capable women and is correlated with women’s physical attractiveness (Streeter and McBurney, 2002). Singh (1993a) contends that the smaller the WHR ratio is, the more attractive the woman will be considered. Further studies have found that both men and women find women with 0.7 WHR as most attractive (Furnham, Lavancy, and McClelland, 2001).

Highly attractive underweight model images are pervasive (Westover and Randle, 2009). Both in western and eastern cultures, thinness as the ideal woman beauty standard has been stressed in media representations of beauty (Wifley and Rodin, 1995). Dalley and Gomez (1980) note that slimness has been found to relate to elegance, self-control, social attractiveness, and youth (Dailey and Gomez 1980). Media pressure, socio-cultural pressure, self-dissatisfaction pressure and male preference pressure have delivered the clear message to woman that being thin is perceived more attractive than average weight or

overweight (Stice, Schupak-Neuberg, Westover and Randle, 2009). (Exceptions exist. In Uganda, for example, heavier body shapes are overwhelmingly preferred.) Large numbers of women reify standards of beauty established via media images, striving for reductions in body mass (Monteath and McCabe, 1997). Eating disorders, cosmetic surgery and depression caused by self-dissatisfaction reported negative results of these consumer responses to media presentations of beauty (Singh, 1994b).

CONCLUSION

This paper is by no means a comprehensive examination of the construct of beauty, nor is it intended to be a critique or presentation of media representations. Rather, it is designed to be suggestive of the breadth and depth of knowledge needed in the field of marketing to developing a theory of beauty useful to practitioners. It suggests, for example, the types of variables that interplay with the construct of beauty. It also suggests the variable nature of the construct. It acknowledges that social and cultural factors contribute to perceptions and beliefs about beauty. Finally, it hints at the magnitude of importance of understanding beauty. Such an understanding will contribute to the field, assisting advertisers, consumers, and consumer advocates.

REFERENCES

Available upon request from the authors

BIOGRAPHY

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“INTRAPORTFOLIO CORRELATION”: AN APPLICATION FOR INVESTMENTS STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

“Intraportfolio correlation,” a measure of portfolio diversification, is becoming increasingly popular among investment practitioners. However, far from providing the “free lunch” its adherents assert, the intraportfolio correlation is a simplistic and flawed measure that ignores material information about the relationships among portfolio assets. Deconstructing the intraportfolio correlation therefore can be a productive and educational exercise (and a cautionary tale) for students of portfolio theory. In this paper, we describe the measure and offer suggestions for incorporating it into an introductory investments course.

JEL: G11, G14

KEYWORDS: Portfolio Theory, Diversification, Finance Pedagogy

INTRODUCTION

Students of investments are certain to learn the portfolio concepts of Markowitz (1952) and the Capital Asset Pricing Model of Sharpe (1964). However, classroom models do not always transfer easily to the “real world,” and practitioners constantly search for new ways to make difficult theoretical constructs operational. Students therefore must be prepared to evaluate applied metrics, and to ensure that nothing critical is lost in their translation from the academic ideal.

In this paper, we consider a relatively new metric meant to assess portfolio diversification: “intraportfolio correlation” (IPC, or “Q”). The bold claims made for this measure (for example, that it *is* diversification, all by itself), its various definitions, and its drastically simplified inputs beg for critical examination by investments students. Q fits neatly into discussions of two- and three-asset portfolios, the standard approach in undergraduate courses. A thorough examination of this new metric should ensure that students—unlike the purveyors of Q—clearly understand the difference between correlation and covariance.

DEFINING THE INTRAPORTFOLIO CORRELATION

According to adherents, intraportfolio correlation *defines* diversification. However, there are competing definitions for IPC, which complicates evaluation. One definition that comes up frequently is:

$$Q = \sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j \rho_{ij}, \quad (1)$$

$i \neq j$, where w_i is the fraction of the portfolio invested in asset i , w_j is the fraction of the portfolio invested in asset j , and ρ_{ij} is the correlation between assets i and j . (See, for example, Gravity Investment, 2011 and Economic Expert, 2011.) Q, the intraportfolio correlation, then feeds into a calculation for the “percent of diversifiable risk removed”:

$$\% \text{ of diversifiable risk removed} = \frac{(1-Q)}{2} \quad (2)$$

For example, if $Q = 1$ (its highest possible value), diversification is zero, while if $Q = -1$ (its lowest possible value), diversification is perfect.

However, there is a problem with this definition. Consider an equally weighted portfolio of two assets i and j , where $\sigma_i^2 = \sigma_j^2$. If assets i and j are perfectly negatively correlated, this portfolio would have a Q of $2*(.5)^2*(-1) = -.5$, implying that the percent diversified is $(1+.5)/2 = .75$, or 75%. However, in fact, this equally weighted portfolio would actually *eliminate* risk. Therefore, we will use an alternative definition (found, for example, at Hedge Fund Consistency Index, 2011 and WordIQ, 2011) of intraportfolio correlation:

$$Q = \frac{\sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j \rho_{ij}}{\sum_i \sum_j w_i w_j}, \quad (3)$$

Using (3), Q equals -1 for the equally weighted equal-variance portfolio, so that the percent diversified is 100%, as it should be.

Unfortunately for Q adherents, defining the metric to be consistent with (2) does not mean that Q is actually helpful. For our two-asset, perfectly negatively correlated portfolio, for example, Q will *always* equal -1, even though portfolio variance, σ_p^2 , is zero only when the assets are weighted equally. Q always sends the same signal; it is not providing an adequate measure of true diversification. We continue to examine these sorts of problems with Q for two- and three-asset portfolios in the next section.

Q AND BASIC PORTFOLIOS

Two-asset portfolios are unique in that all two-asset portfolios are minimum-variance—they all offer the lowest-variance way to deliver a given expected return. As with all portfolios, the variance of a two-asset portfolio depends upon the weighting scheme chosen. However, the dependence of σ_p^2 on w_i is obscured by the intraportfolio correlation expression:

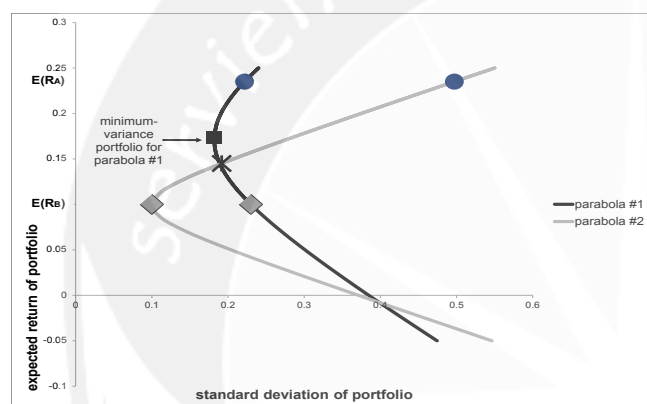
$$Q = \frac{2w_i w_j \rho_{ij}}{2w_i w_j} = \rho_{ij}. \quad (4)$$

All Q tells us is the correlation coefficient—which we already knew—not the amount of realized diversification in a specific portfolio.

The problem with Q is that it abstracts from the variances of the underlying assets. Figure 1 gives us one way to think about this problem. In the figure, we show the portfolio parabolas (possible portfolios, plotted in $[\sigma_p, E(R_p)]$ space) for two sets of assets A and B. The assets A and B used to create the two parabolas have the same expected returns in each case. (Asset A is depicted with circles; asset B by diamonds.) The correlation between the assets is also the same in both cases: 0.2. In neither case is A or

B dominated when held in isolation. However, asset A has a higher standard deviation in parabola #2 than in parabola #1, while asset B has a lower standard deviation. Consider the upper point at which the two parabolas cross, which is marked by a star. At this point, both the portfolio on parabola #1 and the portfolio on parabola #2 have the same weighting schemes for A and B, the same expected return, and the same standard deviation. Given the common correlation coefficient, these two portfolios also have the same value for intraportfolio correlation, Q . However, an investor clearly would not be indifferent between the two portfolios—despite the common Q , $E(R_p)$, and σ_p —since the portfolio, while not dominated on parabola #2, *is dominated* on parabola #1. Again, these parabolas were constructed using assets differing only on standard deviation, the information Q ignores; they share the same weighting scheme, ρ , and expected returns. Intraportfolio correlation cannot distinguish between them since it abstracts from critical information concerning their relative risk. Yet Q purports to be a risk measure!

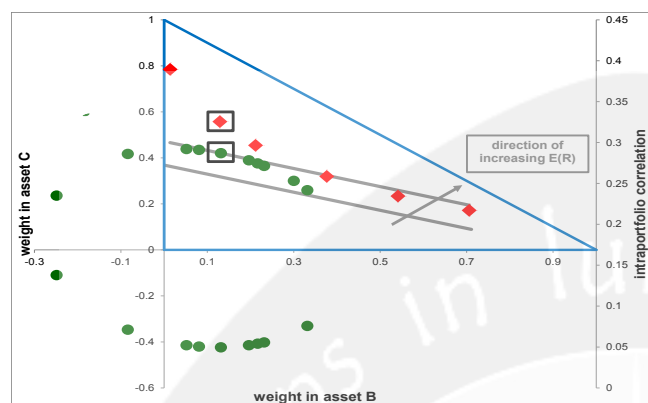
Figure 1: Comparison of Two Pairs of Assets



This figure shows two portfolio curves made up of two assets A and B. For both curves, $E(R_A) = 25\%$ and $E(R_B) = 10\%$. In parabola #1, the assets' standard deviations are 24% and 23%, respectively; in parabola #2, they are 55% and 10%. Consider the crossover point marked by a star: this portfolio has the same Q on both parabolas, but is dominated on parabola #1. Q cannot distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable (dominated) cases.

Figure 2 shows that Q 's problems are not limited to the two-asset case. This figure plots an isovariance ellipse and two isomean lines (following Markowitz, 1952), using portfolios of three assets. Consider the point at the tangency of the isovariance ellipse and the upper isomean line (this point is boxed in the graph). The portfolio represented by this tangency point delivers the expected return with the lowest possible variance, and is therefore efficient. However, this is not the portfolio that would be chosen using Q as the criterion. The diamonds show the values of Q that correspond to the portfolios on the isomean line. The Q value associated with the efficient portfolio (which is also boxed) is not the lowest; minimizing Q therefore cannot be an optimal strategy.

Figure 2: Q and Three-Asset Portfolios



The ellipse is one of a series of concentric isovariance ellipses. The lines are isomean lines; expected return rises as these lines move to the northeast. Investors choose points on the efficient set, which is determined by the tangencies between isovariance curves and isomean lines. One such point is highlighted. However, the Q value (diamond) for this efficient portfolio is not the lowest Q value possible for this level of expected return. Minimizing Q cannot therefore be an appropriate decision rule for a risk-averse investor.

APPLICATIONS TO INVESTMENTS COURSES

The most straightforward theoretical application of Q to investments courses relates to the discussion of the Capital Asset Pricing Model. After introducing the Capital Market Line (CML), the instructor could ask students to consider the intraportfolio correlation for a portfolio of n assets lying on the Capital Market Line. Since all assets on the CML are perfectly positively correlated, the Q value would be 1, implying that there was no diversification whatsoever. However, since all assets on the CML are already perfectly diversified—they have no systematic risk, by definition—this is clearly a nonsensical implication.

A second theoretical link occurs when considering naïve diversification. Studying the portfolio variance effects of setting all weights to $(1/n)$, where n is the number of included securities, gives students an early appreciation for the relative inconsequence of individual asset variances and the importance of covariances. Bodie, Kane, and Marcus (2011) provide an example in which they assume that all correlations and variances are the same ($\text{var}(i) = \sigma^2$ for all i ; $\text{corr}(i,j) = \rho$, $i \neq j$). In this case, portfolio variance equals:

$$\sigma_p^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sigma^2 + \frac{(n-1)}{n} \rho \sigma^2 \quad (5)$$

As n increases, it is easy to see that the first term—the contribution of the individual asset variances—goes to zero, while the second term approaches $\rho \sigma^2$. Portfolio variance therefore approaches the common covariance. However, since all pairs of assets have the same correlation, Q becomes simply ρ , as it does for the two-asset case. Again, the measure degenerates into something we already knew, and we miss the point of the example—that even naïve diversification diminishes the influence of unique risk.

Moving beyond these theoretical evaluations of Q , investments professors may also introduce IPC in more applied topic areas. For example, it is common for investments courses to incorporate spreadsheet projects based on real data. Ammar, Kim, and Wright (2008) add a simulation exercise focused on correlation. Using an equally weighted two-stock portfolio, they demonstrate the power of low

correlations to reduce portfolio risk. They suggest—but do not perform—extensions, such as allowing rebalancing. This type of extension could provide an opportunity for students to explore intraportfolio correlation. Discussing Q would highlight the importance of a portfolio's weighting scheme, which is currently missing from Ammar, Kim, and Wright's simulation.

More interesting evaluations of Q are possible when students actually set out to find the efficient set. Since identifying mean-variance efficient portfolios is straightforward with Excel, students who learn the process should be easily convinced that a simplistic metric like Q is unnecessary. Carter, Dare, and Elliott (2002) provide a template for finding mean-variance efficient portfolios using Excel's Solver tool. With Solver, students can generate efficient frontiers for n -asset portfolios, which they can then compare to reference portfolios. Using a plot of portfolios in (standard deviation, expected return) space, students can easily compare efficient and dominated portfolios, and their Q s. As we showed in Figure 2 above, they will learn that Q does not identify efficient portfolios.

Students who wish to go further with Excel can follow Arnold's (2002) application of the program's matrix multiplication functions. Arnold advocates for introducing students to efficient set mathematics using linear algebra, both to enhance their appreciation for the meaning of efficiency in the n -asset case and to link portfolio theory solutions to regression analysis. Given the generality of the templates he provides, he asserts that, "[p]articularly with the aid of a spreadsheet program, multiple asset portfolios are not beyond the comprehension of undergraduate students." Why then, would they need Q ?

CONCLUSIONS

Intraportfolio correlation is a relatively new metric being advanced by some practitioners as a valuable measure of portfolio diversification. However, it does not appear to live up to its hype. Markowitz (1952) notes that his expected value/variance hypothesis implies the "'right kind' of diversification for the 'right reason'." It is not the *number* of securities in a portfolio that generates efficient diversification—it is the *relationships* among those securities. This is undoubtedly the insight driving the advocates of intraportfolio correlation. However, by focusing only on correlation, the standardized measure of comovement, Q ignores the rest of covariance: the standard deviations.

In this paper, we evaluated Q using the two- and three-asset cases. These cases are part of the basic investments curriculum, so should be easily accessible to undergraduate students. Nonetheless, they are sufficient to demonstrate some of the problems with Q : students will be able to determine that Q is not able to identify optimal portfolios—which is its job.

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CHALLENGES OF IMPLEMENTING AND ENFORCING OF ENVIRONMENTAL LAW IN MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

In this article, we discuss the problems faced in implementing environment law in Malaysia. Firstly, we brought some real cases that Malaysian government had dealt with before, according to their weak management. As basis for environmental law and regulations, policies have been originated to manage and mitigate possible environmental issues in future. However, economic policies that formulated by government always mentioned as the most important reason for the current environmental problems. Initiation of various environmental policies and regulations has not been able to protect upcoming environmental damages. Regardless of all efforts to prevent environment by passing of laws and regulations, Malaysia still face with increasing of demands for developing to greater urban that cause high damage to environment. The misunderstood concept that says preserving environment means limitation for developing makes much harder the implementing and enforcing of environmental laws. This discussion tries to find a solution to improve implementing of laws and regulation to attain a sustainable development in Malaysia.

KEY WORDS: Environmental law, Implementation, Regulation, misunderstood concept

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, environmental is an emphasis issue in whole of the world, and NGOs are worried about environment in future. One of the most important discusses in the international societies is Environmental concern. It is recognized now increasingly that many issues relating to the environment have a global dimension. For instance, global activities contribute to the emission of green house gases as well as global warming and climate change. Disasters cause incredible damage within jurisdictions witness the recent earthquakes in Pakistan, Hurricanes Rita and Katrina, and the Tsunami now cross boundaries is an order hardly ever seen before. The result of statistics makes all this clear, but there are variety reasons, more governments neglect in implementation environmental law. Nowadays, Main problem is implementation in this division, because of existence of steady laws in these countries in order to protect of the environment. In fact, environmental laws are international matters, so the government cannot ignore environmental laws. Decisions of government may have an environmental impact, among other things that are more and more being made outside of the national sovereign sphere.

LITERTURE REVIEW

In contrast, some of the issues will influence the environmental such as being able to develop stronger business relationships with suppliers, attracting ethical investors and even penetrating new markets due to better environmental performance. Global capitalism creates pressures and tendencies for corporations to

act and adopt strategic environmental practices. Furthermore, ISO 14001 certification (environmental management standards) might be one of the most appropriate examples for this case. In reality, The ISO 14000 exists to help organizations (a) reduce how their operations (processes etc.) negatively affect the environment (i.e. cause unfavourable changes to air, water or land). (b) Conform to applicable laws, regulations, and other environmentally oriented requirements and (c) continually get better in the above.

ISO 14000 is similar to ISO 9000 quality management as both of them be appropriate to the process of how a product is produced, rather than to the product itself. According to ISO 9000, certification is performed by third-party organizations rather than being awarded by ISO directly. Furthermore, The ISO 19011 audit standard applies when auditing for both 9000 and 14000 compliance at once. Concerning can consider about the relationships between groups, individuals, organizations, and the rights to information that such relationships entail (Gray R, Dey, 1997). Environmental responsibility values can be developed throughout discourses of accounting with transparency and completeness indicating the collective meanings of the disclosures, self-respect and closeness of relationships (Lehman, 1995). Inevitably, corporate environmental reporting acts as the vehicle for providing environmental data that designed to satisfy the accountability relationships in order to designate corporate consciousness through a moral discourse on environmental issues. It justifies an environmental accountability level in creating a just society amongst business corporations (Shearer T, 2002).

ISO 14001 certification provides evidence and confidence to external parties that the companies have control over the significant aspects of their operations and activities. They are committed to conform to all relevant environmental legislation, regulations and that they are continuously improving their environmental performance. On the other hand, some companies chose to set up environmental management systems (including environmental disclosure practices) with no seeking a certificate. The reasons maybe the costs of implementing the procedures, investments towards controlling measures, auditing costs, training costs and many more. Certification to international environmental standards creates significant trade and investment relationships and in the Asia-Pacific region, ISO 14001 has been seen as an important indicator of voluntary business commitment towards environmental improvement for Singapore and Malaysia case (Sumiani, 2006). The countries should accept ISO 14001 due to international laws and it is criteria for certified by environmental NGOs.

One of the Asian countries that are rapidly developing is Malaysia that may increasingly face the tension between the economic incentives and the claim for ethical consciousness with regard to accounting for the environment. Thus, there is increase in tendency to know the local environmental position and its economic dependency in interpreting Malaysian motivational factors for environmental accounting and reporting (Sumiani, 2006). Malaysia plans in order to reach the status of a developed country in the year 2020 and the construction industry is seen as a most important catalyst to attain this vision. On the other hand, this industry has a dark side.

Regardless of the findings on the improvements of the engagement of the corporations on strategic environmental movements, environmental reporting is still very low and general, and descriptive in nature (Harte G, Lewis, 2000). Unfortunately, many countries approved some of the laws in their society as well as perform in implementation very weak. The environmental dilemma in Malaysia cannot be overstated. The indifferent attitude of the Malaysian policy makers towards a long-term development in fondness to short-term fast economic gains has contributed hugely to the environmental affliction of the country. They failed to learn from history that has clearly shown because of the main reasons for societies' collapse is conscious destruction of their natural resources. A society seeking rapid development could

achieve its aspirations with no necessarily having to compromise its environment. It is essential for any society to make sure that it develops without necessarily compromising its environmental needs so as not to undermine the present achievements (Maidin, 2005).

In Malaysia there are so many environmental laws that just we talk about some of them in the following:

1. Environmental Quality Act 1974 (Act 127) - www.doe.gov.my
2. Fisheries Act 1985 - www.moa.gov.my
3. Land Conservation Act 1960 - www.jkptg.gov.my
4. Local Government Act 1979 - www.jkt.gov.my
5. Merchant Shipping (Oil Pollution) Act 1994
6. National Forestry Act 1984 - www.forestry.gov.my
7. National Park Act 1980 - www.wildlife.gov.my
8. Plant Quarantine Act 1976 - www.moa.gov.my
9. Pesticides Act 1974 - www.moa.gov.my
10. Protection of Wildlife Act 1972 - www.wildlife.gov.my
11. Radioactive Substance Act 1968 - www.mosti.gov.my
12. Sewerage Services Act 1993 - www.jpp.gov.my
13. Town and Country Planning Act 1976 - www.jpbd.gov.my
14. Water Enactment 1920 (-Revised) Act 1979 - www.ktak.gov.my
15. Sarawak Biodiversity Centre Ordinance 1997
16. Sabah Biodiversity Enactment 2000
17. Sarawak Natural Resources and Environment (Amendment) Ordinance 2001
18. Sabah Environment Protection Enactment 2002
19. Sabah Forest Enactment 1968
20. Sarawak Forest Ordinance 1954

There are so many real environmental cases in Malaysia and other countries relevant to this issue, we mention in the present article to two real cases as example:

1- Mitigating the palm oil effluent problem in Malaysia:

It can be traced back to 1960s when (a) the prices of the competing crop rubber began to fall; and (b) the Malaysian government embarked on a huge program of agricultural diversification. By the early 1970s, in order to provide the processing needs of the agricultural estate, a large number of moderately sized mills scattered around the plantations were established. Between 1965 and 1975, the output of Crude Palm Oil (CPO) grew six times lead to more water use for processing and eventually more discharge of (untreated) wastewater into water bodies. The estimates suggest that for every ton of CPO produced, the mills generate 2.5 tons of effluent (Ma et al., 1982 as referred in Vincent et al., 1997: 328).

The extent of pollution is reflected, in the fact that by mid1977, 42 rivers in Malaysia were so considerably polluted freshwater fish could not survive in them. This had wide ramification because freshwater fish were a major source of protein for countryside Malays. Unfortunately, the palm oil mill effluent (POME) problem was exceptional to Malaysia and no confirmed treatment technology existed at that time. However, the pollution situation improved within 6–7 years from 1978 to 1985 due to the acceptance of different policies. The data shows that in 1975, the BOD load discharged by 131 CPO mills was equal to the BOD load in the raw sewage of 12 million people, which corresponded to Malaysia's entire population during that time. By 1985, however, the population-equivalent BOD load declined by 99% to only 80,000 people. Respectively, the number of polluted rivers fell to 12 and clean rivers rose to 81 in 1992. This suggests that some strong policies were in place during this period.

The change occurred despite a important (72%) increase in the number of CPO mills from 131 mills in 1975 to 225 in 1985 along with the tripling of the industry's output. Interestingly, the period also marked the time when POI became the country's largest foreign exchange earner, Malaysia consolidated its position as the world's largest producer of CPO and accounted for 3/4th of world's exports, and its contribution to GDP increased from 4.3% in 1980 to 8.4% in 1989.

The three major policy steps to control pollution were the passage of the Environmental Quality Act (EQA), the establishment of the Department of Environment (DOE) (both in 1974), and the formation of an expert committee (with representatives from both the government and industry). These measures convinced the POI that the government was keen on reducing pollution levels. The EQA authorized the DOE to 'prescribe' certain industrial premises i.e., necessitating them to obtain a license as a precondition to activate besides satisfying conditions related to pollution control. On July 7, 1977, the EQ (Prescribed premises) Regulations were announced by the DOE imposing standards on eight parameters of POME. The regulations were designed to serve two purposes:

(a) Raising revenue through license; and (b) ensuring a guaranteed reduction in BOD discharge by a minimum amount through standards. The DOE also announced that it would make the standards increasingly stringent over the next four years. The warning was intended to induce the mills make an early investment in treatment facilities. However, the development of the appropriate standards was an outcome of two years of preliminary work by the expert committee. Since BOD is the key parameter of the palm oil mills (POMs), it attracted the maximum attention of the authorities. The firms were asked to reduce BOD attentiveness from 5,000 ppm (parts per million) to 500 ppm in four years 1978 to 1981. These limits were reduced further to 250 ppm in 1982 and to 100 ppm in 1984 (Table 1). The regulators

gave an elegance period of one year to the mills to install treatment facilities enabling them to comply with the regulations. The regulations also required CPO mills to apply for an operating license every year for a particular fee. The fee consisted of two parts a flat processing fee of M\$ 100 and a variable effluent-related fee. The variable component varied according to: (a) the class of premises; (b) the location of premises; (c) the quantity of wastes discharged; (d) the pollutants discharged; and (e) the existing level of pollution to persuade mills reduce pollution levels.

However, the first generation standards did not make different between watercourse discharge and on land disposal, as effluent-related fees computed for both the mediums were equal. The mills were required to pay M\$ 0.05/ton of BOD for discharges onto land. For any watercourse discharge, the fee was M\$ 10/ton of BOD for concentrations up to the standard, and beyond that, an excess charge was imposed equivalent to 10 times the license fee. Therefore, the mills had a choice as they could either arrange of their pollution and pay the fee or invest in a treatment facility and save on the license fee. The later generations of standards, however, created an enticement for watercourse discharge as the effluent related fees were considerably lower than those for land disposal.

The results of policy performance appear to be quite encouraging, yet below the expectations. The DOE had expected that the average daily discharge of BOD per CPO mill would reduce from 220 to 25 tons. However, it fell to only 125 and many mills opted to pay the excess fee. Of 130 mills, 46% paid a fee of more than M\$ 10,000; 7% paid more than M\$ 100,000 and a total of M\$ 3.5 million was collected.

The DOE had two choices either to increase the license fee or to make the standards more strict and binding. The DOE chose for the later and made it plentifully clear to the mills that any violation of the BOD standard would be dealt with by conclusion. The threat worked as it yielded instant results. The average daily discharge fell to 60 tons the next year with a total reduction in load discharged of 84.7%, whereas in terms of the effluent-related fee none of the mills paid more than M\$ 10,000 after the 1980s.

The Malaysian experience in waste matter control in the palm oil industry has shown that a set of well-designed environmental policies can be very efficient in controlling industrial pollution in a developing country. The CPO regulations with active enforcement by the regulator in Malaysia represent a mixed system of pollution control instruments. Palm oil industry offers several lessons for pollution control efforts in other developing countries:

- (a) Concurrently, Pollution reduction and industrial expansion can take place. The fact that an industry is economically important is not a justification for not addressing the pollution problems caused by it.
- (b) The environment and industry objectives can be merged only if many products from the waste matter develop along with an effective and relatively reasonably priced technology. Nevertheless, this can be possible only with the active support of the State.
- (c) A proper support in order to R&D is required if conformity is to be ensured. The enclosure of a clause by DOE that full or partial waiver of the charges/fee is permitted if any firm was believed to undertake R&D on effluent disposal or treatment reflects this support.
- (d) The last and the most important lesson that can be learnt is that compliance requires a regulator to complete multiple roles a believable regulator, a facilitator and an enforcer. The reliability of laying down the standards was established when the industry was also made part of the standards fixation process, whereas the facilitator role of the regulator became obvious when the DOE decided to give some

time to the industry to construct a treatment facility and get some experience before implementing new regulations.

2-Bakun Dam

The Bakun Dam is an embankment dam located in Sarawak, Malaysia on the Balui River, a tributary or source of the Rajang River and some sixty kilometres west of Belaga. As part of the project, the second tallest concrete-faced rock fill dam in the world would be built. It is planned to generate 2,400 megawatts (MW) of electricity once completed.

The purpose for the dam was to meet growing demand for electricity. However, most of this demand said to lie in Peninsular Malaysia and not East Malaysia, where the dam is located. Even in Peninsular Malaysia, however, there is an over-supply of electricity, with Tenaga Nasional Berhad being locked into unfavourable purchasing agreements with Independent Power Producers. The original idea was to have 30% of the generated capacity consumed in East Malaysia and the rest sent to Peninsular Malaysia. However, about this plan is 730 km of overhead HVDC broadcast lines in East Malaysia, 670 km of undersea HVDC cable and 300 km of HVDC transmission line in Peninsular Malaysia.

Future, plans for the dam include connecting it to an envisioned Trans-Borneo Power Grid Interconnection, which would be a grid to supply power to Sarawak, Sabah, Brunei, and Kalimantan (Indonesia). There have been mentions of this grid made within ASEAN meetings but any party has taken no actions. Bakun Dam came online on 6 August 2011. Ting Pek Khing's name again was raised in connection with the project In May 2004. A Ting-owned company, Global Up line, was supposed to be awarded a contract to carry out "biomass removal" in the flood basin.

This would allow him to harvest timber in the area without a separate permission. Issuance of timber permits has come under increased inspection due to political conditions and environmental concerns. However, as of December 2006 it has not been awarded. Usage of the generated capacity was to have been by a proposed aluminium smelting plant in Similajau, near Bintulu, just about 180 km inside from the dam. The project is a joint venture between Dubai Aluminium Co, Ltd (Dubal) and Gulf International Investment Group (GIIG); make an investment fund jointly set up by Malaysian tycoon Syed Mokhtar, and Dubai-based international financier Mohamed Ali Alabbar. This plant was expected to consume 50% of the power generated. The government has agreed in principle that 60% of Sarawak Hidro, the entity which owns the dam, will be sold to GIIG. Due to delays in dam construction, the plans for the smelter have since been shelved. Smelter agreement was originally signed in 2003 and some conditions have lapsed due to delays in construction. Rio Tinto announced in August 2007 that they had signed a deal with Malaysian corporation Cahya Mata Sarawak Berhad (CMSB) to build an aluminium smelter.

The production capacity would be 550,000 tonnes initially with expansion to 1.5 million tonnes possible. Production of aluminium would start at the end of 2010. At the end of 2004, the minor partners in the Malaysia-China Hydro JV consortium (Ahmad Zaki Resources Bhd, WCT Engineering Bhd and MTD Capital) will report quarterly losses due to the Bakun project. Discounting this project, they would all be operating profitably for the quarter. For Ahmad Zaki Resources Bhd, this is the first time it will report losses since 1993. Ahmad Zaki estimates net losses suffered for nine months ending September 30, 2004 at RM4.55 million. WCT has reported a net loss of RM13.08 million for the quarter ending September 30, 2004 due to the Bakun project. MTD Capital reported a RM4.04 million loss in the quarter ending September 30, 2004 and attributed it to "a major project undertaken by the company in joint venture with

both local and foreign partners" without particularly naming Bakun. The lead partner in the project, Sime Engineering reported a profit of RM521, 000 for the same quarter versus a profit of RM4.18 million for the same quarter in 2003. Declines in profit were attributed to cost overruns and project delays.

In November 2007, Sime Darby, the parent company of the contractor Sime Engineering will be merged with Golden Hope and Guthrie into a new company with a market capitalization of RM 31 billion (USD 8 billion). Concurrently with the merger, the contractor Sime Engineering will take over the ownership of the Bakun Dam project. As of February 2007, there are three developments affecting the Bakun project. The first is the merger of the Sime Darby, Guthrie and Golden Hope into a new entity named Synergy Drive. The second is the proposed capture of the Bakun project by the contractor, Sime Engineering. The third is the revival of the submarine HVDC cable under the South China Sea to transport electricity from Borneo to Peninsular Malaysia. Sime Engineering Sdn Bhd has filed a suit against AZRB over alleged breaches in the Malaysia-China Hydro joint venture agreement dated June 12, 2002 relating to the Bakun dam. AZRB was served with a writ summons and statement of claim dated Oct 12 by Sime Engineering claiming "RM15.24 million for supposed breaches by AZRB of the Malaysia-China Hydro JVA" relating to Bakun hydroelectric project package CW2 - main civil works

Environmental and social damage: The Bakun dam flooding commenced on 13th October 2010[8] with a faulty start and will put 700 km² of land under water - equivalent to the size of Singapore. The rainforest of this part of Southeast Asia has some of the highest rates of plant and animal endemism, species found there and nowhere else on Earth, and this dam has done irreparable ecological damage to that region. Construction of the dam required the relocation of more than 9,000 native residents (mainly Kayan/Kenyah) of the original peoples who lived in the area to be flooded. Many Sarawak natives have been relocated to a longhouse settlement named Sungai Asap in Bakun. Most of them were survival farmers. Each family was promised 3 acres of land but many families still have not been compensated.

Concerns were raised also about such things as the relocation of people; amount of virgin tropical rainforest which had to be cut down (230 km²); possible dam collapse issues; increase in diseases with water-borne vectors such as schistosomiasis, opisthorchiasis, malaria, and filariasis; and sediment accumulation shortening the useful natural life of the dam. A 5 part series of Bakun dam documentaries was filmed by Chou Z Lam. The series highlighted the basic group of people problems faced by displaced native people such as the lack of land areas for farming and hunting, lack of educational, medical, and transport facilities and also the promises not being kept by the government. This documentary series was later banned from Radio Television Malaysia (RTM) on May 2010, forcing the remaining series to YouTube. Transparency International includes Bakun Dam in its 'Monuments of corruption' Global Corruption Report 2005. The permission to expand the project went to a timber contractor and friend of Sarawak's director.

CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATION

Regarding to the issues considered in above, significant matters is implementation, despite so many of the Nongovernmental organization (NGO) attempted to resolve this problems but still variety matters in implementation. Nongovernmental organization (NGO) should encourage the governments strictly to implement environmental laws and prove to them who performing laws will not restrict their developments.

Our recommendation is use of Environmental Education wide spread. In fact, Environmental Education (EE) increasingly promoted as a tool in environmental management. The importance of Environmental Education (EE) is highlighted in the National Policy on the Environment, use of Strategies on “Education & Awareness.” Malaysia government and other countries should make an investment in Environmental Education (EE) as a type of formal and non-formal education more than. It will be introduced in schools as Environmental Education Program (EEP), across curriculum at primary and secondary level. Related to that, Environmental Education (EE) was found as an important subject who it must be known by the teachers previous to teach that subject indirectly in the classroom. Problems occurred while implementing Environmental Education Program (EEP) in schools such as; less knowledge about Environmental Education (EE) among teachers, thinking Environmental Education Program (EEP) as an extra burden for them to educate, etc.

It will not be possible unless Environmental Education (EE) support by Malaysia governmental organizations for instance Ministry of Education (MOE) with collaboration of other government agencies such as Department of Environment (DOE), Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). The non-governmental organization (NGOs) for example Environmental Protection Society, the Environmental Management and Research Association of Malaysia, the Nature Society and Worldwide finance for Nature plays a significant role too in promoting the significant of consciousness of the environmental.

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BIVARIATE EXTREME DEPENDENCY BETWEEN STOCK MARKET AND OIL RETURNS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the dependency structure between Turkish stock market returns and oil price movements, especially on the extreme observations. The bivariate extreme value methodology is used for understanding the dependency between oil price movements and stock market index. The residuals of autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA) models of stock market index (ISE 100) and Brent oil returns are examined by using bivariate extreme value analysis over the period between 1988 and 2011. The overall period studied is analyzed by subdividing the period into two phases. We observe a higher dependency in the second phase (2000-2011), compared to the first phase (1988-1999). Our results show that in the second phase the extremes on the negative tails coincide more commonly compared to the extremes on the positive tails, which is in line with the current literature findings. However, in general Turkish stock market and oil returns are asymptotically independent in extreme observations, which suggest diversification opportunities for portfolio managers.

JEL: C46, C51, C53, F4

KEYWORDS: Bivariate EVT, Stock Market Returns, Oil Prices, ISE

INTRODUCTION

Scarce energy sources and world's growing demand for energy highlight the importance of energy economics. Oil is still the world's leading energy input considering nearly 35 percent of the global energy consumption provided by oil. This percentage is considerably more in the emerging industrialized nations. As it is explained in Basher and Sardosky (2002), emerging economies tend to be more energy intensive and are exposed to higher oil prices compared to developed countries that are more energy efficient in our day. Oil prices fluctuate unprecedentedly during the past decade, especially after 2003. Growing demand in emerging countries, invasion of Iraq, oil price speculations and global financial crises are the main reasons for past decade fluctuations. There is an increasing trend in the oil prices after 2003. Increasing prices have a considerable effect on macroeconomic variables such as growth rate, foreign trade balance and inflation particularly for emerging countries.

This study investigates dependency relationship between oil prices and Turkish stock market. Turkey, as an emerging country, supplies more than 40 percent of its energy requirements from crude oil. About 9 percent of Turkey's total imports consist of crude oil. Considering importance of oil in Turkish economy, one can say that oil prices have a decisive effect on macroeconomic indicators. Despite various researches done on macroeconomics of energy matter, there is relatively limited number of researches, which concentrate on financial markets' reaction to the energy prices.

During the last decade, considerable amount of extreme price movements for oil and stock markets are observed. In the volatility of our times, extreme price movements become a familiar phenomenon. Oil and stock market relationship examined by the current literature mainly focused on analyzing central

observations. This study concentrated on oil price and Turkish stock market relationship on the extreme events. This approach may help to understand the behavior of financial markets in volatile conditions and times of crisis.

The rest of the paper continues as follows: Section 2 presents the literature review, Section 3 identifies the model and the data used for this study, Section 4 present the empirical results for the study and Section 5 concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Numerous researchers through the last two decades have studied oil price effect on macroeconomic variables. Hamilton's (1983) study can be considered as a starting point in the literature of this subject, followed by other researchers such as; Loungani and Prakash (1986), Gisser and Goodwin (1986), Mork (1989). Considering the number of researches that have analyzed oil price effect, there is relatively small number of works that focused on the stock markets.

Going through the literature, many of the findings represent a negative relationship between oil prices and stock markets. Jones and Kaul's (1996) study was the first to reveal negative impact of oil prices on stock exchanges. Sadorsky (1999) and Papapetrou (2001) find a negative relationship between stock markets and oil prices. Sadorsky (1999) also reports a change in oil price dynamics, that after 1986 oil price explains a larger fraction of forecast error variance in stock returns. An increased number of researches can be observed after 2000's together with more diversified findings on oil and stock market relationship.

In the recent literature, some of the negative oil and stock market relationship findings continue as follows: Hammoudeh and Li (2005) reveal a negative bidirectional dynamic relationship between oil future price and Morgan Stanley Capital International (MSCI) global equity index. Park and Ratti (2008) apply multivariate vector auto regressive (VAR) analysis on US and 13 European countries stock indices and conclude that oil price shocks have a negative impact on real stock returns except for Norway, which is an oil exporter country. Bhar and Nikolova (2010) conduct bivariate exponential general autoregressive conditional heteroskedastic (GARCH) model on weekly data and identify a negative time varying conditional correlation between Russian equity market and oil price. Filis (2010) observes negative effect of oil price on Greek stock market by using a VAR approach. Lee and Chiou (2011) find a significant negative impact of oil prices on US stock returns.

Recent findings also show positive relationship between oil and stock markets. Constantinou et al. (2010) estimate a VAR model with granger causality tests on daily data and indicate a significant positive association between Greek stock market and oil prices. Choi and Hammoudeh (2010) employ Markov-switching GARCH models on oil price and US SP500 index and argue that high volatility regimes have positive probability correlations. Zhu et al. (2011) investigate on 14 countries and conclude that increased oil prices have a positive impact on stock prices and increased stocks influence crude oil positively. Narayan and Narayan (2010) conduct a long-run model on daily data and show that oil price and exchange rate have a significant positive effect on Vietnamese stock prices. Basher and Sadorsky (2006) also reveal that oil price risk on 21 emerging stock markets is statistically significant and positive in most models.

A part of the literature suggests that there is a conditional relationship between oil and stock market or no relationship at all. Filis et al. (2011) employ dynamic conditional correlation GARCH (DCC-GARCH)

model on monthly data of three oil importing and three oil exporting countries. They assert that precautionary demand side oil shocks cause negative correlations whereas aggregate demand side shocks cause positive correlations. Their findings also show that oil price shocks during global business cycle fluctuations have a significant effect on oil price relationship regardless of countries oil dependency status, however oil shocks caused from production cuts do not seem to have an significant impact. Faff and Brailsford (1999) conduct augmented market model on 24 Australian industry portfolios and oil price. Their findings indicate a positive sensitivity for diversified industrial resources and oil and gas portfolios together with a negative sensitivity for transportation and paper and packaging portfolios. Eryigit (2009) applies Faff and Brailsford's (1999) augmented market model on 16 sector indices of Istanbul Stock Exchange and demonstrate that different oil price effects for different indices. Malik and Hammoudeh (2007) estimate a multivariate GARCH model with BEKK parameterization on daily data and conclude that Gulf equity markets receive volatility from oil market. Mohanty et al. (2010) and Laopodis (2011) analyze European stock markets and reveal that there is no relation between equity and oil prices. Hearn and Man (2010) apply a VAR model on monthly data for China and Hong Kong stock indices and conclude that there is general lack of long-term price integration between markets and oil price. Maghyereh (2004) and Al-Fayoumi (2009) investigate on emerging market stock indices and document that oil price do not affect these stock markets. Hammoudeh and Choi (2006) estimate a VEC model on 5 Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries stock markets and could not found a relationship between oil price and GCC equities. Huang et al. (1996) investigate US SP500 stock index on different levels by using a VAR approach. They provide that there is no relationship between oil futures and broad based stock index but on the firm level they discover a significant relationship.

Contribution of this study to the existing literature will be using bivariate extreme value theory for analyzing the dependency structure of stock market and oil prices. As it is mentioned in some of the studies such as: Choi and Hammoudeh (2010) and Lee and Chiou (2011), different volatility regimes have different oil price effect on stock markets. High volatility environment has many extreme events in term of oil price and stock market movements, which also illustrates our global market structure in the last decade. Instead of the normal price behavior of crude oil, this study will focus on extremal events by using a bivariate extreme value methodology on an emerging market, Turkey.

METHODOLOGY

Data

In this study, daily data is used for crude oil prices and stock market index. The daily data covers the period from January 1988 to August 2011. Brent oil prices are used as the crude oil prices since Brent oil index is the main indicator for Turkish oil trade. Oil price data come from U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA). Istanbul Stock Exchange 100 (ISE 100) closing prices are used as the stock market data. Stock market data is taken from Istanbul Stock Exchange web site (www.ise.org). Both oil and stock prices are expressed in US dollars. Our data set consists of log returns of spot prices and there is a total of 5732 observation excluding missing days for oil price and stock index. Considering the chorological events of late 1990s and 2000s such as; (1998) Asian economic crisis, (2001) 9/11 attacks, (2003) Iraq war and 2007 Subprime crisis, we divide our dataset into two phases. The first phase covers the years 1988-1999 and the second phase covers the years through 2000-2011. The data covers a period of 23 years during which we observe a shift in scale of prices and volatility both in oil and stock market.

Descriptive statistic results provided in Table 1 demonstrate ISE 100 index returns are more volatile compared to oil returns. Results of the Jarque-Bera test shows that oil returns and ISE 100 index returns are not normally distributed at both phases. Skewness and excess kurtosis values also indicate the same result. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test shows us that our data set at both phases are stationary. Data set used in this study is not independent and identically *distributed* (i.i.d.) except for oil returns at the second phase according to Ljung-Box test statistics. To test data with bivariate extreme value model, data set needs to be converted into i.i.d. series. We utilized an ARIMA model for data conversion process. Data set examined according to *Akaike* information criteria (AIC) and Bayesian information criteria (BIC) to get the best-fitted model possible. Tools for selecting AIC and BIC values are provided in Hyndman's (2011) package 'forecast'.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Statistics	Phase 1		Phase 2	
	Brent	ISE 100	Brent	ISE 100
Mean	0.00007	0.00024	0.00056	0.00028
Median	0.00000	-0.00024	0.00140	0.00083
Maximum	0.17333	0.17738	0.18130	0.24999
Minimum	-0.36121	-0.25376	-1.98907	-0.23666
Std. Dev	0.02376	0.03298	0.02486	0.03131
Skewness	-1.11255	-0.39792	-0.35938	0.01687
Kurtosis	27.65269	7.45027	8.31147	10.42053
Jarque-Bera	73167.340	2440.674	3430.635	6575.732
[p-value]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
Augmented Dickey-Fuller	-12.6856	-12.7272	-12.7561	-11.7945
[p-value]	[0.01]	[0.01]	[0.01]	[0.01]
Ljung-Box	6.7137	66.3909	0.7507	16.6621
[p-value]	[0.00957]	[0]	[0.3862]	[0.00004]
Observations	2866	2866	2866	2866

This table shows descriptive statistics for Brent oil price returns and ISE 100 index returns for the two phases. Phase 1 and phase 2 cover the periods from 1988 to 1999 and from 2000 to 2011, respectively.

Table 2. ARIMA Models

Statistics	Phase 1		Phase 2	
	Brent	ISE 100	Brent	ISE 100
ARIMA Model	ARIMA(1,0,4)	ARIMA(2,0,2)	ARIMA(0,0,0)	ARIMA(0,0,1)
Ljung-Box	0.0012	0.001	0.7507	0.0071
[p-value]	[0.9718]	[0.9742]	[0.3862]	[0.9329]

This table shows fitted ARIMA models and Ljung-Box statistics for oil price returns and ISE 100 index returns.

Statistical results for Ljung-Box tests and lag order of ARIMA models are represented in Table 2. Ljung-Box results indicate that data set is i.i.d. after fitting ARIMA models. Since oil returns at the second phase are already i.i.d. series, it is not necessary to fit the model for this series.

Model

Bivariate extreme value methodology is used in this study to investigate the dependency between stock

market and oil returns. Extreme value method is used to block extrema or exceedances to a predetermined threshold. Determining the threshold level is crucial for extreme value analysis. A low threshold level would cause selecting samples from central part of the distribution, while a high threshold level would eventuate with insufficient data and inaccurate estimates. Threshold level for our data series is determined as 10th percentile for the lowest returns and 90th percentile for the highest returns. Threshold levels are determined visually by using threshold choice plots and mean residual life plots provided in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

The dependence strength between extreme returns of ISE and oil prices is estimated by fitting joint exceedances to a bivariate extreme value distribution. Censored likelihood methodology is used for this procedure, which is described in Ledford and Tawn's (1996) study.

Dependency structure of extreme returns is computed by using logistic bivariate Generalized Pareto Distribution (GPD) model. This model is described in Mendes and Moretti (2002), Klüppelberg (2006) and Onay and Ünal (2011). Tools for computing logistic bivariate GPD model are provided in Ribatet's (2009) POT package. Summary of the model is presented below.

Following dependence function defines the logistic model:

$$A: [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1], \quad w \mapsto \left\{ (1-w)^{1/\alpha} + w^{1/\alpha} \right\}^{\alpha} \quad (1)$$

where $0 < \alpha \leq 1$. This gives the joint distribution function:

$$G(x, y) = e^{-V(x, y)} = e^{-\left(x^{-1/\alpha} + y^{-1/\alpha}\right)^{\alpha}} \quad (2)$$

for $x, y > 0$. Complete dependence is obtained when $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ and total independence is when $\alpha = 1$.

Dependency of extreme returns between oil and ISE 100 index is identified by the χ statistic of Coles et al. (1999) work.

$$\chi = 2 - V(1, 1) = 2(1 - A(0.5)) \quad (3)$$

Perfect dependence is denoted by χ -statistic getting closer to 1 and independent variables denoted by χ -statistic getting closer to 0.

EMPRICAL RESULT

Threshold levels of 10th and 90th quantiles of oil returns and ISE 100 returns indicates that there are 287 highest and 287 lowest extreme events exceeding selected thresholds out of 2865 daily returns for each phase. Results of the EVT models are presented in the following tables.

Table 3. Positive Extreme returns: ISE100 and Brent, Phase 1

Model Strength	0.017	Model Estimates:				
Deviance	331	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
Marginal Number Above	287	0.015280	0.140060	0.021210	-0.023840	0.988040
Joint Number Above	30	Standard Errors:				
Joint Number Above (3days)	92	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
		0.001278	0.060592	0.001632	0.049885	0.010456

This table shows the result of bivariate EVT from 1988 through 1999 for highest oil and ISE 100 returns at 90th quantile.

Table 4. Negative Extreme returns: ISE100 and Brent, Phase 1

Model Strength	0.008	Model Estimates:				
Deviance	412	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
Marginal Number Above	287	0.013100	0.225300	0.024190	0.054790	0.994160
Joint Number Above	31	Standard Errors:				
Joint Number Above (3days)	85	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
		0.001111	0.063740	0.001961	0.055734	0.011808

This table shows the result of bivariate EVT from 1988 through 1999 for lowest oil and ISE 100 returns at 10th quantile.

Table 3 and 4 show bivariate EVT model results, which estimates highest and lowest returns dependency between oil and stock market returns at phase 1. Independence assumption suggests that average 28.6 events would coincide on the same day at 10th and 90th quantiles. Our results show that 30 of the 287 highest returns and 31 of the lowest 287 returns happen on the same day.

Table 5. Positive Extreme returns: ISE100 and Brent, Phase 2

Model Strength	0.06	Model Estimates:				
Deviance	196	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
Marginal Number Above	287	0.012270	0.170060	0.015160	0.302630	0.956000
Joint Number Above	45	Standard Errors:				
Joint Number Above (3days)	118	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
		0.001073	0.067218	0.001414	0.075473	0.015859

This table shows the result of bivariate EVT from 2000 through 2011 for highest oil and ISE 100 returns at 90th quantile.

Table 6. Negative Extreme returns: ISE100 and Brent, Phase 2

Model Strength	0.103	Model Estimates:				
Deviance	344	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
Marginal Number Above	287	0.013970	0.194410	0.020400	0.146180	0.923800
Joint Number Above	55	Standard Errors:				
Joint Number Above (3days)	130	scale1	shape1	scale2	shape2	alpha
		0.001216	0.066207	0.001822	0.068609	0.017352

This table shows the result of bivariate EVT from 2000 through 2011 for lowest oil and ISE 100 returns at 10th quantile.

Table 5 and 6 show estimates for highest and lowest returns dependency between oil and stock market returns at phase 2. Compared to the 28.6 expected events under independence assumption, our results show that 45 of the 287 highest returns and 55 of the lowest 287 returns happen on the same day.

Oil price effect latency to stock markets is considered in extreme dependency analysis by setting a 3-day margin. This study shows that 85 of the 287 highest returns (30%) and 118 of the lowest 287 returns (41%) happen within the 3 days at the first phase, while 118 of the 287 highest returns (41%) and 130 of the lowest 287 returns (45%) happens within the 3 days at the second phase respectively. There is a considerable increase in joint number of days above the selected threshold level in the 3-day margin. The numbers in parentheses imply conditional probabilities of having an extreme daily stock market return in the coming next three days when today is an extreme day for oil returns.

In general, model strength statistics indicate that oil and ISE returns at both phases are asymptotically independent in extreme observations, which is also confirmed by χ -statistic and α parameter estimated in the models. It is not possible to speak of a dependency relationship between oil and ISE index. Bivariate extreme dependency analysis indicates that oil and ISE 100 returns have a higher dependency at the second phase, in the years from 2000 to 2011. Joint number of days exceeding selected thresholds at second phase is increased by 50 percent for the positive tail and by 77 percent for the negative tail compared to the first phase. Model strength statistics at the second phase is 3.5 times greater for the positive tail and 12.9 times greater for the negative tail, compared to the first phase. In the light of model results, increase in the oil and ISE 100 returns extreme dependency during the second phase is clearly mentioned. Negative returns for oil and ISE 100 index have a higher dependency value compared to the positive returns at the second phase. It is possible to refer negative oil price movements affect ISE 100 index more commonly compared to positive movements at the second phase.

CONCLUSION

This paper examines extreme dependency between oil prices and Turkish stock index. The data used for dependency analysis consist of daily log returns on Brent oil prices and ISE 100 index for the period between 1988 and 2011. Turkey is an emerging country that supplies nearly half of its energy requirement from crude oil. Oil is one of the major commodities for Turkey's total imports. Expanding emerging countries need oil as a source of energy for their growing industries. Their exposure to oil price fluctuations is more directly compared to developed nations. Main motive of this study is to show oil price effect in an oil dependent emerging country, such as Turkey. Researches have been done oil price and stock market relationship in the literature mainly focus on analyzing central observations, studying extreme events by employing bivariate EVT model is a first.

Results of this study reveal an asymptotic independency relationship between oil prices and ISE 100 index returns in extreme observations. Bivariate extreme dependency analysis applied to the data set by dividing data into two phases, where phase 1 and phase 2 cover the periods from 1988 to 1999 and from 2000 to 2011. Extreme dependency analysis indicates that oil and ISE 100 returns have a higher dependency at the second phase. It is also observed that negative oil price movements affect ISE 100 index more commonly compared to positive movements at the second phase. Oil price effect latency to stock markets is also examined within the study by setting a 3-day margin. Yet, the number of observed joint exceedances is quite close to the expected values under complete independence assumption.

Findings of this study, which indicates absence of extreme dependency between oil and stock market, may help portfolio managers and investors to identify better diversification opportunities. However, considering higher dependency of stock markets for negative oil price movements, diversification opportunities must be used with comprehensive thinking in the times crisis.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research is supported by Bogazici University Research Fund (D6300).

WHAT IS PROPELLING THE AMERICAN WORKER TO GO THE WAY OF THE HORSE? THE CHANGING ANATOMY OF U.S. EXPORT INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

In today's increasingly dynamic global economy, many industrialized nations are developing comparative advantages that are derived from human effort rather than natural status in their export industries. This is evidenced by a global pattern of shifting man-made comparative advantages over time. Empirical evidence seems to lend support to Wassily Leontief's findings that would later contradict the previously accepted predictions of the factor endowment theory, which suggested that nations traded internationally based on their resource dispensations (Leontief, 1954). This study is a work in progress that aimed at identifying meaningful factors that propel the development of human-based comparative advantages, and exploration of a testable theoretical framework that will aid a better understanding of the disposition of such factors for the U.S. exporting firms.

JEL: F1; L1; E0

KEY WORDS: export industry, innovation, workforce anatomy, transformation

INTRODUCTION

The utility of the horse during earlier times in human history is undeniable. Horses were used in service for man to ease burdensome tasks such as plowing fields and transportation, among several other practical uses. As society and economy evolved during the renaissance and industrial revolution periods, civilization became more advanced. Changes in society's interests and mechanism became inescapable. Horsemanship gradually transformed into an art form with the purpose of enhancing the horses' natural strength and beauty. Horses increasingly became specialized for artistic purposes as their use for practical ends was steadily replaced by Man's own growing usefulness to himself as he developed new mechanisms of accomplishing his work. Society's quest for improvement and advancement has been unrelenting throughout history. Human labor transition patterns that are comparable to those of the horse are evident around the world. The impact on the comparative advantages that nations hold is both dramatic and meaningful in international trade.

The findings of Leontief (Leontief, 1953), which are commonly referred to as "The Leontief Paradox" offer insights into the transformational changes that are unfolding in labor resources and the resulting influences on patterns of international trading among exporting nations. This study pays particular attention to U.S. exporting sector. In his study of U.S. export patterns, Leontief recognized that the U.S. seemed to have been endowed with more capital per worker than any other country in the world then. Thus, it was accepted that the US exports would have required more capital per worker than US imports (Ohlin, 1933). However, Leontief's findings seemed to indicate a different outcome. U.S. imports were 30% more capital-intensive than US exports. Subsequent investigations would reaffirm the findings (Leontief, 1956 and Robert Baldwin, 1971).

Leontief himself suggested an explanation for his own paradox. He argued that U.S. workers may be more efficient than foreign workers. Assuming that Countries around the world have identical technologies, Leontief attributed the superior efficiency of American labor to superior **economic organization** and **economic incentives** in the U.S. The U.S. workforce anatomy, similar to other advanced economies around the world, is trending in a steady shift in demand away from a less skilled toward a more skill-intensive workforce. Remarkable technological advances are shaping the way production is accomplished. It follows that the level of skill that many jobs now require is technology based. While full obsolescent is doubtful, human labor independent of skills is becoming less useful in compared to previous periods. Knowledge and skills are much more important in production today. This trend has produced dramatic changes in workforce anatomy and consequently comparative advantages held by nations. United States is among several advanced economies that are abundant in human capital (highly educated and trained workers) and export human capital intensive products.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A Discussion of Explanatory Factors

If in fact the superiority of the U.S. workforce is the outcome of maturity in economic organization and growing incentives as suggested by Leontief and several more scholars, then it is granted that such status could be retained, improved, or lost, over time. Also then, the ability to achieve and retain a superior status would depend on the ability to affect the required and appropriate measures, and implement the needed economic policy actions. If the Leontief paradox sustains, it follows that the anatomy of the U.S. export industry workforce, and consequently export products will adjust to reflect changes in superiority status. Dr. Nam Pham's (2010) study on intellectual property-intensive (IP intensive) industries in the U.S.—such as life sciences, software, and aerospace shows that IP-intensive industries succeed globally, drive innovation, and invest heavily in research and development.

This, in turn, grows the economy by creating jobs and driving exports in a variety of different careers and trades, both blue collar and white collar (Pham, 2010). U.S. Census Bureau statistics indicate that over the period 2000-2008 approximately 60% of jobs in U.S. export industry were in IP-intensive industries, which are a type of human capital-intensive industry. Nam Pham's study also pointed out the role of IP-intensive industries in creation of new tradable products and services for the U.S. IP-intensive industries made up nearly half of output and sales of all 27 U.S. tradable industries and employed more than 30% of American workers in these industries. More important, IP-intensive industries accounted for approximately 60% of total U.S. exports—rising from \$665 billion in 2000 to \$910 billion in 2007. During this time period, American firms exported an annual average \$405.5 billion of IP-intensive products versus \$278.1 billion of non-IP-intensive products.

The impact of labor market trends on international trade around the world, and certainly for the U.S. is clear. Most of the overall shift in U.S. labor demand in manufacturing since the early 1980s has more to do with change in skill demands from less skill-intensive to more skill-intensive. Having made this recognition, this study seeks develop a conceptual framework that is useful in the understanding and investigation of organizational and incentive factors that are facilitating the necessary workforce and consequent product transformations in America's export industries main purpose of this study .

THE MODEL DESIGN

The process through which exporting firms respond to national organizational advantages and incentives to develop dynamism forms part of the general features of the firm's operational objective. To better understand the role and nature of the organizational advantages and industry incentives, we need to examine the composite model of these processes. In this regard, this paper offers a simple model that can be applied to appropriate data. It is conceived to explore suitable specifications that would be helpful for determining policies towards a sustainable strong export performance.

Conceptually, two classifications of factors that influence the export industry workforce anatomy and export product type exist, namely, firm incentives and degree of economic organization. These coincide with industry specific and economy wide realms respectively. Incentives for exporting firms constitute of factors that encourage innovative transformation within exporting firms. Examples of these are profit or compensational gains, increased market share, spill overs and reputational benefits (Davis and Jerome, 2004), strength of copyright and patent legislation, degree of restrictiveness of industrial regulation, level of inter-industry rivalry (Sastry, 2005), strong industry-government research and development partnerships, and adaptability of the labor force.

Ezeala-Harrison's work on macroeconomic factors that influence competitiveness in firms presents a useful definition of the economy wide factors. He describes these as generally made up of supportive institutional arrangements and infrastructure facilities. Institutional factors include the variables of government policy actions. Examples are such as tax policy, labor market policy, exchange rate regime adopted, and financial sector regulatory or deregulatory policies, and the existence and adequacy of infrastructure. There also are the availability (or stability) of other institutional parameters such as legal, educational, health and para-medical, and financial infrastructure. The degree of "economic liberalization" provided and allowed by the country's authorities, and existence of adequate institutional framework in a country are crucial factors that influence innovative transformations in the export industries. These factors, however, hang largely on the political and (ideological) leaning of the country's authorities and policy makers. These policies usually remain fairly unchanged over time. These economy wide parameters are considered as qualitative in nature, in the sense that they are given (or constant) over time, and work to provide the ultimate background conditions on which individual firms can respond to incentives that are specific to the industries they occupy (Ezeala-Harrison, 2010).

Ezeala elaborates on the meaning and significance of economic liberalization in trade. It is the package of measures designed to direct an economy away from restrictive regulatory and central control, toward a free-market based system which is based on competition, deregulation, and enhanced private-sector. Among the conceivably several major parameters of economic liberalization, two of the most cogent ones are the country's: (i) trade liberalization (or free trade) policy, and (ii) currency exchange rate regime (stable, flexible, and moderate exchange rate level). Other parameters of economic liberalization such as degree of privatization, deregulation, and centralization are equally important, and various indices could be employed to measure their levels to assess the degree of economic liberalization. These two are selected only on the basis of their being relatively easy to keep track of explicitly.

Formulation of the Conceptual Framework

Again, the determining factors that influence changes in the composition of the labor force and nature of export products can be broadly categorized as: existing incentives for exporting firms and the degree of

economic organization of the country. Each category can be further decomposed into definitive variables that are specific to the export industry and those that involve the conditioning and supportive institutional arrangements and infrastructure. The basis for a testable formulation of the links between export industry innovative transformation and these determinant factors is a model that assumes similar capital endowments across countries (Leontief, 1953) and involves the level of labor utilization, and efficiency of allocation of resources (labor). Competitive export firms will seek to effectively utilize resources in the most efficient manner relative to others under conditions of equal capital endowment. Thus, a composite magnitude of total labor efficiency growth rate and product value changes over time constitutes the quantitative measure of export strength as it indicates the combined effect of the effectiveness of the firms resource utilization and resultant (exported) product value (which may also translate to product type transformation)

The mathematical depiction is as follows:

$$Comp. \{ \alpha(K/L) + Prod. / t \}^{\Delta} = f \Delta^{\mu} X + \beta Z \quad (1)$$

where,

α = a multiplicative factor that estimates the degree of relative worker skill level under the equal capital endowment assumption.

K = Capital endowment measure

L = Measure of Labor quantity

Prod. Δ = product changes

Δt = change in time

X = firm incentives parameters

Z = organizational parameters qualitative

β, λ = weighting indexes of the degree of respective parameters,

This simplistic model helps to formulate some testable predictions about innovative transformation in exporting firms. It provides a framework that links innovative transformation to key determinant variables. With the aid of this model, an empirical framework can be constructed testing the strength of that linkage.

DISCUSSION OF POLICY IMPLICATION AND SUMMARY

With a more robust understanding of the determinant incentive and organizational factors that influence the U.S. export industry anatomy, a strategy to improve the potential for sustainable and meaningful transformation can be shaped. A more accurate identification and measurement of the determinant factors is crucial milestone in effective policy prescription at the economy wide level and strategic management

at the firm level as America restructures its exports to in response to the shifting advantages that necessitate industrial transformation.

It is anticipated that the empirical testing of the proposed model will result in conclusive study design that can be applied to a carefully selected data for the U.S. export sector, and also lead to insights for policy prescription.

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RISK FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SURVIVAL OF STRATEGIC ALLIANCES AMONG SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES IN KENYA: EVIDENCE FROM KISUMU DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT

Between a half and two-thirds of strategic alliances formed by Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) often fail to realize their purpose due to a gamut of unmitigated risk factors. Most studies on strategic alliances and associated risks have been conducted in developed economies, leaving Sub-Sahara Africa (SSA) with a dearth of academic literature. Using the Kenyan case, this study sheds light on risk factors influencing the survival of SME alliances in the SSA. Primary data was sourced from 120 SMEs involved in strategic alliances. I applied both quantitative and qualitative techniques to process and analyze the data. Results indicate that the survival of SME alliances is a function of factors such as proportion of skilled staff, explaining up to 8.7 percent of variance, transportation cost (8.1%), information sharing (7.5%), level of trust among partners (6.6%) and integration of computers to support business activities (5.5%). In conclusion, SME strategic alliances remain risky ventures, requiring a concerted effort of all stakeholders to initiate appropriate mitigative measures to avert economic losses resulting from alliance failure. Among other recommendations, the study underscores the need for SSA governments to provide tax incentives, improve infrastructure and explore cheaper energy alternatives.

JEL: O16

KEYWORDS: Risk, Risk Factors, Small and Medium Enterprises, Alliance Survival, Alliance Failure

INTRODUCTION

The role of SMEs in employment creation, poverty reduction and industrialization has been documented in economic blue prints and empirical research world over (Abaka & Mayer, 1994; Atieno, 2001). According to Olutunla and Obamuyi (2008), SMEs provide more employment per unit of capital investment than large-scale enterprises. In Kenya, recent statistics show that SMEs create employment for about 70 percent of the national workforce, contributing up to 22 percent of Gross Domestic Products (GDP) (Mbithi & Mainga, 2006; Atieno, 2009). However, globalization forces, technological advancement and competition constantly threaten the contribution of SMEs in national development. To secure their survival, SMEs are increasingly initiating strategic alliances, which enable them to reduce production costs, acquire knowledge, as well as access new technology, financial resources and labour (Das & Teng, 2001; Ireland, Hitt & Vaidyanath, 2002; Li & Malin, 2009; Alders, van Liere, Berendsen & Ineke, 2010).

Even though strategic alliances have been attractive to SMEs, between 50 and 60 percent often, fail to realize the expectations of their crafters (Reuer, 1999; Das & Teng, 2001; Alders *et al.*, 2010). High failure rates of SME alliances have been associated with various forms of risk factors, arising from inter-firm relations, firm capacity and firm-environment interaction (Das & Teng, 1998; 2001; Ireland, *et al.*, 2002; Chi, 2005; Li & Malin, 2009; Alders *et al.*, 2010; Long & Zhai, 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW

In management, a risk is an unanticipated negative variation between set targets and actual achievement (Kogut, 1988; Das & Teng, 1998; 2001). According to Miller (1992), the concept of risk refers to factors that are either internal or external to alliance firms, which impede the realization of targets. Influenced by Miller's thoughts, Das and Teng (1998) came up with two broad categories of risks within the context of strategic alliances, viz. relational and performance.

Relational and Performance Risks

Relational risk is concerned with poor or non-adherence of alliance partners to documented regulations governing their behaviors and relations (Das & Teng, 1999; 2001; Elmuti & Kathawala, 2001). Perpetuation of opportunistic tendencies such as dishonesty, shirking, distortion of information, as well as poaching partners' skills, clients or personnel are manifestations of relational risk (Das & Teng, 1999; 2001; Elmuti & Kathawala, 2001; Alders *et al.*, 2010; Long & Zhai, 2010). Das and Teng (2001) assert that relational risk is inevitable in strategic alliances, but emphasize the importance of 'trust' and 'control' for strategic alliances to survive and realize their purpose. Whereas 'trust' was considered a means to reducing perceived risks, control is an active measure taken to reduce such risks. Similarly, Long and Zhai (2010) contend that trust and commitment form the foundation of strategic alliances, manifested through information sharing, technology; as well as equitable sharing of costs and profits.

Performance risk is the probability that an alliance may fail to achieve its targets even when partners commit themselves fully. Performance risk is a function of institutional capacity factors such as staff competency, capitalization level and integration of ICT; as well as business environmental factors such as competition, taxation, cost of raw materials, transportation and energy, among others (Das & Teng, 1998; 2001; Li & Malin, 2009; Alders *et al.*, 2010). Strategic alliances can distribute performance risk among partners, for instance, by sharing expenditure, resources, skills and technology (Das & Teng, 2001). Thus, the synergy created by strategic alliances is a partial remedy for performance risk. However, not all strategic alliances have the potential to create synergy, as some partners may be deficient in terms of institutional capacity, leading to poor performance (Das & Teng, 1998).

Unlike relational risk, performance risk exists in all business enterprises, irrespective of their involvement in strategic alliances. Besides, the two risk types are independent and have no specific pattern of correlation. Hence, alliance partners can enjoy good relations despite poor financial performance (Das & Teng, 1998; 2001; Alders *et al.*, 2010).

Most empirical studies on strategic alliances and inherent risks focus on developed economies of Western Europe, North America, Australia and South-East Asia. Crotts and Wilson (2005) noted that although relational and performance risks form a crucial dimension for understanding strategic alliances, risk considerations are yet to receive adequate attention in academic research, particularly in developing economies. This study was conducted to determine risk factors significantly associated with the survival of SME strategic alliances; determine the influence of risk factors on the intention of alliance partners to stay on or pull out of their alliances; as well as assess mitigative measures initiated by SMEs.

In this study, I measured relational risk in terms of the willingness of partners to share information and share expenditure, extent of staff bonding and the level of trust between alliance partners. Besides, I measured performance risk in terms of firm size, ownership structure and integration of computers to

support business activities; as well as level of demand for alliance products/services, taxation level, transportation and energy costs. Also captured were intermediate risk factors such as prevalence of conflict between partners, availability of conflict resolution mechanisms, alliance age, change in revenue, type of business activities and the location of premises.

Resource-Based View of Strategic Alliances

The Resource Dependency Theory (RDT) postulates that a firm's competitive advantage is founded on its internally-available resources, including tangible assets such as premises, machinery, human and financial resources; as well as intangible assets such as technology, skills, managerial expertise and reputation, among others (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1995; Das & Teng, 1998). Das and Teng (1998) categorize firm's internal resources into four, viz. financial, technological, physical and managerial. Combinations of the four broad resource types are indispensable for firms to build competitive advantage (Chi, 1994). However, most firms are not self-sufficient; those experiencing a shortage of any form of strategic resources are likely to reach out to other firms holding complementary resources to secure their survival (Barney, 1991; Das & Teng, 1998; 2001). Strategic alliances permit firms to access resources, which they do not possess, but which are necessary for its performance and survival. However, firms can only realize synergy when they seek to combine complementary rather than supplementary resources (Harrison, Hitt, Hoskisson and Ireland, 1991).

METHODOLOGY

Data

I sourced data from 120 SMEs involved in strategic alliances for at least 3 years. Inclusion in the sample was based on availability of complete accounting records for the immediate trading period; willingness of managers/owners to avail such financial records; and acceptance to be interviewed.

Model

Bivariate analysis generated cross-tabulations with Chi-square (χ^2) statistic, while at the multivariate level; I applied binary logistic regression to determine the influence of individual risk factors on the alliance survival. The model is often expressed in the form: -

$$\text{Logit } [\theta(Y)] = \log \left(\frac{\theta(Y)}{1 - \theta(Y)} \right) = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_i X_i + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

Where: Y = the predicted variable (*alliance survival*); $\theta(Y)$ = the probability of an SME staying on; $1 - \theta(Y)$ = the probability of an SME pulling out; a = constant term of the equation; $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_i$ = regression coefficients associated with independent variables; X_1, X_2, \dots, X_i = independent variables and ε = the error term.

Qualitative data were processed and analyzed following three steps, including listing of responses under key thematic areas; description to produce a preliminary report; systematic analysis and interpretation. Publications such as Nachmias and Nachmias (1996), as well as Bryman and Cramer (1997) provide details of the design and approaches used in this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Strategic alliances were formed with various types of organizations, including competitors (56%), customers (16%), suppliers (12%), financial institutions (8%), educational institutions (5%) and government research institutions (3%). In addition, up to 97 (80.8%) SMEs were collaborating with only one partner, 22 (18.3%) had two partners, while one SME had formed an alliance with more than two partners. This study focused on the most recently formed strategic alliances, aged at least 3 years. Furthermore, strategic alliances were created for various reasons, listed in table 1 below.

Table 1: Reasons for Engaging in Strategic Alliances

VALID RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT OF CASES
Improve revenue	71	59.2
Access technology	11	9.2
Raise capital	79	65.8
Share distribution channels	29	24.2
Ensure steady flow of raw materials/supplies	43	35.8
Counter competition from larger firms	54	45.0
Reduce competition	22	18.3
Train staff	17	14.2
Develop more efficient production methods	11	9.2
TOTAL	337	280.8

This table shows the reasons why SMEs in Kisumu District, Kenya engaged in strategic alliances. It is a multiple response table, showing frequency distribution and corresponding percent of cases, which in this case, was 120 SME managers/owners. The main reasons why SMEs engaged in strategic alliances included the need to raise capital, improve revenue, counter competition from larger firms, ensure a steady flow of raw materials or supplies, and share marketing distribution channels.

The longevity of strategic alliances is an important dimension of how well they are likely to achieve the expectations of collaborating firms. Alliances that fail to live up to the expected duration are less likely to be successful in realizing the purpose for which they were created. In view of this, 55 percent of the 120 SMEs intended to remain in their alliances for at least 5 years, while 45 percent intended to pull out within the same duration.

Bivariate Analysis Results

Bivariate analysis was used to determine the presence or lack of a significant relationship between alliance survival and selected risk factors. The results presented in table 2 below, indicate that the survival of SME alliances was significantly associated with risk factors such as information sharing, sharing expenditure, extent of staff bonding and level of trust.

Table 2: Association between Alliance Survival and Risk Factors

RISK TYPE	RISK FACTORS	SUMMARY OF CHI SQUARE (χ^2) RESULTS		
		CALCULATED χ^2	DF	SIG.
Relational	Information sharing	6.742	2	0.034**
	Sharing expenditure	24.297	2	0.000***
	Extent of staff bonding	7.495	2	0.024**
	Level of trust	10.020	2	0.007***
Performance	Firm size	14.123	6	0.028**
	Ownership structure	8.243	2	0.016**
	Integration of computers	6.810	1	0.009***
	Proportion of skilled staff	16.186	5	0.006***
	Demand level	10.549	2	0.005***
	Taxation level	8.952	2	0.011**
	Transportation cost	9.001	2	0.011**
	Energy cost	6.059	2	0.048**

Intermediate	Conflict prevalence	11.870	2	0.003***
	Conflict resolution mechanism	7.129	1	0.004***
	Alliance age	2.081	3	0.556
	Change in revenue	58.204	2	0.000***
	Type of business activities	15.982	11	0.142
	Location of premises	0.825	1	0.364

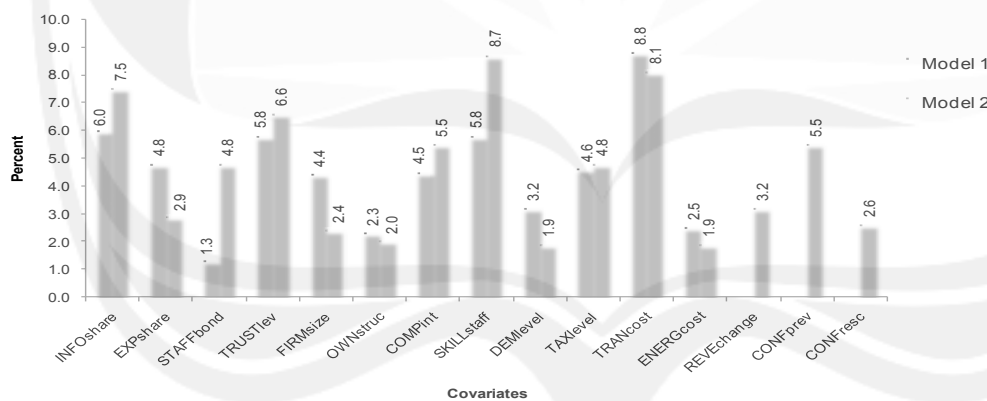
This table presents a summary of χ^2 results, calculated from cross tabulation analysis between alliance survival and risk factors. The column labeled CALCULATED χ^2 is comparable to table χ^2 values. DF stands for degrees of freedom, while SIG. indicates the statistical significance of association between the risk factors and alliance survival. ***, ** and * shows the level of significance at 1, 5 and 10 percent respectively.

The survival of SME alliances was also significantly associated with performance risk factors such as firm size, ownership structure, integration of computers, proportion of skilled staff, level of demand, taxation level, transport cost and energy cost; as well as intermediate factors, such as frequency of conflict, availability of a conflict resolution mechanisms and revenue change.

Multivariate Analysis Results

Appendix A presents the results on odds ratios or $Exp(\beta)$ and partial regression co-efficients. The predictive power of binary logistic regression models is indicated by the -2Log Likelihood (-2LL) statistic. Each model generates an initial -2LL (chance model); the unit change in the value of -2LL statistic each time a covariate is added represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable, explained by that covariate. Figure 1 shows the covariates included in models 1 and 2, and the proportion of variance in the survival of SME alliances accounted for by each.

Figure 1: Proportion of Variance in Alliance Survival Explained by Risk Factors



The proportion of variance accounted for by each risk factor (covariate) was obtained from the unit change in -2LL statistic corresponding with the addition of each covariate. INFOshare stands for information sharing between partners; EXPshare = expenditure sharing; STAFFbond = extent to which staff of alliance partners had bonded. TRUSTlev = level of trust among alliance partners; FIRMsize = number of paid workers; OWNstruc = ownership structure; COMPint = integration of computers; and SKILLstaff = proportion of skilled staff. DEMlevel = demand level for products offered by an alliance; TAXlevel = taxation level; TRANcost = transportation cost; ENERGcost = energy cost; REVEchange = change in revenue; CONFprev = prevalence of conflict, and CONFresc = availability of conflict resolution committee.

In model 1, the willingness of partners to share information accounted for up to 6 percent of variance in alliance survival. However, when the model is adjusted to include intermediate covariates, the proportion of variance accounted for by the covariate scales-up to 7.5 percent. Improvement in information sharing reduced the likelihood of partners pulling out, which in turn, increased the odds of alliance survival. However, most firms would not be free to share their critical information such as product formulae or

marketing secrets, without guaranteed security of such information. Besides, protectiveness of information only reinforces distrust, which in turn, may constrain alliance survival.

The willingness of partners to share expenditure accounted for 4.8 percent of variance in alliance survival, as indicated by model 1. However, the inclusion of intermediate variables reduced the proportion of variance accounted for by the risk factor to 2.9 percent. An increasing willingness of partners to share expenditure reduces the likelihood of SMEs pulling out; thus, increases the odds of alliance survival. Expenditure sharing is particularly important for enhancing commitment and SME managers/owners should consider it before initiating alliances.

Model 2 shows that the extent of staff bonding explained up to 4.8 percent up from 1.3 percent in model 1. As bonding improves among staff of alliance partners, the likelihood of SMEs pulling out reduces. Thus, the higher the bonding among staff, the better the survival chance of such alliances, and vice versa. Poor bonding among staff may be perpetuated by factors such as negative attitudes, gossip, stigmatization and competition. It must be noted that strategic alliances bring with it sudden changes, which may disrupt usual work routines. Establishing a strategic alliance is process of change that is associated with anxiety and uncertainty. Effective management of change is critical for helping staff of alliance partners to bond and work as a team, where members treat each other with respect and where members feel secure, respected and trusted. However, starting and sustaining change among staff members requires creative leadership that is able to inspire people through positive behaviour, ethics and values. Staff bonding may also be expedited through informal spheres where staff members can interact freely to water down communication and ideological 'glass walls'.

The level of trust between alliance partners explained up to 6.6 percent of variance in alliance survival, up from 5.8 percent in model 1. An increasing level of trust among alliance partners directly corresponded with the likelihood of SMEs pulling out. In other words, the higher the level of trust, the better the survival chance for such alliances, and vice versa. The challenge faced by alliance partners is how to nurture and sustain trust amongst themselves. In this regard, SME managers/owners face the challenge of balancing between alliance and firm-specific interests, without compromising trust. Opportunistic behaviors are the most common threats to trust levels between or among alliance partners, which in turn, reduces the odds of alliance survival.

Firm size, measured in terms of the number of paid workers, accounted for 4.4 percent of variance in alliance survival. However, when the model is adjusted for intermediate variables, the proportion of variance accounted for in the survival of alliances reduced marginally to 2.4 percent. An increase in staffing level resulted to a stronger institutional capacity, which in turn, improved the odds of alliance survival. Although staffing level is an important risk factor influencing the odds of alliance survival in Kenya, other key parameters such as performance management, training and welfare remain critical for enhancing institutional capacity. Moreover, the proportion of skilled staff explained up to 8.7 percent of variance in alliance survival, up from 5.8 percent in model 1. As the proportion of skilled staff increases, the level of performance risk reduces and so is the likelihood of SMEs pulling out of their alliances. Hence, the higher the proportion of skilled staff, the better the odds of alliance survival.

In model 2, ownership structure explained up to 2 percent of variance in alliance survival, down from 2.3 percent in model 1. Alliances crafted by sole proprietors had a lower survival chance than alliances involving limited companies, the main separating factors being capitalization and staffing level, as well as systems, structures and physical resource capacity. Hence, SMEs are better-off establishing strategic

alliances with limited companies than sole proprietorships. Furthermore, SMEs should consider initiating alliances with firms that have integrated computers in their business activities. Model 2 shows that integration of computers accounted for 5.5 percent of variance in alliance survival. The initiative reduced performance risk, and by extension, increased the odds of alliance survival.

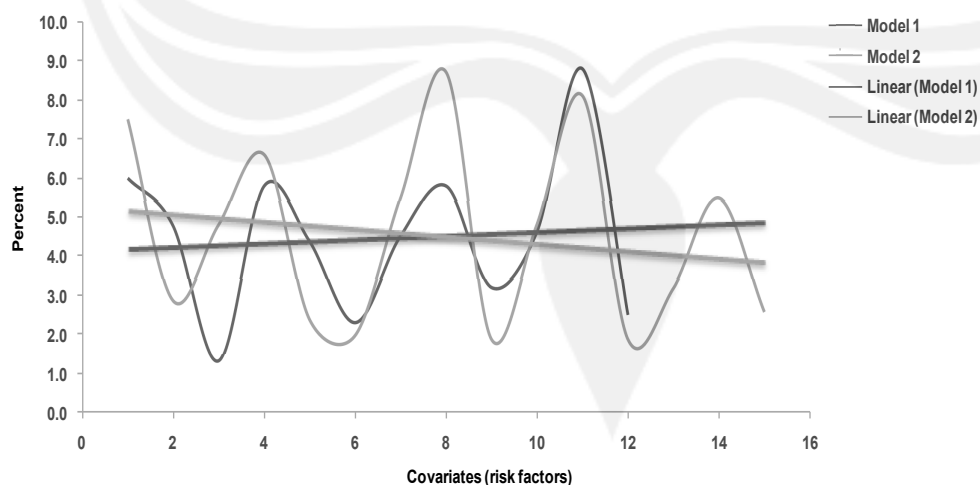
Furthermore, the level of demand for alliance products/services accounted for 1.9 percent of variance in alliance survival. An increasing level of demand inversely corresponds with the likelihood of SMEs pulling out and directly corresponds with the odds of alliance survival. Sustaining demand for alliance products/services through diversified marketing channels remains a critical option that SME alliances should consider to improve their survival chance. In addition, taxation level accounted for 4.8 percent of variance – a marginal increase from 4.6 percent in model 1. The higher the perceived taxation level the lower the odds of alliance survival. Nevertheless, the perceived level of taxation depends on the extent to which products/services have been established in the market. An established product/service is likely to defray taxation charges more than one that is yet to establish. Although SSA governments bear the responsibility of tax regulation, SME alliances should focus on establishing their products/services to improve returns; thus, lighten taxation burden and improve alliance survival chance.

In model 1, transportation cost accounted for 8.8 percent of variance in alliance survival. However, this scaled down to 8.1 percent in model 2. Increment in transportation cost resulted to a higher level of performance risk, which in turn, reduced the survival chance for SME alliances. Transportation cost remains a critical element influencing the survival of SME alliances in Kenya.

Model 2 shows that energy cost accounted for up to 1.9 percent of variance in alliance survival, down from 2.5 percent. As energy cost escalates, performance risks also increase, which in turn, reduces the odds of alliance survival.

To determine the explanatory power of the two models, the covariates were plotted on a scatter-gram, as indicated in figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Distribution of Covariates



This figure shows the distribution of covariates on a scatter-gram, which was also used to generate best-fit lines and co-efficient of determination R^2 , representing the predictive power of the model. The linear equation for model 1 is $y=0.049x + 4.181$, with $R^2=0.540$. For model 2, the resultant linear equation was $y=0.093x + 5.309$, with $R^2= 0.684$.

The scatter-gram also provides best-fit lines and co-efficients of determination (R^2). In this regard, model 1 explained up to 54 percent of variance in the survival of SME alliances, while model 2, which incorporated intermediate factors, predicted up to 68.4 percent of variance. This implies that up to 31.6 percent of variance may be explained by other variables not included in model 2.

Risk Management Practices

Table 3 below, presents the measures initiated by SMEs to manage as well as cope with relational and performance risks. In this regard, 73 percent of the respondents cited legalization as the most important mitigative measure. SME strategic alliances were legalized through contracts and memoranda of understanding; spelling out terms of engagement; responsibility, liability and profit sharing; as well as frequency of review meetings and follow-up mechanisms. Legalization of alliances was particularly useful in enhancing commitment among partners as well as regulating opportunistic behaviors. However, non-adherence to documented agreements by some partners was still a cause for concern. Consequently, up to 45 percent of the firms intended to pull out of their alliances.

Furthermore, 53 percent mentioned joint planning as the key strategy used to manage risks by watering down ideological ‘glass walls’, as well as filling up ideological gaps. Joint planning entailed activities such risk assessment, market surveys as well as analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT). Joint planning also included projection of demand levels, market prices, market growth and revenues. Through joint planning effective financial control and reporting systems were established and so were exit strategies. Up to 50 percent of the firms initiated regular review meetings to share their experiences, monitor progress as well as address emerging risks to enhance the odds of alliance survival and excellence.

Table 3: Risk Management Practices

VALID RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENT OF CASES
Diversification	18	15.0
Partner complementarity	27	22.5
Legalization of alliances	88	73.3
Regular review meetings	60	50.0
Cost-sharing	51	42.5
Joint planning	64	53.3
Competition reduction	14	11.7
Special management structures	21	17.5
Conflict resolution mechanisms	37	30.8
TOTAL	380	316.7

This table shows measures initiated by SMEs involved in strategic alliances to mitigate or cope with relational and performance risks. This is a multiple response table, showing the frequency distribution of responses and corresponding percent of cases. The study involved 120 SME managers/owners.

About 31 percent of the alliances established conflict resolution committees to address all forms of dispute and enforce behavior control. In the opinion of SME managers/owners, conflict resolution committees were most effective in curbing opportunistic behaviors among errant alliance partners. Partner complementarity was also identified as a mitigative strategy against risks. In this regard, 23 percent of the SMEs were keen to select partners who were complementary in terms of resources, skills and technology to avoid overlaps and gaps. However, when requested to rate their satisfaction with their choice of partners, up to 67 percent expressed dissatisfaction, the reason being the difficulty of finding complementary partners among SMEs.

In addition, 18 percent of the alliances created special management structures run by a team of skilled and experienced staff selected by both partners. Besides, 15 percent of the SMEs initiated alliances with multiple partners to diversify risks by sharing the cost of projects, considered to be of high risk. Such alliances were instrumental in lowering a firm's risk exposure. Finally, up to 12 percent of the alliances employed various measures to avoid competition between/amongst partners, including giving away some market areas, demarcating market boundaries, selling each other's products and coming up with jointly branded products.

CONCLUSIONS

The formation of strategic alliances does not necessarily guarantee the success of collaborating firms. Besides, the failure of such alliances portends far-reaching economic consequences, not only for the firms involved, but also for SSA economies. Although strategic alliances are critical for the survival of SMEs, they remain risky ventures that require adequate preparation in terms of appropriate mitigative measures; thus, avert losses that may occur in the event of alliance failure. In addition, SSA governments bear a big chunk of responsibility in mitigating risk factors emanating from the business environment, particularly, taxation, infrastructure and alternative energy sources. Equally important, is the improvement programs intended to support the development of SMEs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents recommendations for SMEs as well as key stakeholders such as governments, trade unions and non-governmental organizations.

Recommendations for SMEs

1. Establish joint secretariats to plan and execute all decisions made by alliance partners. The secretariat shall also monitor, evaluate and report performance to partners during review meetings.
2. Improve information sharing by identifying and training specific staff to handle shared information; creating special security facilities to handle classified information and legal restraints for partners who may abuse shared information.
3. Initiate team-building activities such as games, tree planting and environmental clean up, among others to expedite staff bonding and foster teamwork.
4. Recognize and reward staff members who perform exceedingly well in their work, leadership positions or in terms of behaviour. Small acts of positive behavior among staff should be amplified for emulation.

Recommendations for Governments and Stakeholders

1. Provide tax incentives through temporary exemptions or abolition of unnecessary taxes for SME alliances to improve production capacity and survival in hyper-competitive markets.
2. Explore cheaper energy alternatives such as solar, wind and geothermal power to reduce overdependence on hydro-electricity, which is too expensive and constraining performance.

3. Improve road network by increasing the coverage of all-weather roads and maintaining rural access roads to reduce transportation cost; thus improve performance and alliance survival.
4. Establish SME assistance centres at the County level, with key functions such as promoting the development of SMEs, creating necessary linkages, training, research and dissemination. Such centres should be modeled after the Small Business Developments Centers of the United States or Technology Centers in Netherlands.
5. Develop appropriate curriculum on strategic alliances and encourage all tertiary educational institutions, particularly those accredited to provide Technical, Industrial, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TIVET) programs to incorporate and implement the curriculum.

LIMITATIONS

At the time of this study, the idea of strategic alliances among SMEs was fairly a new concept in Kisumu District; hence, the difficulty of finding data on registered SME alliances. This gap constrained the sample size used in this study. Also limiting the sample size was lack of complete and consistent accounting records among SMEs. Although the study was conducted nearly a decade ago, this paper serves as a stimulus for more research on the subject, particularly in the SSA.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am grateful to my supervisors: Prof. L. Simpson and Dr. R. Hinds who gave me invaluable guidance throughout the research process. I'm indebted to all SME managers/owners who volunteered their time to provide the information contained in this paper. Finally, I thank my colleagues; Tom Odhiambo and Paul Odundo for reviewing and validating the contents of this paper.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Summary Results of Binary Logistic Regression

COVARIATES	MODEL 1				MODEL 2			
	β	S.E.	ρ	Exp(β)	β	S.E.	ρ	Exp(β)
INFOshare								
Poor	1.82	0.02	0.00*	6.17	1.83	0.02	0.00*	6.23
Fair	1.57	0.00	0.00*	4.81	1.55	0.01	0.01**	4.70
Good (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
EXPshare								
Poor	1.55	0.33	0.02**	4.71	1.53	0.23	0.01**	4.61
Fair	1.32	0.13	0.04**	3.74	1.30	0.12	0.03**	3.66
Good (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
STAFFbond								
Poor	1.62	0.34	0.01**	5.05	1.60	0.34	0.01**	4.94
Fair	1.04	0.32	0.03**	2.83	1.02	0.30	0.03**	2.77
Good (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
TRUSTlev								
Low	0.61	0.23	0.01**	1.84	0.59	0.22	0.01**	1.80
Fair	0.19	0.41	0.06***	1.21	0.17	0.41	0.17	1.18
High (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
FIRMsize								
No paid workers	2.02	1.80	0.00*	7.51	1.99	1.79	0.00*	7.34
1 to 9 workers	1.49	1.26	0.00*	4.41	1.46	1.27	0.00*	4.32
10 to 19 workers	1.02	0.80	0.01*	2.78	1.00	0.80	0.01**	2.72
20 to 29 workers	0.77	0.55	0.04**	2.17	0.75	0.24	0.03**	2.12
30 to 39 workers	0.01	0.21	0.24	1.01	-0.01	0.21	0.12	0.99
40 workers+ (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
OWNstruc								
S/ proprietorship	1.07	0.84	0.01**	2.90	1.04	0.71	0.08***	2.84
Partnership	0.03	0.19	0.42	1.03	0.01	0.19	0.37	1.01
Ltd company (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
COMPint								
Using computers	-0.02	0.24	0.03**	0.98	-0.05	0.18	0.03**	0.96
No computers (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
SKILLstaff								

<10%	2.13	1.90	0.00*	8.37	2.10	0.76	0.00*	8.19
10-29%	2.06	1.84	0.00*	7.85	2.04	1.84	0.00*	7.68
30-49%	1.67	1.45	0.00*	5.33	1.65	1.45	0.01**	5.21
50-69%	0.41	0.19	0.07***	1.51	0.39	1.19	0.04**	1.48
70%+ (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
DEMlevel								
Poor	1.38	0.31	0.01**	3.99	1.36	0.30	0.02**	3.90
Fair	1.06	0.48	0.03**	2.89	1.04	0.47	0.03**	2.82
High (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
TAXlevel								
Too high	2.02	1.80	0.00*	7.52	2.00	1.82	0.00*	7.36
High	1.61	1.39	0.00*	5.01	1.59	1.39	0.01**	4.90
Fair (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
TRANcost								
Too high	1.55	1.33	0.00*	4.70	1.53	1.32	0.00*	4.60
High	1.33	1.10	0.03**	3.76	1.30	0.10	0.01**	3.68
Fair (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx
ENERGcost								
Too high	1.15	0.93	0.00*	3.16	1.13	0.78	0.00*	3.09
High	1.00	0.78	0.03**	2.73	0.98	0.78	0.04**	2.67
Fair (RC)	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx	xxxx

*This table presents the results of binary logistic regression, through which two models were generated, the first model incorporated relational and performance risk factors only, while model 2 included relational and performance risk factors as well as intermediate risk factors. The column labeled β represents the regression co-efficients, the column labeled S.E. represents the standard error associated with the regression co-efficients, p column represents the significance of variation between the co-efficients, while $Exp(\beta)$ column presents the odds ratios. Furthermore, RC stands for Reference Category, while ***, ** and * shows significance level at 1, 5 and 10 percent, respectively.*

FORGIVENESS AS A LEADERSHIP TOOL

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ABSTRACT

Forgiveness is a topic that is seldom discussed in organizations. This paper brings to light the kind of role forgiveness can play in organizations. This paper shows the different benefits that forgiveness can bring into an organization and also how forgiveness can be used in practice. Forgiveness brings many benefits at the individual employee level, dyad level, team level and organizational level. Conflicts, misunderstandings, losing trust and crises are all things that happen in companies. Forgiveness can be used as a tool to solve these issues. Therefore forgiveness can be seen as a leadership and employee wellbeing tool. This paper is a literature review.

KEY WORDS: forgiveness, forgiveness at work, leadership, employee wellbeing

INTRODUCTION

Forgiveness is seldom discussed at the work place even though there are lots of situations in which forgiveness could be a very useful tool. As Aquino et al. (2003) point out, once people work together there are endless opportunities to offend or harm others intentionally or unintentionally. The quality of healing harmed and broken relationships within organizations influences the success of a business and the nature of work life (Madsen et al. 2009). According to Aquino et al. (2003) forgiveness should be an important concern for both organizational theorist and practicing managers because it is a way for individuals to repair damaged workplace relationships, and overcome debilitating thoughts and emotions resulting from interpersonal injury. Davidhizar and Laurent (2000) point out that the ability to forgive is important for success in management. Forgiveness can be a motivational transformation that inclines managers to inhibit relationship-destructive responses and to behave constructively towards a person who has in turn acted destructively towards them. The goal of this literature review paper is to show how forgiveness can be used as a leadership tool. Initially it discusses different definitions of forgiveness. The next section explains the benefits of forgiving at different levels of an organization. Also the consequences of failing to forgive at work are discussed. Lastly this paper gives practical models and guidelines for how forgiveness can be implemented in an organization. The final section includes the conclusion summing up the key points of this paper.

Definitions of Forgiveness

There are several definitions of forgiveness. A possible starting point in forgiving others is for the forgiving person to realize that he/she has been hurt by someone. Table 1 shows different definitions of forgiveness. As it can be seen from table 1, forgiveness can be defined in many different ways. There are some common elements in the definitions as well as some differences. Several definitions point out that forgiveness is a process that includes cognitive, emotional and behavioral elements. The cognitive point of view includes changes in our way of thinking. For example, an employee changes his or her way of thinking so that there is no blaming, negative judgment or ideas of victimhood.

At the emotional level a person gives up negative emotions like anger, hostility and resentment. At the behavior level a person doesn't want to harm the other person. Some definitions go further than that, for example Enright et al.'s (1998, 46-47) point out that a person should foster compassion, generosity and

even love towards the other person. According to McCullough et al. (2003) forgiveness can motivate employees to extend acts of conciliation and goodwill towards the offender and to overcome social estrangements. However, this is not always the case. Tsarenko and Tojib (2011) point out that a forgiving person may not necessarily interact with or receive acknowledgment from the offending party after the event. It is also possible that people move on and don't have anything to do with each other in the future. For example, they might work in different departments or change the organization they work for. When discussing definitions of forgiveness, it is also useful to mention what forgiveness is not. Forgiveness is not just condoning, forgetting, ignoring or excusing a hurtful action. Forgiveness is not denying the hurt that a person feels. It is neither giving up having feelings. (Luskin 2003, viii; Madsen et al. 2009.)

Table 1: Forgiveness definitions

Writer	Definition	Key points
Enright et al.'s (1998, 46-47)	Forgiveness is the willingness to abandon resentment, negative judgment and indifferent behavior towards one who has been unjustly injured, while fostering the qualities of compassion, generosity and even love towards him or her.	-Willingness to give up resentment, negative judgment, and indifferent behaviour towards the other person. -Foster compassion, generosity and love towards the other person.
Scobie & Scobie (1998, 382)	Forgiveness includes the conscious decision to set aside one's legitimate claim for retaliation or restitution for a damaging act committed by a significant other, in order for any, or all, of the following to occur: 1.The relationship, or a modified version of the relationship, to be restored. 2.The negative effects associated with the damaging act for the forgiver and/or the forgiven to be given the opportunity to be reduced. 3.The forgiver to cease playing the role of the victim and the forgiven to be given the opportunity to make amends. 4.The forgiver and the forgiven to gain release from the dominating effect of the damaging act.	-Decision to let go of the legitimate claim for retaliation or restitution for damaging act. -Restore the relationship. -Not playing the role of the victim.
Cameron and Caza (2002, 39)	Organizational forgiveness includes the capacity to foster collective abandonment of justified resentment, bitterness, and blame and instead it is the adoption of positive, forward-looking approaches in response to harm or damage. Forgiveness in organization requires a transformation, and an organization becomes virtuous to the extent to which it encourages, supports and facilitates such transformation. Forgiveness in search of reward is not true forgiveness.	-Foster abandonment of resentment, bitterness and blame. -Adopt positive, forward-looking approaches.
Stone (2002) Aquino et al. (2003)	Forgiveness means to give up blame and faultfinding. Interpersonal workplace forgiveness is a process whereby an employee who perceives him or herself to have been the target of a morally injurious offense deliberately attempts to: 1.overcome negative emotions (for example anger, hostility) toward his or her offender 2.refrain from causing the offender harm even when he or she believes it is morally justifiable to do so.	-Giving up blame and faultfinding. -Process where a person attempts to overcome negative emotions and refrain from causing harm to the other person.
Tsarenko and Tojib (2011)	Forgiveness is a process of emotional and cognitive progressions that requires effort at each stage. Once negative emotions have been relinquished and the intention to punish an offender has been resolved, forgiveness from the process converts into action and it can be said that forgiveness has been granted.	-Process of emotional and cognitive progressions.

The Benefits of Forgiving

"Forgiveness is key to happiness." Jampolsky (2000, 128) A culture of forgiveness can give several different benefits to an organization. These benefits can be seen at the individual, dyad (two people), team and organizational level. (Stone 2002.) Health benefits Research shows that forgiveness improves mental and physical health. (for example; Butler & Mullis 2001; Luskin 2003, 77; Anderson 2007; Legaree et al.

2007; McCullough et al. 2007; Pettigrove 2007; Madsen et al. 2009). Employee health problems end up costing a lot for organizations. Using forgiveness as an employee wellbeing tool can reduce these costs. Forgiveness lowers blood pressure, improves the immune system response, reduces anxiety and depression, improves sleep, reduces stress, increases energy (Forgiveness and health 2011) and decreases anger (Luskin 2003, 81). Forgiveness has also helped people who have had back pains, high blood pressure, ulcer and cancer (Jampolsky 2000, 21). Studies also show that forgiveness increases hopefulness, optimism, compassion, self-confidence and vitality (Luskin 2003, xv, 78, 81).

Epstein (1999) argues that by forgiving you give yourself permission to move on, to be free of baggage and to be able to progress without the burdens of the past. Therefore forgiveness fosters a person's well being. On the other hand, it can be said that chronic states of not forgiving (holding on to feelings like anger, hostility, resentment and fear) are linked to adverse physical health outcomes (Cameron & Caza 2002; McCullough et al. 2007; Madsen et al. 2009). These feelings influence the body's physical functions like blood circulation, the immune system, and create stress that influences the heart and other organs (Jampolsky 2000, 21). In general people who are more forgiving report fewer health problems and vice versa (Luskin 2003, xv, 80).

Organizational issues People in organizations may face several types of conflict such as disagreements between workers, arguments between departments, fights between workers and managers, disappointments that can be related to promotions, layoffs, hurtful rumors and misunderstandings. It can also be said that employees and managers make mistakes that can cause a lot of harm: whether it is economical, emotional or for example health related. (Madsen et al. 2009.) Especially in these types of situations forgiveness is important. Madsen et al. (2009) points out that unforgiving employees and an unforgiving organizational culture can result in lower levels of performance at all levels. Davidhizar and Laurent (2000, 50) noticed that when managers and leaders failed to forgive employees and superiors, there was a lack of personal and team productivity that led to aggressive and passive-aggressive behavior. Stone (2002) points out that not forgiving can cause big costs for the organization because employees separate themselves leading to ineffective job performance and employees to leave the organization. Employees may tell negative stories related to the organization harming the image of the company. On the other hand Stone (2002) points out that a forgiving culture improves retention, increases a sense of community and improves authentic, courageous and open communication.

Stone (2002) points out that if you do not forgive then your ability to appreciate the strengths and admirable qualities in others and in yourselves is reduced, discretionary effort is limited and your ability to be fully present and focused on current issues and projects are greatly diminished. In other words employees do not feel free to contribute their passion, innovation and unique talents in an unforgiving culture. According to Stone (2002) carrying resentment towards others keeps a person in a subtle and constant state of low grade upset. On the other hand, forgiveness gives a person the opportunity to utilize mistakes, failures, flaws and breakdowns as opportunities to awaken greater wisdom, compassion and capability in co-workers and themselves. Forgiveness supports the development of organizational cultures in which people feel free to take risks, use their creativity and demonstrate enthusiastic contribution.

Job performance and productivity According to McCullough et al. (2000) forgiveness is associated with higher morale and satisfaction, greater social capital, trust, humanness, and caring relationships. This has been the case especially in situations where an organization has experienced harm or unjust treatment as in cases of downsizing. According to Aquino et al. (2003) forgiveness motivates employees to extend acts of conciliation and goodwill towards the offender and to overcome social estrangement. This makes the

employee relationships more effective and productive (Madsen et al. 2009). Madsen et al. (2009) points out that several organizations have noticed that physically and mentally healthier employees are more productive. Stone (2002) points out that if you have not forgiven it is difficult to be present. It is because you are energetically holding on to something from the past. In other words, you are stuck in the past. In order to do excellent work performance you have to operate in the present. In this state of heightened awareness employees can thrive and contribute their ideas, their passion and their dedication. According to Luskin (2003, 179) forgiveness allows a person to think more clearly, solve problems wisely and have greater access to positive emotions. Fredrickson (2001) points out that positive emotions like joy, hope and happiness help people flourish. Positive emotions also help us to use our creativity (Kauffman 2006, 223) and to work in teams (Losada 1999) both being important factors when developing innovations.

It can be said that not forgiving has an impact on several levels of an organization. As we can see from table 2, the lack of forgiveness causes a loss of energy in each of these levels. This can be seen, for example in covering up, playing safe and avoiding painful situations. Instead this energy could be used to learn, grow, connect and in general be more productive. (Stone 2002.)

Table 2: Impact of Lack of forgiveness (Stone 2002)

Individual	Dyad (two people)	Team	Organization
Alienation	Separation	Internal competition	Controlling behavior
Self-doubt	Conflict	Lack of common direction	Secrecy
Righteousness	Blame	Fault finding	Mistrust
Preoccupation	Avoidance	Jealousy	High turnover
Anger / withdrawal	Mistrust	Negative politics	Protective behavior
Lack of creativity / innovation	Controlling	Gossip	Back stabbing
Poor health	Punishing	Manipulation	Over-work
Unhappiness	Frustration	Stress	Out of balance
Guilt	Anger	Frustration	Confusion
Fear	Tension	Denial	Political posturing
Depression	Judgmental	Score keeping	Non-coordinated workforce
Suffering	Disharmony	Distance	Low allegiance
Low self-esteem	Agitation		
	Disappointment		
	Defensiveness		
	Inauthentic behavior		

Not forgiving usually increases separation while decreasing effort, creativity and authenticity. At the same time we can also often see more criticism and doubt. Feeling a sense of belonging is an important aspect in any organization. So there is a risk that if a person feels more and more alienated, that person will leave the organization or become an ineffective member of the organization just waiting to retire. Not forgiving at the *dyad level* will often cause feelings like anger, blame and resentment. Feelings of victimization often lead to protective behavior. Protective behavior in turn leads to justification, fault-finding, avoiding the other person and malicious gossip. At the *team level* not forgiving can lead to feelings and behavior of “us against them”. Team separation leads to internal competition, gossip and fault-finding. It can be said that organizational culture that does not promote forgiveness will engage in negative and destructive politics. Employees will be afraid to speak out, hiding their true feelings. This will lower trust and increase stress level. In situations like this, burnout is common resulting in a high turnover rate. (Stone 2002.) When a person does not forgive, we can usually see behavior in the other person that is related to avoidance and revenge (Biswas 2009). Table 3 shows how avoidance and revenge can show up.

Table 3: Signs of Avoidance and Revenge (Biswas 2009)

Avoidance	Revenge
Difficult to act warmly towards the other person. Avoid the other person. Withdraw from the other person. Cut off the relationship with the other person. Act as if the other person doesn't exist / is not around. Not trusting the other person.	Wish that something bad would happen to the other person. Want to see the other person hurt and miserable. Want to make the other person pay.

Both avoidance and revenge related behaviors are not positive factors for successful co-operation and employee wellbeing. Instead, avoidance and harm do harm both at the individual level as well as the dyad, team and organizational level. All these can be avoided by forgiving. As we can see from table 4 there are also several other benefits that can be seen once people forgive.

Table 4: The influence of forgiveness in organizations (Stone 2002)

Individual	Dyad (two persons)	Team	Organization
Happiness	Partnership	Mutually supportive	Open authentic culture
Presence	Collaboration	Feeling of community	Focus on contribution and service
Creativity/innovation	Trust	Joy / fun	Employee retention
Vibrant health	Open /authentic	Playfulness	Flexible work force
Autonomy	Communication	Shared learning	Respected in the community
Personal responsibility	Supportive	Interconnection	Empowerment
Peace of mind	Acknowledgment	Action orientation	Pride in organization
Authenticity	Appreciation	Clarity of roles	Meaningful work
Freedom to self-express	Gratitude	Direction	Values in action
Choice	Ownership	Sense of belonging	
Self assurance	Interconnection		
Focused	Respectful		
Openness	Growth		
	Nurturing		
	Sharing information		
	Compassion		

Reasons Not To Forgive

“Notice that only your own thoughts cause the suffering that you now have. You can choose what you think.” (Jambolsky 2000, 127) As it has been mentioned, forgiveness has an enormous positive impact on different organizational levels. Also, when an organization's members do not forgive there can be several serious negative impacts. So with these arguments in mind, it should be logical to put extensive efforts in to encouraging forgiveness. However, in practice it does not always happen. There are several reasons why people do not forgive. One reason people don't forgive at work is that there are only a few role models to teach employees and managers how to forgive. Forgiveness is also seldom spoken of in organizations. In many cases organizational structures create cultural norms that do not support acts of forgiveness, instead it is thought that someone is always to blame. Letting people “off the hook” may be seen to set a bad example for other employees. Furthermore, some managers struggle with fears related to forgiveness. They are afraid that the balance of power would be disrupted resulting in a permissive environment that in turn would lead to chaos and anarchy. (Stone 2002.)

One reason people don't forgive is that they have fears related to loss of face and possession. Loss of face is related to the way of thinking that focuses on “what will others think of us if we fail”. Another fear related to forgiveness is that of being embarrassed or rejected by others. Loss of possession is related to protecting territory: position or property. Related to this is also the fear of being hurt physically or

emotionally. Yet another reason people don't forgive is that they fear it sends out the message that they accept the other person's behavior leading to future reoccurrence of the same behavior. In this case the person fails to realize that holding on to anger or resentment in order to punish the other person is creating a prison of one's own pain, isolation and alienation. (Stone 2002.) Sometimes people believe forgiving makes them seem weak. A way of thinking that prevents forgiving is: "If I forgive this person, it is the same as saying that he/she was right and I was wrong". Some people believe that not forgiving is a way to control the other person and to have power over the other person. But in reality all these mentioned beliefs are based on fear, not power. (Jampolsky 2000, 68–69.)

Some people say that what happened to them is unforgivable. But in reality it is a question of motivation, a question whether the person wants to forgive or not. It is very likely that other people have managed to forgive similar kinds of events that they have faced. So once people find motivation, forgiving is easier. This can be done, for example, by understanding that it is the person who refuses to forgive that suffers and by forgiving can end the suffering. However, if a person does not have the right tools then forgiving can take a lot of effort. With the right methods forgiving is easier. (Luskin 2003, 106-107.)

Several reasons related to not forgiving at work are to do with a person's own attitude and the organizational culture. From a managerial point of view, building a culture that fosters forgiveness is important. According to Stone (2002, 279) having an in-depth understanding of the value of forgiveness provides managers and employees opportunities to use mistakes, failures and breakdowns as opportunities to awaken greater wisdom, compassion and capability. Organizations that develop a culture of forgiveness will seem to be more authentic, courageous and to facilitate open conversation based on their values and vision as well as the current commitments and strategic objectives. Forgiveness is an essential element of attaining a more nurturing and fulfilling work climate.

"Not to forgive is the decision to suffer." (Jampolsky 2000, 48)

Practicing Forgiveness

"It is easier to forgive once you decide to let go of being a victim." (Jampolsky 2000)

In order to practice forgiveness a person has to realize that he/she can always choose how to react to any situation. People tend to react in a manner that is similar to their earlier encounters, projecting painful memories of the past on the present situation. So thoughts from the past shape experiences of the present. But by raising one's awareness of that phenomenon a person can start to choose his/her reaction based on the present situation instead of past beliefs and experiences. It can also be said that a person's attitude determines the quality of his/her perception. After examining one's attitude it is easy to realize that there is always a choice. Instead of reacting based on a person's own history, expectation and past perception, a person can choose to take action based on values and vision. Being present to one's own thoughts, feelings and sensations helps us make conscious choices. Forgiveness can help a person to be more present. Forgiving sets you free of the fear and anger that have been imposed on your mind by holding on to the past. (Stone 2002) There are several ways to forgive. Borysenko (1990) points out that forgiveness can be seen as a growth process. Davidhizar and Laurent (2000) point out that forgiveness begins with the acceptance that nobody is perfect. Another important factor is empathy. Once a person sees the situation from another's point of view his/her empathy usually develops. Davidhizar and Laurent's (2000) forgiveness model for managers includes 6 steps:

1. Accept the lack of perfection in others.
2. Look at the incident from the other's point of view.
3. Place self in the offender's position and empathize with his or her feelings.
4. Surrender the right to get even.
5. Accept an apology when it is offered.
6. Forgive the individual taking administrative action when this is appropriate but leave the ultimate judgment for the behavior to outside forces.

Enright et al. (1998, 53) point out that there are several psychological variables related to the forgiveness process. These are shown in table 5. In the uncovering phase, the person denies that he or she has been hurt. Once these defenses break, the person usually feels anger towards the injurer. People might also feel other negative feelings like shame deepening the emotional pain. A person may also notice that he/she is continually replaying the event in his/her mind and also comparing his/her unfortunate state to the relatively comfortable state of injurer. The person may feel that life is unfair.

Once the person moves on to the decision phase he/she starts to notice that his/her way of thinking and behaving so far is not healthy. The person starts to consider forgiveness and commits to that. In this phase the person may still have thoughts that are related to revenge. In the work phase the situation is reframed and therefore understood in a different way. Many times a person feels empathy and compassion towards the injurer. Now the person does not want to hurt the other person any more. In the deepened phase, a person may find a deeper meaning of the event and forgiveness process. For example a person may find a new direction in life. The process of forgiving improves one's psychological wellbeing. Once a person gives others mercy and compassion he himself becomes healed. (Enright et al. 1998, 52-54.)

Table 5: Psychological variables related to forgiveness (Enright et al. 1998, 53)

Uncovering phase	
-	Examination of psychological defenses (Kiel 1986)
-	Admittance of shame when this is appropriate (Patton 1985)
-	Insight that the injured party may be comparing self with the injurer (Kiel 1986)
-	Realization that oneself may be permanently and adversely changed by the injury (Close 1970)
-	Insight into possible altered "just world" view (Flanigan 1987)
Decision phase	
-	A change of heart, conversion, new insights that old resolution strategies are not working (North 1987)
-	Willingness to consider forgiveness as an option
-	Commitment to forgive the offender (Neblett 1974)
Work phase	
-	Reframing through role taking who the wrongdoer is by viewing him or her in context (Smith 1981)
-	Empathy towards the offender (Cunningham 1985)
-	Acceptance of absorption of the pain (Bergin 1988)
Deepening phase	

-	Finding meaning in the suffering and in the forgiveness process (Frankl 1959)
-	Realization that self has needed the forgiveness of others in the past (Cunningham 1985)
-	Insight that one is not alone (universality, support)
-	Realization that one may have a new purpose in life because of the injury
-	Awareness of decreased negative effect and perhaps increase in positive effect if this begins to emerge towards the injurer,
-	- awareness of internal, emotional release (Smedes 1984)

Davidhizar and Laurent (2000) point out several things related to the forgiveness process.

1. The need for personal forgiveness must be recognized.
Instead of blaming others it is important that the manager “looks in the mirror” and sees his/her own role in the current crisis or conflict.
2. Forgiveness is facilitated when events are put into perspective.
Once a manager forgives he/she can learn and in turn help other in learning from the situation. So the focus is on positive issues related to the case.
3. Forgiveness remembers the past with truth. Forgiveness helps the manager see the event in true colors. This helps the manager see that certain managerial actions might have eliminated the problematic situation. Accepting personal responsibility is part of forgiveness.
4. Forgiveness remembers with new respect for self. A manager who feels victimized by the wrongdoings of an employee may allow the offence to cause him/her to lose respect for that worker. The way to restore self-respect is to forgive. Breaking the grip of a painful memory is an effective way to restore self-respect. By saying for example: “We really messed up with that one. Let’s be glad nothing worse happened. Now let’s plan so that it doesn’t happen again” can allow both the manager and employee to move on with hope.
5. Forgiveness is for people, not institutions.
A manager may feel wronged by an organization. However, organizations can’t be forgiven as forgiving is between people. Therefore, the manager needs to forgive a representative of the organization who was related to the situation, for example the CEO or the manager’s supervisor.
6. Forgiveness should be given on the basis of what was done, not for who the person is. In many cases people are too complex to be forgiven for who they are. So in several cases it is more productive to focus on the specific wrongdoing.
7. Forgiveness is needed for incidents that can’t be forgotten.
It is important to forgive the events that cause big harm.
8. Forgiveness is for people who wrong others and end up wounding them.
Wrongdoing can break the trust between two parties. In order to develop that trust it is important to forgive.

According to Luskin (2003, xii-xiii) there are certain core components in the creation of long standing hurt and grievance. These are exaggerated taking of personal offence, blaming the offender for how the person feels and creation of a grievance story. Changing these elements helps a person to forgive.

The exaggerated taking of personal offence Luskin (2003,14-20) points out that instead of making the painful event too personal the same situation can be seen from an impersonal point of view by understanding that similar types of events happen to many other people. It is also good to remember that the most offences are committed without the intention of hurting anyone personally. For example an employee can impose negative meaning on the words of his/her superior even when the superior has meant a totally different thing. The blaming of the offender for how the person feels In the blaming stage people blame others for their own feelings and problems. When a person blames others he/she feels the cause of the hurt is outside of him/her and is looking outside to find the reason. In many cases a person who blames others forgets that the other party has not hurt him/her purposefully. In many cases the person does not know why other people have behaved in certain ways towards him/her. When a person blames others it basically means that he/she is stuck in the past. Everyone is responsible for their own feelings, what a person feels now is something that he/she can decide. The person doesn't have to suffer emotionally now because of something that happened in the past. Once the person focuses on more positive things in life the hurt will diminish in importance. The biggest drawback in telling the hurt-story is that it keeps the person connected in a powerless way with the person who hurt him/her. By reconnecting with positive intentions a person reminds him or herself of personal goals and it also enables him/her to move forward. The story the injured person tells is a personal interpretation of the situation. The interpretation of other people is usually different. Once a person changes his/her way of thinking he/she can look at the situation in a new light and then tell a new story. The story that a person tells him or herself influences how that person feels and what action he/she will take. So by changing the story a person can influence both of these. (Luskin 2003, 21-26, 137-139.)

The Creation of a grievance story

Once a person tells the same hurt-story again and again feeling hurt each time it is a question of a grievance story. Instead of letting go and moving on a person holds on to the story about how someone hurt them. Telling the story can happen in the person's own head so that the person thinks about the situation over and over again. Instead the person might tell the story over and over again to other people. Once you tell the same story many times it keeps you in the past instead of helping you to move on. A person can always choose which story to tell. Telling a hurt-story it keeps one stuck. When people tell a hero-story instead of a hurt-story then they can see what they have learned from the experience and how it helps them to grow. In the end it is a question of perspective. (Luskin 2003, 8-10, 36-41.)

Luskin (2003, 211-212) has developed 9-step forgiveness process.

1. Know how you feel about the situation and be able to articulate the things that were not fair. Tell a couple of trusted people about your experience.
2. Make a commitment to yourself to do what is necessary to feel better.
3. Forgiveness does not necessarily mean reconciliation with the person that hurt you or condoning their action. What you are after is finding peace.
4. Get the right perspective on what is happening. Recognize that your primary distress is coming from the hurt feelings, thoughts and physical upset you are suffering now, not what offended you or hurt you two minutes or ten years ago.
5. Practice some stress-management technique to soothe your body's flight or fight response.
6. Understand that you can control only your own thoughts and actions, not those of others. Give up expecting certain things from other people or life they do not choose to give you.

7. Put your focus from hurt feelings to finding a way to achieve your goals. Instead of mentally replaying your hurt seek out new ways to get what you want.
8. Instead of focusing on your wounded feelings and thereby giving the person who caused you pain power over you, learn to look positively at the things around you, for example see love, beauty and kindness.
9. Change the story that you are telling to yourself so that it no longer dwells on victimhood, but focuses instead on your ability to cope and to grow. Remind yourself about the heroic choice to forgive.

Based on these different forgiveness processes it can be said that it is important to give up the victim story and look at the situation from another point of view. Once a person understands that everybody makes mistakes and that the same kind of situations have happened to many other people who have then been able to forgive helps the person change his/her story from that of victimhood to growth. It is also important to focus on positive things in order to feel positive emotions. People are responsible for their own thoughts and emotions. Therefore people have the power to influence their feelings and behaviors. Once people forgive they can be present and feel more positive things compared to when they tell a victim story and by doing so end up stuck in the past and letting past events influence the present moment. Having willingness to forgive and putting effort to do so people do a big service firstly to themselves. After that the influence can also be seen in other levels of the organizations.

“It is easier to forgive once you decide to give up being a victim.” (Jambolsky 2000, 93)

Practical Issues for Managers

“The key word to learn how to forgive is willingness to forgive.” (Jampolsky 2000, 57)

In order to use forgiveness as a tool in organizations, knowledge and a positive attitude towards forgiveness are needed. According to Stone (2002) many business leaders continue to believe that it is inappropriate to discuss forgiveness in the workplace because it is considered an abstract philosophical or religious principle. The manager's role in fostering a forgiving culture in an organization is important (Madsen et al. 2009). Cameron and Caza (2002) point out two key roles for managers in fostering forgiveness.

- 1) When managers provide meaning and vision during challenging times, employees often respond positively. Forgiveness does not mean that errors are totally acceptable, but instead it facilitates excellence and improvement.
- 2) Managers can provide legitimacy and support. They can value virtuous actions, such as forgiveness by initiating and supporting organizational structures, systems, and resources that are aligned with forgiveness and other important virtues (Cameron & Caza 2002).

Kurzynski (1998) points out the importance of forgiveness when employees make mistakes. In these cases managers can be role models by forgiving, accepting occasional mistakes and assisting employees so that mistakes are not repeated. Forgiveness also offers ways for the manager to deal with the negative

feelings that may result after conflict between the manager and an employee. In the end forgiveness can empower both the manager and the employee. In order to forgive, the manager should realize the responsibility and challenge in accepting others as human beings with faults and learn to live without sustained anger and resentment.

Madsen et al. (2009) shows six forgiveness business interventions.

1. Third-party interventions Workers can be encouraged to forgive by using third-party interventions. Forgiveness interventions can help repair damaged workplace relationships and assist in building more healthy workplaces. (Struthers et al. 2005)
2. Social interest interventions According to Butler and Mullis (2001) social interest increases forgiveness. Interventions related to team building, third party peacemaking, and survey feedback processes that focus on social interest peacemaking in organizations may also promote the use of forgiveness as a tool to solve workplace conflicts.
3. Writing and journaling Pettigrove (2007) points out that writing and journaling can be used as tools to aid in conflict management, conflict resolution, and personal communication interventions within the workplace.
4. Educational programs Madsen et al. (2009) points out that educational programs related to forgiveness can empower employees by providing knowledge about forgiveness and its benefits. Education can also bring out possible biases and assumptions employees may have that may hinder the forgiveness process.
5. Forgiveness programs In some cases forgiveness programs may be useful. For example, in major downsizing or hostile takeover related cases. (Madsen et al. 2009)
6. Empathy-building and communication interventions
According to McCullough et al. (2003) building strong empathy among employees can be helpful in encouraging forgiveness.

A manager can strengthen relationships in the workplace by forgiving. Letting go of resentments can create feelings of release, liberate energy and creativity, and decrease avoidance behavior towards the offending person. From a managerial point of view it is important that the manager forgives employees when they make mistakes. However, it is important that forgiveness begins personally with the manager. This means that the manager forgives him or herself. Several managers hold themselves as role models for their employees. So forgiving their own mistakes is crucial. It is difficult to forgive if ones own personal failure is denied. A manager who is able to practice personal forgiveness may have less difficulty forgiving employees when they have made errors. Forgiveness does not mean that the mistakes or unethical behavior of the employees is not discussed and the necessary action taken. Sometimes forgiveness is related to the decisions made by decisions of the manager's supervisor, for example related to staff reductions and promotions. (Davidhizar & Laurent 2000.) Failing to forgive employees or administration often leads to passive-aggressive behavior and decrease in productivity. Not forgiving personal mistakes can lead to guilt, which can lead to feelings of depression and personal unhappiness. (Davidhizar & Laurent 2000; Borysenko 1990.) Managers also play a key role in the training point of view. As Enright et al. (1998, 52) point out most people need to be taught forgiveness in order to begin forgiveness. As Luskin (2003, 65) points out forgiveness is a skill that can be learned.

“The power of forgiveness can make miracles in your life.” (Jambolsky 2000, 56)

CONCLUSION

It can be said that forgiveness is a very useful leadership tool. By forgiving you can avoid misunderstandings and mistakes from becoming conflicts. Forgiveness is also an excellent tool in solving conflicts in the workplace. The manager's role in creating a forgiving organizational culture is essential as the manager shows an example to the employees. Forgiving brings several benefits, for example it improves openness, trust and cooperation. Forgiveness also increases positive emotions that are useful in creative problem solving and innovation.

Forgiveness can improve the wellbeing of employees in several ways. Forgiveness can improve mental and physical health. It can improve trust, collaboration and the organizational climate in general. Even though forgiveness presents many benefits, it is rarely discussed and practiced systematically in organizations. In order to change the situation managers need more information about the topic. By understanding that forgiveness can be used as a leadership tool managers can use it on daily basis. When a conflict or crisis happens, instead of feeling angry and avoiding others, employees and managers should focus on positive emotions and face each other with respect. Forgiveness plays a key role in situations like that. Like Luskin (2003, 91) said: *“Forgiveness simply works.”*

Further studies In order to improve the use of forgiveness as leadership tool some further research topics are useful. Here are some research topics that are relevant to study in order to understand more about the role of forgiveness in organizations and how to develop a forgiving organizational culture.

- a) What kind of forgiveness cultures do different organizations have?
- b) What ways of forgiveness are used in organizations?
- c) What kind of experiences people in organizations have about forgiveness?

“It is never too soon to forgive. It is never too late to forgive.” (Jampolsky 2000, 133, 139)

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CROSS-BORDER EDUCATION: FACTORS INFLUENCING CANADIAN STUDENTS' CHOICE OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT

This study seeks to explain the factors influencing Canadian students' motivation for studying in the United States. The United States has continuously been the leader in international students, but is now facing increasing competition from other nations around the world. As one of the top senders of international students to the United States, Canada is of special interest to institutions of higher education in the United States due to the close social, economic, and political ties. International student mobility is influenced by push-pull factors that influence a student's decision to study abroad, and ultimately pull factors from host nations that student's find favorable. To understand Canadian students' motivation for studying in the United States, a study was conducted with a sample of 411 Canadian students at a small private college in Buffalo, New York. The study found statistically significant differences in the the importance placed on reasons for not remaining in Canada for higher education, the factors that influence the selection of the United States as a study destination, and student preferences for institutions of higher education in the United States. The study concluded that there are separate push-pull factors influencing Canadian higher education students on the Canada-U.S. border, and that Canadian students are their own distinct group that are neither truly like international nor domestic students.

JEL: 051 U.S.; Canada

KEYWORDS: International education, Canadian students, higher education.

INTRODUCTION

Student mobility trends in the past decades have led to an increased number of students participating in international education. Today, more students are studying abroad than ever and there has been an ever increasing competition for international students. The United States has been leading the way as a destination for international students in higher education with 22% of the international student market (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). While the United States has always been a leader in international student enrollment, the nation is now facing increasing competition from other well positioned nations like Australia, Germany, and France. To maintain their competitive advantage educators and administrators in the United States must understand their international student markets and develop appropriate strategies to attract and maintain students. One of the largest segments of international students in the United States comes from Canada. In 2009/2010, the number of international students studying in the United States reached 690,923 students, of which 28,145 students were from Canada (Open Doors, 2010). Canada sends more of their students to the United States than to any other country, and has been continuously one of the United State's top ten source countries for international students. With our close cultural, economic,

and geographical ties, why is the United States a destination for so many Canadian students? The answer to this question has critical implications for educators on both sides of the border.

International students, in general, study abroad for a variety of different reasons, these reasons include a home country that cannot meet demand for higher education, students seeking institutions with more prestige or power, or other nations that have institutions that specialize in a desired area of study. Students, especially from developing countries, have found that their country may lack the supply of quality opportunities in higher education that they demand, and they must travel abroad to developed nations for their education. Students from developed nations choose to study abroad due to the increase in globalization and the need for students with a global perspective and experiences (Altbach, 2004). More than 90% of international students are enrolled in countries that belong to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia, who attract approximately 45% of the total amount of foreign students worldwide (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). Studying abroad has become more accessible due to decreased transportation costs and innovations in communications technology. Governments have also realized the economic potential of international students, and have allocated more funds to improve higher education in their country and to increase the number of international students (Altbach, 2004). These skilled and educated students also provide a local labor force that can contribute to research and innovation, and also in any skilled labor shortages (Gribble, 2008).

International students are also often influenced to study abroad by "push-pull" factors (Altbach, 2004; Li & Bray, 2007; Maringe & Carter, 2007; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Students are "pushed" abroad due to factors in their home country, and students are then "pulled" by factors in the host country that make it an attractive place to study. Students can be pushed from their home country due to an inability to study in local universities caused by competition or because another country's institutions specialize in a desired program. Students are pulled to the United States as a destination for international study because of the country's reputation as one of the world's best, and most prestigious, academic systems (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). Research conducted by Cubillo *et al.*, (2006); Chen, (2008); Soutar & Turner, (2002); Shanka *et al.*, (2005), has found that international student's have an extensive and complex decision making process when deciding to study abroad. The decision making process consists of personal reasons and motivations for studying in a foreign country, encouragement from significant others, country image effect, proximity of host institution, the institution's image, recommendations from friends and colleagues, and an evaluation of the program. Many studies (Chen, 2008; Cubillo *et al.*, 2006; Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Shanlm *et al.*, 2005; Soutar & Turner, 2002) have looked at why international students decide to study abroad, and the factors that influence their choice of institution, but few have looked at the migration of students from one specific country to another. While the United States and Canada share a border, strong economic ties, and cultural similarities, there have been surprisingly few comparative studies in education that center on these two nations. It may have been previously thought that these nations were too similar, that a study between the two would not be useful (Skolnik & Jones, 1992). With the largest percentage of Canadian international students going to the United States, it would be imperative for those on both the American and Canadian sides of the border to understand why this movement occurs. American colleges and universities must identify the factors that contribute to Canadian student movements to the United States and employ this information in their strategic policies to attract and retain such students. Internationalization and the use of international marketing have had great influence on students' choices of study abroad destinations (Chen, 2008), so by segmenting the market, American universities can tailor their marketing approach to Canadian students more effectively.

Canadian colleges and universities can use such a study to understand how they can retain students.

In an effort to understand the factors that influence a Canadian student to specifically select the United States as a study abroad destination this study used a quantitative method to discover the main factors influencing the migration of Canadian students and the specific "push-pull" dynamic between the two nations.

Set against this back drop four interlinked questions are addressed in the empirical analysis which follows. First, what are the most important "push" factors influencing the movement of Canadian students out of Canada? Second, what are the most influential factors "pulling" Canadian students specifically to the United States as a host country for their higher education? Third, what factors do Canadian students find the most important when choosing an institution to study at in the United States? And fourth, will the Canadian students' decision making process in regards to choice of institution resemble that of a domestic student or an international student.

RESEARCH CONTEXT

Cross border education has become an important mode for globalizing higher education, while knowledge has become an international good that can transcend national boundaries. Higher education has become a service to be traded across borders and attracts a market from all over the world. Demand for cross border education has increased because of globalization and the increasing employment opportunities in multinational corporations and foreign countries (Varghese, 2007). Varghese (2007) notes that institutions of higher education are institutions with dual characteristics; they are both national and international. The content and knowledge shared is universal and international, while the ownership, organization, and culture have always been national. Globalization in education can take many forms. First, there can be a cross-border supply of educational services, like online distance education programs, where students do not even need to leave their country. Another form of globalization is the consumption of educational services abroad, which is what this study focuses on, where students physically cross the border for educational purposes. The commercial presence of a provider in another country, such as in the form of branch campuses, is another aspect of international education. Twinning and franchising arrangements between institutions in the developing and developed world are collaborations that institutions are considering to increase their international impact. Finally, globalization in higher education can be seen in the exchange and mobility of professors and employees from one nation to another through academic partnerships or to teaching opportunities at branch campuses (Varghese, 2007).

The international market for higher education has many variables that affect international student mobility. There are strategies employed by home governments to organize this flow of students seeking to study outside their home nation (Bourke, 2000). Some of these strategies include funding arrangements, accreditation and new educational offerings. Since some nations lack the capacity for certain higher education opportunities, governments may select to fund students to study in a specific country. Accreditation is another important aspect of international higher education, since the recognition of the host country's credentials is a vitally important factor when deciding to study abroad. Accreditation is a tool used by home governments to have an influence on student flows. Accreditation and the recognition of education degrees from overseas institutions are blurred by political circumstances and can significantly impact the flow of students from one country to another (Bourke, 2000).

Currently there are many factors influencing student flows in international education. Some of the most prominent factors include cost of education, academic superiority in host nation, student experience, language proficiency, employment opportunities, and lack of educational opportunities in home country. (Varghese, 2007; Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007; Mpinganjira, 2009) Varghese (2007) found that influential factors for international education include cost of education, since some countries have higher tuition levels applied to international students compared to domestic students. Language proficiency, another important factor, may explain why regional flows may be high, especially in North America and Western Europe. Perceived academic superiority of the institution in the host country is seen as a significant factor since international students traditionally move from less developed countries to more developed countries for their education. Many students also find the acquisition of foreign language and culture an influential factor in deciding to study abroad. The opportunity for employment is a major reason to study abroad; whether because study abroad enhances credentials, or the student plans on staying in the host country after completion of their study.

A "push-pull" model has been developed to understand student mobility trends. Push factors are those that operate within a student's home nation and initiate a student's decision making process to study abroad. Pull factors operate in the host country and make the country more attractive to international students (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002). The theory was developed by McMahon (1992) in a study of international student's from 18 developing nations and their movement to develop in the 1960s and 1970s. The push model suggested that student flows were dependent on economic factors and the degree of involvement of the sending nation in the world economy, educational opportunities found in the home nation, and social and cultural factors like the priority the developing country puts on education. The pull model from the study suggests that the student is pulled to a nation due to the size of the host country's economy relative to that of the one in the home nation, economic links between the two nations, and political factors like the host nation's political ties to the home nation. Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) identified six push-pull factors that have an impact on the decision to study abroad. These factors include knowledge and awareness, recommendations from family and friends, cost issues, environment issues, social links, and geographical proximity. Knowledge and awareness was measured by four items that included student's access to information on the host country, level of knowledge student has of the host country, quality of education of host country, and the recognition of host country's qualifications.

The decision to study abroad is an involved process that includes the initial reason to study abroad, the choice of host country, and the choice of institution. Cubillo et al. (2006) set forth a theoretical framework that analyzed the different dimensions of the international student's decision making process. The main factors the study identified in the international student choice process included personal reasons, country image effect, institution image, and program evaluation. Country image which includes cultural distance, social reputation, academic reputation, cost of living, immigration procedures, and time to earn a degree, had a direct and positive relationship with the purchase intention of the student. It is clear that there exists a well-defined body of evidence on students' choice decision and offer insights into the problems of consumer choice models, however, insufficient research exists on the challenges faced by small private institutions in recruiting and attracting foreign students in the United States. The main purpose of this study is to understand the controllable and uncontrollable factors influencing Canadian students choice of a small private institution given the high involvement nature of college choice decisions.

SURVEY METHODOLOGY

In light of the foregoing literature, the overall study objective was to determine the key factors in the decision process of selecting a higher education institution in the United States by Canadian students. The research subjects were comprised of Canadian students enrolled at D'Youville College, a small private institution located in Buffalo, New York which is located within half a mile of the border between United States and Canada. Convenience sampling of 411 Canadian students enrolled in the various programs offered at D'Youville College was utilized.

The entire population of Canadian students at D'Youville College was invited to participate in the study through campus email. The email contained a link to a landing page with a web survey. Follow up emails were sent one and two weeks after the initial email with the survey invitation to remind potential participants of the survey to obtain an acceptable response rate. The purpose of the study was to understand factors influencing Canadian students' decision to study in institutions of higher education in the United States. The survey was designed to examine the various influences, including any push-pull dynamic. The survey, in three different sections, looked at factors influencing Canadian students' choice not to study in Canada, factors influencing their decision to study in the United States, and factors influencing their choice of institution in the United States.

In each section of the survey, participants rated certain factors known to affect student mobility, derived from the literature review, on how important they were in their decision making process. The survey had response categories based on a four-point Likert Scale from 1 (not considered in decision) to 4 (very important to my decision). In each section, the participants were asked to select the most influential factor in their decision, and an open-ended question was employed to discover any additional factors that may have been considered when choosing the study at an institution in the United States rather than one in Canada.

DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data collected from the survey, this study employed the Chi-Square Goodness of Fit test to evaluate whether there were statistically significant differences between the identified factors. Frequency tables were used to illustrate respondents' responses to each question. SPSS was employed to collect, organize, and calculate the data. The survey was started by 104 respondents, with 87 useable complete surveys, which resulted in a 21 % response rate.

By academic level, 23% of respondents were undergraduate, 54% were graduate students, 21% of students were in professional programs, and 2% were doctoral students. The mean age of the respondents was 31.4 years of age with 75% of respondents female and 25% of respondents male. Education, Nursing and other Health related majors were the majority of responses (See Table 1).

Table 1: Majors of Survey Respondents

Major	Respondents %
Education	39.0%
Nursing	17.1%
Physical Therapy	14.9%
Occupational Therapy	6.8%
Interdisciplinary Studies	4.5%
Dietetics	3.3%
Business	2.2%
Physician Assistant	2.2%
Doctoral	2.2%
Biology	2.1%

This table shows the major of the survey respondents with education, nursing and health related majors being the majority of the responses.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

From the results of the survey, we can see that Canadian students have their own distinct reasons for leaving Canada, and choosing to come to the United States for educational purposes. The factors that were most important in the Canadian students' decision to study outside Canada revolved around the issue of competitive entry requirements in Canada, broadening personal experience, lack of university places or the inability to get a place in a course the student wanted to study at home (See Table 2). These results are consistent with previous studies including Mazarol and Souter (2002) which found that difficulty finding entry into institutions at home were significant "push" factors in international students' decision to pursue their higher education outside their home country (See Table 2). Like a study conducted by Mpinganjira (2009), the results of the survey indicated that the enhancement of future employment prospects also was an important reason for studying outside of Canada.

Regarding the decision to study in the United States, the most important factor reported by Canadian students was that the qualifications were recognized in their home country (See Table 3). This result is consistent with the study conducted by Mpinganjira (2009) where students indicated the most important factor when deciding to study abroad was that students were seeking qualifications with worldwide recognition. The second most important reason for coming to the United States for Canadian students was related to geographical proximity and the ability to commute or easily travel to the United States. This is similar to findings by Wiers-Jenssen (2003) in a study of Norwegian students who studied in linguistically and geographically peripheral European countries, where students indicated that geographical proximity was a significant factor in their choice process. While not one of the most important factors in the selection of the United States as a study destination, knowledge of someone who has studied in the United States was seen as a key factor in students' decision making (See Table 4). The survey also found that a favorable image of the United States was not particularly important in their decision to study in the United States, and only 1 % of respondents indicated that it was the most important factor in their decision. This seems to conflict with the literature that indicates the significance of country image, though when survey takers were asked if they considered any other countries when looking to study outside of Canada, 86% of respondents answered "no". This indicates that while country image was not consciously an important factor, many students did not consider any other country when deciding to study outside of Canada.

Table 2: Factors in Decision to Study Outside Canada

Factors	Not Considered	Not Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Unavailability of course at home	32.2%	18.9%	25.6%	23.3%
Broaden personal experience	27.8%	24.4%	32.2%	15.6%
Competitive entry requirements in home country	11.2%	12.4%	20.2%	56.2%
Lack of university places	20.0%	16.7%	32.2%	31.1%
Inability to get a place in course one wanted to study at home	21.1%	13.3%	26.7%	38.95%
Enhance future employment prospects	19.1%	13.5%	28.1%	39.3%
Absence of equivalent domestic Opportunities	35.2%	19.3%	19.3%	26.2%
Other	25.0%	15.0%	20.0%	40.0%

This table presents the factors that Canadian students either consider to be “very important” to “not considered” in the decision process to study outside Canada.

Table 3: Most Important Factors in Decision to Study in the United States

Factors	Response (%)
Qualifications recognized at home	51%
Geographical Proximity	14%
Ability to commute or travel easily to the United States	13%
Value of degree in economic market	10%
Know someone who studied there	5%
Intention to migrate to United States after degree completion	5%
Favorable image of higher education in the United States	1%
Common language	0%
Prior connection or historical ties to country	0%
Ease of visa formalities	0%
Other	1%

This table shows the most important factor in the Canadian students' decision making process to study in the United States.

Table 4: Factors in Decision to Study in United States

Factors	Not Considered	Not Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Favorable image of higher education in the US	37.5%	20.5%	29.5%	12.5%
Common Language	29.1%	12.8%	31.4%	26.7%
Geographical Proximity	3.5%	7.0%	27.1%	62.4%
Know someone who studied there	17.4%	15.1%	40.8%	26.7%
Qualifications recognized in home market	2.3%	2.3%	21.8%	73.6%
Value of degree in economic market	11.7%	8.1%	29.1%	51.1%
Prior connection or historical ties to the country	64.0%	20.9%	7%	8.1%
Intention to migrate to U.S. after degree completion	53.5%	19.8%	17.4%	9.3%
Ability to commute or travel easily to U.S.	6.9%	4.6%	25.3%	63.2%
Ease of visa formalities	25.6%	9.3%	31.4%	33.7%
Other	62.5%	0%	0%	37.5%

This table shows the factors Canadian students consider to be “very important” to “not considered” as part of their decision to study in the United States.

Regarding selection of an institution, the respondents indicated that the institution having the desired program of study was the most important factor, with another significant factor being the quality of education (See Table 5). The second most important factor in choice of institution was location of the institution. While not selected as the most important factor in their selection of a particular institution, a

significant number of respondents indicated that favorable scheduling options and grade requirements were key factors in their decision making process (See Table 6).

Table 5: Most Important Factor in Choice of Institution

Factors	Response (%)
Have desired program of study	34%
Location	16%
Have favorable scheduling options	15%
Quality of education	14%
Grade requirements	8%
Reputation	3%
Interaction with faculty and staff	3%
Recommendation from family and friends	3%
Availability of financial aid	2%
Other	0%

This table presents the most important factor considered by Canadian students' consider to be most important in their choice of institution.

Table 6: Factors in Decision to Study at D'Youville College

Factors	Not Considered	Not Important	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Have desired program of study	2.3%	1.1%	5.7%	90.1%
Reputation	10.3%	5.7%	31.1%	52.9%
Have favorable scheduling options	14.9%	8.1%	21.8%	55.2%
Availability of financial aid	47.8%	24.2%	14%	14%
Interaction with faculty and staff	30.2%	8.2%	30.2%	31.4%
Location	4.5%	2.3%	19.3%	73.9%
Quality of Education	3.4%	1.2%	26.4%	69%
Grade Requirements	9.3%	2.3%	37.2%	51.2%
Recommendations from family and friends	20.9%	9.3%	32.6%	37.2%
Other	77.8%	0%	11.1%	11.1%

This table shows the factors Canadian students consider to be either "very important" to "not considered" in their decision process to study at D'Youville College.

INTERNATIONAL OR DOMESTIC? WHERE DO THEY FIT?

Canadian students do resemble international students. Canadian students face similar push factors to other international students identified in the literature review. The push factors that are motivating many of the Canadian students are similar push factors to students from other nations studying abroad. These push factors include competition and lack of space in desired program of study. Also, Canadian students are mainly concerned about whether their qualifications obtained in the United States would be recognized in their home market, which is distinctly an international student perspective. On some factors, Canadian students did not resemble international students. Canadian students were not overly concerned with having a common language or the image of higher education in the United States. While these factors were important, they were not selected as most important, where these factors had been identified in the literature review as decisive factors. On other factors, Canadian students took more of a domestic student approach, especially when it came down to choice of institution. The importance placed by the Canadian students on things like location, scheduling options, and grade requirements were all factors more likely to be a main concern for a domestic student. Studies of domestic students choice of institution found that program of study was the most important factor in the choice of institution, which we also found in this study. From the results of this survey we can see that the Canadian students

studying in the United States resemble both international and domestic students.

LIMITATIONS

A limitation of this study is the use of convenience sampling employed during data collection. The data collection was limited to one institution located near the border of the United States and Canada. To obtain results it can be generalized on the factors influencing student mobility between the United States and Canada in border areas, a wider survey, with multiple institutions located in bordering regions should be conducted.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study can be used to understand the student mobility dynamic between the United States and Canada, especially pertaining to institutions in bordering regions.

Furthermore, this study indicates that Canadian students are not like traditional international students, nor do they share the same concerns as domestic students. Canadian students studying in the United States are their own distinct group, with unique concerns and trends. Institutions of higher education looking to market towards Canadian students should understand that traditional marketing materials aimed at international students may not be fully appropriate for the Canadian audience. Materials used in the institution's home market for domestic students would not be suitable either. Students on bordering regions may need their own exclusive set of materials tailored to their specific concerns. The topic of student mobility is one of many possibilities of study. Further study of Canadian students in other bordering regions would add more depth to the subject of student mobility between the countries of the United States and Canada. Other research on student mobility trends between two nations with significant student flows in other parts of the world would greatly add to the literature on globalization in higher education.

Student mobility trends differ from country to country and understanding the movement of students from one country to another will give administrators and marketers in higher education more knowledge of how to meet the needs of their unique student populations.

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APPENDIX A

Survey

The questions below were on a Likert Scale using the following values

1. Not consider in my decision 2. Not an important factor in my decision 3. Somewhat important factor in my decision 4. Very important factor in my decision

Factors influencing decision to study outside Canada

1. Unavailability of course at home
2. Broaden personal experience
3. Competitive entry requirements in home country
4. Lack of university places
5. Inability to get a place in course one wanted to study at home
6. Enhance future employment prospects
7. Absence of equivalent domestic opportunities

Overall what was the most important factor in your decision to study outside Canada?

Were there any other factors that were not included that influenced your decision to study outside of Canada?

Factors influencing decision to study in the United States

1. Favorable image of higher education in the United States
2. Common language
3. Geographical proximity
4. Know someone who studied there
5. Qualifications recognized at home
6. Value of degree in economic market
7. Prior connection or historical ties to the country
8. Intention to migrate to the United States after degree completion
9. Ability to commute or travel easily to United States
10. Ease of visa formalities

Overall, what was the most important factor in your decision to study in the United States?

Were there any other factors that were not included that influenced your decision to study in the United States?

Did you look at countries other than the United States when deciding to study outside of Canada? Yes No

Factors influencing choice of institution

1. Have desired program of study
2. Reputation
3. Have favorable scheduling options
4. Availability of financial aid
5. Interaction with faculty and staff
6. Location
7. Quality of education
8. Grade requirements
9. Recommendations from family and friends

Overall, what was the most important factor in your choice of institution in the United States? Were there any other factors that were not included that influenced your choice of institution in the United States?

Demographic Data

Age

Gender

Year of Study

Country of Origin

Field of Study

COMPETITIVITY OF RURAL TOURISTIC DESTINATIONS: PROPOSAL OF AN EVALUATION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Tourism has grown all over the world in the last 15 years and it is projected that it will continue growing. Migration of younger generations over the last few years and the decrease of rentability of primary sector activities in the rural areas have pushed inhabitants to search for new ways to potentiate the use of their natural resources. Baja California with its vast extension of rural areas has a potential to be an economic boost to the region through rural tourism activities. In this Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Outline, it is suggested to create a competitiveness evaluation model that meets the needs of Baja California, Mexico. Dimensions will be decided and analyzed through the scrutiny of the mostly used models in the literature over the years and a documentary research will extensively be done to support the model which will be applied to the managers of Rural Recreation Centers in Baja California. As per the Secretariat of Tourism, there are in Baja California 175 Rural Recreation Centers, which we do not know if they are running over competitive schemes and what do they need to foster it. A sample of 122 RRCs will be taken for the analysis.

INTRODUCTION

The so called touristic phenomenon has grown over the last 15 years and all evidence suggests that it will continue growing as primary economic sectors such as agriculture, fishing and mineral extraction in many countries and municipalities have been displaced by the tourism services and as the need of travel and recreation of the world population has increased. A vast variety of touristic destinations are still emerging and it is imperative to analyze the factors that take part in the competitiveness that can lead entities to gain an advantage over the competition. It is also important to note that given their natural resources, some rural areas have the potential and are more susceptible and suitable to be developed as touristic destinations. Unfortunately, in some parts of the world the saturation of touristic destinations have led overexploitation and decay of natural resources and endemic cultures.

Touristic destinations have a wide range of attractors that are of special interest of potential visitors which upon planning their trip consider their travel decisions upon. Some of these factors are the distance they have to travel to get there, the availability and price range of activities and lodging, cultural heritage, hygiene and security amongst others. This has been changing at a fast rate due to what Barroso and Flores (2008) stated as improvements in communication, decrease in costs of transportation, the decline of mature destinations and the appearance of new travel possibilities are important factors in the decision process on where to vacation. Different methodologies have been used to study of touristic destinations since the 1950's; however, there have not been an agreement on which model best describes the success or predicts the results of their actions.

In Mexico as in most of the world, governments have included in their agendas tourism as a way to foster economic development of their countries following the initiatives of the World Tourism Organization. To objectively compare the competitiveness of 139 countries, the World Economic Forum uses a competitive

index developed with the feedback of their Industry Partnership Program participants. They use a 14 pillar composed around 3 main indexes (1- Travel and Tourism regulatory framework 2- Travel and Tourism business environment and 3- Travel and Tourism human, cultural and natural sub indexes). In 2011 Mexico is in 43rd position, rising from 2009's 51st position. In 2011 is just below China, Bahrain, Thailand and Qatar and above Costa Rica, Puerto Rico and Israel.

In America, Mexico holds 4th place in competitiveness below the United States (6th overall), Canada (9th overall) and Barbados (28th overall). Still in 2009, Mexico held 19th place in the most visited countries ranking. Federal Government stated 2011 as the year of tourism and thru the Tourism Secretariat has planned to raise Mexico to the top 10 most visited countries position in the following ten years. It is a complex task; however it is possible if all actors (from the companies that run touristic destinations attractions to the top level government officials) collaborate together.

In the following pages, a Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Outline is presented; it is suggested to create a competitiveness evaluation model that meets the needs of Baja California, Mexico. Based on the assumption that knowing the factors that particularly contributes to the competitiveness of Baja California and its geographic distribution, vast environment diversity and remoteness, gives the state an opportunity to be developed as a premiere competitive touristic destination. Dimensions will be decided and analyzed thru the scrutiny and study in depth of the mostly used models in the literature over the years and a documentary research will extensively be done to support the model. This then will be applied to the managers of Rural Recreation Centers in Baja California.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Competitiveness of touristic destinations can be analyzed considering the supply and/or the demand part of it. As per the supply part, Merinero & Pulido (2009) asserts that literature review over the time insists that touristic destinations capability of growth and development is related to their willingness to work together and establish cooperative relationships with every related actor. On the other hand, considering the demand, the strongest factors behind a person choosing one destination over another is influenced by natural and cultural aspects of the destination Manning (1993) on Toledo et al (1998). He also points out the potential visitor search for safe and clean environment.

The term competitiveness is one of the most commonly used terms in economic theory studies, although its definition is controversial as Gonzalez et al (2009) points out. They considered that most of the debates are to define its operationalization. It has been defined and studied by many scholars. It is important to note the concept that Esser et al (1994) on Gonzalez et al (2009) established aiming the discussion to the fact that competitiveness does not come by itself, it needs to be planned, implemented and monitored. Manning (1993) on Toledo et al (1998) thus defines competitiveness to be within the possibility of the developer on keeping the attractions (natural and man-made) clean. If touristic destination want to grow and be competitive, the key development actors need to find alternatives consistent with their context, with the planned projection of the near future and aligned with their costumers needs. As Mazaro (2007) noted, they have to be integrated into creating a value chain within the visitor stay.

The Toledo, et al (1998) model is also based on Porter's diamond of competitiveness model and assumes that to achieve competitive levels at a destination level, there must be a cluster aggrupation of companies related to the economic activity. They also mention the case of Costa Rica were they have experienced tourism annual growth rates of 10.5%. one of their success factors beside the aggrupation in cluster is the

environmental conservation policies, common marketing campaigns and the segmentation of the demand in specific sectors (ie adventure, youth, nature).

The premier ranked model of Genest & Legg (2002) workbook contains a 3 phase, 7 step methodology to Evaluate, Interpret and Plan strategies for recovering the tourism economy and convert Touristic Destinations into what they named “Premier Ranked”

A critique that Dieguez, Gueimonde, Sinde, & Blanco (2011) to the notes the difficulty of Dwer & Kim’s model due to the difficulty of getting the data available for analysis.

METHODOLOGY

Background

As a consequence of the rapid growth around the world of commercial touristic activities in the last decade and according to the projections of the World Tourism Organization on Mazaro (2007); the value of touristic activities will be greater of those of the automobile and oil trades. Due to the socioeconomic restructuration given by the dramatically decrease of agriculture, cattle farming and mining as primary activities in some rural areas around the world; have driven the need of the people to merge into other type of economic activities as Flores & Barroso (2011) noted. In this regards, the available labor have reassigned the economic activity to the service area many of these to touristic activities. On the other hand, as a result of the intensive use of information technologies to market touristic destinations, the ease of long distance transportation and the increasing need of customization on travel packages.

It is imperative that touristic destinations are competitive in order to attract the quantity and quality of visitors; enough to leave an economic spill sufficient to increase the quality of living of the residents. The main goal of the National Tourism Secretariat is to lead Mexico into the top 10 touristic destinations of the world (Secretaría de Turismo, 2011) which requires that all touristic destinations to be competitive as they will be competing to attract visitors. According to the Centro de Investigación y Estudios Turísticos del Tecnológico de Monterrey (2010), the state of Baja California ranks number four in the National Tourism Competitiveness Index with 40.4/100 points, however it does not reflect the situation of the rural touristic destinations; given its nature, this methodology cannot be directly applied to evaluate the total touristic destinations as it is.

Research Problem: In order to meet the challenge of competitiveness of Baja California as a rural touristic destination, the overall destination has to be scientifically diagnosed. There are many models to evaluate the competitiveness of a touristic destination that could be used in rural areas but there is none specifically proven to work in the needs of rural touristic destination for Baja California.

Significance Of The Study: The importance of having a tool to understand the relationships of the factors that lead the competitiveness of the rural touristic destination of the state of Baja California, Mexico is the key to successfully develop competitive enterprises, projects and public policies to support them.

Thus, this study will be relevant to managers, entrepreneurs and policy makers to create a framework to build and transform companies to be more competitive and gain the trust and preference of visitors over other places near and far away.

Purpose: The intention of this research is to suggest a model to evaluate the competitiveness of rural tourism destinations.

Problem statement

What factors influence the competitiveness of Baja California as a rural touristic destination?

HYPOTHESES

H1: the strategy, structure and rivalry conditions have a positive relation to the competitiveness of Baja California as a touristic destination.

H2: the conditions of the demand have a positive relation to the competitiveness of Baja California as a touristic destination.

H3: the related and supporting industries have a positive relation to the competitiveness of Baja California as a touristic destination.

H4: the factors and conditions of the environment have a positive relation to the competitiveness of Baja California as a touristic destination.

H5: the government policies and actions have a positive relation to the competitiveness of Baja California as a touristic destination.

Theoretical Framework

Business competitive advantages at a destination level are determined in part by the macroeconomic efficiency of the units of production within; thus, competitiveness at a destination level has to be measured at the company (entrepreneur-manager) level. Per Gonzalez and Mendieta (2009), preliminary results of their study show that the three most important keys to explain local competitiveness are:

- The diversity of empirical variables used as competitive determinants
- The yet to be explored relationship between competitiveness and quality of life.
- The work of local government agencies promoting competitiveness.

Human resources capability is a mean to development and a key ingredient in a competitive recipe, as Gonzalez & Mendieta (2009) noted. When talking about rural destination competitiveness it is essential to consider the challenging situation that some of the rural community's entrepreneurs might hiring and training employees and also their own lack of managerial and planning skills. A model is a graphical representation of the variables that impact a problem. According to Bosch et al (1998) on Mazaro & Varzin (2008), there are two basic types of development models: Continuous Intensive, which is characterized by a urban congestion, densification and environment and landscape spoilage. And the Punctual Extensive, which is based on a equilibrated development and is planned to create a high end image, the landscape spaces once wasted are recovered and planned to conserve. Models are not static and need to be reviewed as the conditions of the economic environment changes.

A total of 19 different models were partially reviewed, finding that most of the models analyzed on this study are different representations and adaptations of Porter's national competitiveness diamond model, one of the most common adaptation is the addition of the sustainability variable, to note the importance of it, Ritchie and Crouch (2000) stated, competitiveness being an illusion if sustainability is not accounted for. Mazaro & Varzin (2008) critiques Toledo's et al (1998) model for not including the sustainability dimension into their model and also pointed on their study that the development of competitiveness evaluation models have to be oriented to equally reduce the environmental impact that activity has on the host community and increase the threshold of development. There is a need of the touristic destination actors (public and private) to adapt the management of the destination procedures and metrics with a comprehensible, integrated and qualitatively measurable perspective in order to be able to manage the changes required to be competitive (Mazaro & Vazin, 2008).

Limitations: Limitations of the study are the uncertainty of the context given political reasons out of control and the bias that respondents could bring to the study.

Delimitation

The study will be completed taking as objects of study the managers of the rural tourism companies in the state of Baja California as per the Tourism Secretariat.

Definitions

Important Concepts	Description
Destination (main destination) of a trip	The <i>main destination of a tourism trip</i> is defined as the place visited that is central to the decision to take the trip.
Employment in tourism industries	<i>Employment in tourism industries</i> may be measured as a count of the persons employed in <i>tourism industries</i> in any of their jobs, as a count of the persons employed in <i>tourism industries</i> in their main job, as a count of the jobs in <i>tourism industries</i> , or as full-time equivalent figures.
International tourism	<i>International tourism</i> comprises <i>inbound tourism</i> plus <i>outbound tourism</i> , that is to say, the activities of <i>resident visitors</i> outside the <i>country of reference</i> , either as part of <i>domestic</i> or <i>outbound tourism trips</i> and the activities of <i>non-resident visitors</i> within the <i>country of reference</i> on <i>inbound tourism trips</i> .
Purpose of a tourism trip (main)	The <i>main purpose of a tourism trip</i> is defined as the purpose in the absence of which the trip would not have taken place. Classification of <i>tourism trips</i> according to the <i>main purpose</i> refers to nine categories: this typology allows the identification of different subsets of <i>visitors</i> (business visitors, transit visitors, etc).
Rural tourism	It is used when the rural culture of the destination is the key component of the offered product.
Tourist (or overnight visitor)	A <i>visitor (domestic, inbound or outbound)</i> is classified as a <i>tourist (or overnight visitor)</i> , if his/her <i>trip</i> includes an overnight stay.
Travel / tourism	<i>Travel</i> refers to the activity of travellers. A traveller is someone who moves between different geographic locations, for any purpose and any duration. The visitor is a particular type of traveller and consequently tourism is a subset of travel
Trip	A <i>trip</i> refers to the travel by a person from the time of departure from his/her usual residence until he/she returns: it thus refers to a round trip. Trips taken by visitors are tourism trips.
Visit	A <i>trip</i> is made up of visits to different places. The term <i>tourism visit</i> refers to a stay in a place visited during a <i>tourism trip</i>
Visitor	A <i>visitor</i> is a traveller taking a <i>trip</i> to a main destination outside his/her <i>usual environment</i> , for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the country or place visited. A <i>visitor (domestic, inbound or outbound)</i> is classified as a <i>tourist (or overnight visitor)</i> , if his/her <i>trip</i> includes an overnight stay, or as a <i>same-day visitor (or excursionist)</i> otherwise.

per the World Tourism Organization (n.d)

METHODOLOGY

The methodology to empirically test the research hypotheses to be used on this dissertation is quantitative using relational statistical tools.

METHOD

A survey type questionnaire will be designed based upon further research on at least 15 of the reviewed models, also including social and demographical questions for control. Main variables will be measured with a 7 scales Lykert type response, open ended questions will be included to understand the context of the respondents. Tests of Validity and Reliability are to be made to the Measuring Instrument

Population definition

According to the Rural Route guide published by the State Tourism Secretariat (SECTURE, 2011). In Baja California exists 175 Rural Recreation Centers (RRC). The Guide clearly defines that the Recreation Centers are located within the state as follows.

- 9 RRC in Tijuana
- 18 RRC in Rosarito
- 45 RRC in Tecate
- 19 RRC in Mexicali
- 18 RRC in San Felipe
- 66 RRC in Ensenada

N = 175

Sample size calculation

Per Israel, 1992 sample size was determined assuming a 95% confidence level and equal proportion of variability p and q to be 50%.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

n= sample size

N= population size = 175

e= sampling error = 5%

$$n = \frac{175}{1 + 175(0.05)^2} = 122$$

Sampling size is 122 RRC in the state of Baja California.

Sampling method definition: A Clustered Proportional Random Sampling method is proposed with the following participation:

- Tijuana 6 RRC
- Rosarito 13 RRC

- Tecate 31 RRC
- Mexicali 13 RRC
- San Felipe 13 RRC
- Ensenada 46 RRC

DISCUSSIONS

The environmental decay that have been developing since the Industrial Revolution and the advancements in technologies and transportation means have led to a new dimension and the rising of a new traveler generation with customized needs and detailed specific satisfactory requirements which means that only the most agile and competitive companies will somehow grow and survive the competition. This have forced Global Organizations such as the United Nations to lead and establish conservation goals to unify the fighting for conservancy and against poverty

In Mexico, the Federal Tourism Secretariat is the one responsible to coordinate forces along the country to strengthen the tourism sector and lead the way to reach the goal to be on the top 10 touristic destination of the world. This can only be done thru competitive companies that will withhold the needed competitiveness of a specific area and create a multiplicative effect along the country. State and local governments also have in their agendas tourism activities and policies as a priority, however an increase of local touristic flow is not the solution without the competitiveness of touristic supply as an important reason of the relevance of this Doctoral Dissertation Proposal.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Models referenced in the proposal

Model name (year created, institution)
Bosch (1998)
Toledo, G. L., Valdez, J.A., Pollero, A.C. (1998)
Kosak & Rimmington (1999)
Buhalis (2000)
Hassan (2000)
Kim (2001)
Genest, J. Legg, D. (2002)
Dwyer & Kim (2003)
Ritchie and Crouch (2003)
Sanchez & Fajardo (2004)
Gooroochurn & Sugiyarto (2005)
Hu & Wall (2005)
Mazaro (2006)
Mazanec (2007)
Hong (2009)
Navickas & Malakauskaite (2009)
Indice de competitividad turística de los estados mexicanos (ITESM)
World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC)
Travel and Tourism Competitvity Index (WEF)

THE IMPACT OF MANAGEMENT CONTROL ON PERFORMANCE IN SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ACCOMODATION ENTERPRISES: A LITERATURE REVIEW AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

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ABSTRACT

The author peruses the most up to date management control-related articles. This review focuses on different aspects such as accounting, strategic planning, budgeting and forecasting, which all come under the heading, Management Control Systems. Performance Management Systems are addressed in a separate section, as they are an important issue of the management control systems, which includes the balanced scorecard and the effects of non-financial measures, as well as the data envelopment analysis. Some differences between large and small and medium-sized enterprises, within the Tourism sector, are also identified therefore researchers and professionals must agree on the need for a change. In addition to the review, the author also provides suggestions for future research.

JEL: M10

KEYWORDS: Management control systems, performance management systems, small and medium-sized enterprises, accommodation.

INTRODUCTION

One of the hallmarks of leading-edge organizations has been the successful application of performance measurement to gain insight into, and make judgments about, the organization and the effectiveness and efficiency of its programs, processes, and people (Amaratunga *et al.*, 2001). This paper focuses therefore, on the review and analysis of two major topics: the management control systems and the performance management systems as an important issue within the former.

This document pursues two main aims. The first aim is to analyze and classify the different studies to identify current research trends and work done in this field. The second is to identify and evaluate the objectives and variables of analysis presented by different researchers, which form the basis of methodological framework for future research.

Because, most studies that focus on tourism refer to large companies, the topic choice is a novelty itself, given the paucity of literature examining business practices in small and medium-sized enterprises (Phillips and Louvieris, 2005). The reason why it is important to conduct research on these issues regarding SMEs is clear. It is due to the main impact of these businesses in the global economy. In fact, SMEs have always occupied an important position in the hospitality industry and it is imperative we investigate this further to ensure their success (Quinn *et al.*, 1992) and efficient management.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Firstly, the literature on management control systems (MCS) and performance management systems (PMS) is reviewed. Secondly, we try to demonstrate the impact of MCS on performance. Then, conclusions and recommendations are presented, and the theoretical model is outlined.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature review contained in the present study aims to analyze the management control systems (MCS) and the performance management systems (PMS), in the field of small and medium-sized accommodation enterprises (SMEs). Accordingly, we start by properly defining the concepts we are going to analyze.

First, According to the second article in the Official Journal of the European Union on May 6, 2003, the Commission's recommendation on the definition of SMEs is made up of companies with fewer than 250 employees and whose annual turnover does not exceed EUR50 million or an annual balance sheet total not exceed EUR43 million. Second, MCS are defined broadly as the formalized routines and procedures that use information to maintain or alter patterns in organizational activity (Simons, 1991). According to Wood and LaForge (1981); Grinyer et al. (1986); Rhyne (1986); Ramanujan and Venkatraman (1987); Fredrickson (1984), (cited in Lyles 1993), the formality of planning has been measured by assessing such procedures as the degree of planning manual usage, the amount of emphasis on developing written plans and/or the existence of specific schedules for formulating plans.

Finally, PM is defined as the process of quantifying past action, according to Neely (1998) cited in Amaratunga *et al.*, (2001). However, it is a useful tool for implementing long-term change (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). In the literature, we find a variety of articles examining the management control procedures, which covers a wide range of issues, such as accounting, practice, budgeting and strategic planning, which all come under the heading, MCS (See Table 1). Furthermore, PMS represent an important issue of the management control systems, which includes the balanced scorecard and the effects of non-financial measures, as well as the data envelopment analysis (See Table 2).

Strategic Planning as Management Control Systems (MCS)

Several authors argue the positive impact that a more formal planning exerts on business performance (Robinson and Pearce, 1988; Lyles *et al.*, 1993; Wijewardena *et al.*, 2004). In fact, the use of planning tends to increase with firm size according to Berman, Gordon, and Sussman (1997) and, Robinson and Pearce (1984) (cited in Wijewardena *et al.* 2004).

Initially, Robinson and Pearce (1983) suggested that there were no differences between firms using formal and informal planning. However, the results of later studies highlight the positive impact that strategic planning has on the performance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and document the low degree of planning in such firms (Robinson and Pearce, 1984). Thus, note that a planning sophistication-strategic orientation interaction exists (Robinson and Pearce, 1988).

Lyles *et al.* (1993) demonstrated a positive relationship between planning and performance of SMEs. Firms with no written strategic plan were covered as non-formal planners and those with written plans were classified as formal planners. This study is an advance in this field showing the benefits of formal planning in SMEs. Wijewardena *et al.*, (2004) has empirically demonstrated the significant relationship between planning and control sophistication in sales performance. In essence, the findings of the study

suggest that the greater the sophistication in both planning and control processes, the higher the sales growth. However, it presents some limitations on the numbers of performance variables analyzed, needing further studies to prove this relationship.

Table 1: Management Control Systems

Author/s Hesford and Potter (2010)	Type of research Theoretical	Sample NA	Scope/Target Tourism	Sources Literature	Theoretical framework Accounting practice Cost management
Jones (2008)	Quantitative	31 (UK)	Hotel industry	Questionnaire: Likert-5/Nominal/Ordinal	Strategic management control Budgets
Lyles, <i>et al.</i> (1993)	Quantitative	188 (USA)	SMEs	Pre-test: Interviews Questionnaire: Likert-5/Nominal	Budgetary control Planning formality Strategic process Business performance
Marginson (2002)	Qualitative	1 case (UK)	Telecommunications	Case study: Interviews	Management control systems Strategic process Simons' model (1991, 1994, 1995)
Robinson and Pearce (1983)	Quantitative	85 (Carolina)	Small banks	Questionnaire: Likert-4/Nominal	Planning formality Financial performance SMEs
Robinson and Pearce (1984)	Theoretical	NA	Management	Literature	Strategic planning SMEs
Robinson and Pearce (1988)	Quantitative	97 (Carolina)	Manufacturing firms	Questionnaire: Likert-5	Strategic orientations Performance Planning process
Simons (1991)	Qualitative	30 (USA)	Health care industry	Interviews	Management control systems Strategy Simons' model (1987)
Simons (1994)	Qualitative	10 (USA)	Various	Interviews Longitudinal analysis	Management control systems Strategic change Simons' model (1987, 1990, 1991)
Steed and Gu (2009)	Quantitative	42 (USA)	Hotel industry	Questionnaire: Likert-5/Nominal/Ordinal	Budgeting/Forecasting Efficiency
Wijewardena, <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Quantitative	168 (Sri Lanka)	Manufacturing SMEs	Questionnaire: Nominal/Ordinal	Planning sophistication Control sophistication Performance measurement

Tourism-related articles are in bold

MCS appear as levers for strategic change. Simons (1991) shows how top managers in the health care industry use specific control systems for implementing strategic objectives. Subsequently, the author examines, by taking samples from different sectors, how MCS are used by managers to communicate new strategies, establish implementation targets and ensure the continuity of new strategic initiatives (Simons, 1994). Marginson (2002) offers a rich portrait of how MCS might strengthen strategic change, innovation and business performance.

Accounting And Budgeting As Management Control Systems (MCS)

Historically, accounting has been the basic tool of control for managers. Budgeting has also played a dominant role as a technique for evaluation and control. Even today, budgets remain one of the most

widely MCS techniques used. For instance, Jones (2008) discovered three key reasons why organizations in the hospitality industry developed budgets as a tool for management control, performance evaluation and planning. Currently, budgets can be viewed as a forecasting tool in the short term (one year). However, in order to align strategy and business objectives in the long term, the need for advanced forecasting (5-10 years) arises. In this way, Steed and Gu (2009) document the budgeting and forecasting practices in the hospitality industry. They also identified significant differences in processes between large and small hotel management companies. Hesford and Potter (2010) show a complete collection of accounting research papers that were published in the *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, which includes issues that involve accounting practice, cost management and strategic management controls. The authors have presented various explanations for accounting topics such as budgets, costs and performance measurement. Some problems and limitations are drawn from this study, related to the limits of cost assignment and the misuse of flexible budgets and non-financial measures.

Performance Management Systems (PMS) as Management Control Systems (MCS)

Performance measurement is a very useful tool for management control systems. According to contemporary approaches, to improve business performance in management fields, the Balanced Scorecard (BSC) is widely used as management framework instead of the traditional ratio analysis. However, we also found further recent studies that use data envelopment analysis (DEA) to analyze the efficiency and performance, which also deserves our attention.

Table 2: Performance Management Systems

Author/s Amaratunga, et al. (2001)	Type of research Theoretical	Sample NA	Scope/Target Management	Sources Literature	Theoretical framework Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1992, 1996)
Banker, <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Qualitative	1 case (USA)	Hotel chain	Interviews	Performance measurement Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1992, 1996)
Chen (2011)	Quantitative	1 case (Taiwan)	Hotel chain	Longitudinal analysis DEA Model	Non financial measures Financial measures Performance measurement
Cruz (2007)	Qualitative	2 cases (Portugal)	Hotel industry	Interviews	Business efficiency Control practices Performance measurement
Denton and White (2000) Kaplan and Norton (1996)	Qualitative Theoretical	1 case NA	Hotel chain Management	Experimental Literature	Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1996) Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1992) Strategy
Neves and Lourenço (2009)	Quantitative	83/2 cases (Global)	Hotel industry	DEA Model Longitudinal analysis	Performance measurement
Phillips and Louvieris (2005)	Qualitative	10 cases (UK)	Tourism SMEs	Interviews	Strategic analysis Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1996)
Sainaghi (2010)	Theoretical	NA	Hotel industry	Literature	Performance measurement Kaplan y Norton's BSC (1992, 1996) Performance measurement

Tourism-related articles are in bold

In 1992, Kaplan and Norton revolutionized conventional thinking about performance metrics by going beyond traditional measures of financial performance. In later work, Kaplan and Norton (1996) showed that non-financial indicators were extremely valuable for predicting future financial performance rather

than simply reporting the past. This work describes how the BSC can help managers to link current actions to future goals becoming a strategic management system for teamwork and innovation.

Denton and White (2000) show the advantages of implementing the BSC in a hotel chain, in order to achieve the long-term objectives, move into new strategic areas and identify negative trends in the early stages. Amaratunga *et al.* (2001) extend the Kaplan and Norton's BSC by showing a novel view to deploy strategic direction, communicate expectations and measure progress towards agreed objectives. According to these authors, the key approach to overcome the BSC implementation is to develop a systematic and structured improvement process to support the measurement system. Phillips and Louvieris (2005) highlight performance management as a determining factor for the success of tourism SMEs and show how companies can adopt the BSC to improve PMS. Sainaghi (2010) highlights the relevance the BSC has gained in the hospitality industry as a satisfactory PMS.

Cruz (2007) states that budgets remain a valuable management tool in the tourism context. She also shows how new performance measurement practices employed by international hotel companies can be adapted to local areas where these companies operate. Although there is still much confidence in financial reporting as a business strategy, non-financial measures are increasingly taken into account (Phillips and Louvieris, 2005). The most successful companies consider these measures as the key for future business performance as will be reflected in long-term financial performance (Denton and White, 2000). Banker, *et al.* (2005) empirically show how improvements in the non-financial measures of a hotel chain were followed shortly by increases in revenue and profit. In the last 20 years, academics and professionals have been arguing that performance management is only possible if the PMS reflects the company's multidimensional nature, according to Anthony and Govindarajan (2003); Kaplan and Norton (1992, 1993, 1996) and Zhu (2000), (cited in Neves and Lourenço, 2009).

The main criticism of this stream of thought is that multiple measures may divert management attention from the organizations' objectives. Therefore, it has been suggested that a subjective weighted average rate may generate a performance index from the BSC. In this sense, the data envelopment analysis (DEA) satisfies the criticism where the weights applied to each variable within the model are determined to maximize the performance index of each decision-making unit (Neves and Lourenço, 2009). Very few studies use the DEA model to measure performance in the hotel industry. Neves and Lourenço (2009) show how DEA can be used in strategic management and performance measurement in the hospitality industry, being a novel alternative technique to traditional ratio analysis. Chen (2011) also uses DEA as a technique to analyze each unit's relative use of inputs and its relative production of outputs in a hotel chain, proving to be a useful tool for multiple performance measurement. Through this approach, the hotel chain's inefficiencies can be detected and managers can focus on improving performance.

CONCLUSIONS

With regard to the management control systems and the performance management systems it is not a new research in management discipline, but in Tourism it is a novelty, as very little research has been done. The articles reviewed have contributed to a greater understanding of management practices, analyzing issues related to accounting information systems, management control, strategic planning and the use of the balanced scorecard as a primary tool to measure the organizations' performance (See Table 3).

Table 3: Main topics reviewed

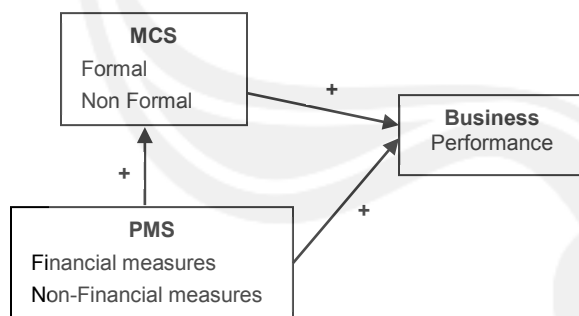
Management Control Systems (MCS)	
Strategic planning: Formal and Non formal planners	
Accounting: Cost Management, Budgeting & Forecasting	
Performance management systems (PMS)	
BSC ^a Methodology	
DEA ^b Model	

^a Balanced Scorecard; ^b Data Envelopment Analysis

The main conclusions from the review relate mainly to the relevance of this research. The analyzed studies demonstrate a significant association between the use of MCS and PMS on the overall organizations' performance (Robinson and Pearce, 1988; Lyles *et al.*, 1993; Wijewardena *et al.*, 2004). Firstly, the use of different MCS and PMS promote the strategic implementation and the execution of organizational goals (Lyles *et al.*, 1993; Simons, 1994; Kaplan and Norton, 1996; Marginson, 2002). Secondly, performance measurement arises as a key factor for SMEs success in the accommodation industry (Phillips and Louvieris, 2005), turning the Kaplan and Norton's methodology into a very useful tool for measuring performance (Denton and White, 2000; Banker *et al.*, 2005; Phillips and Louvieris, 2005; Sainaghi, 2010) and management control. Further, any improvement on non-financial measures results in revenues and profits increasing in the short term (Banker *et al.*, 2005). Finally, the use of budgets as a control technique is highly relevant in the hospitality industry (Cruz, 2007; Jones, 2008; Steed and Gu, 2009).

According to the main conclusions mentioned above, this interplay between MCS, PMS and performance is depicted in Figure 1, which establishes the conceptual framework for future researches.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model



This figure shows the relationship between management control systems (MCS), performance management systems (PMS) and business performance.

The review so far, suggests that little is known about SMEs within the tourism industry. In general, future research should focus on further understanding of the links between management control and performance, as no set criteria is clear. In this sense, the development of more qualitative studies will be an advance towards a better in depth understanding of the issues. There is a need for articles using experimental and analytical methods that employ a more consistent statistical analysis, which allows a better fit of the relationship between variables; this will contribute positively to the science and the

tourism industry. The main concern for future research is about discovering why some companies use formal systems whilst others use informal systems and the consequences they have on organizational performance. This subject should be considered especially in SMEs, as there are significant differences between SMEs and large companies (Steed and Gu, 2009). Cross-studies regarding the use of these control systems in different areas and economic sectors, such as tourism, should help identify these companies' contributions in the global economy. As tourism is the world's largest industry and due to the prominent role of SMEs in the global economy, new studies relating to these issues are necessary with performance improvement being the main objective.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study is part of a broader research line on management control, which has been started by the Doctoral Program "Scientific Perspectives on Tourism and Hospitality Management", which is offered by the University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria.

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DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF ADVENTURE TOURISTS IN PRETORIA

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ABSTRACT

Adventure tourism is not a well-defined segment in the discipline of tourism studies. It is therefore difficult to examine the different motivations and segment differentiations in niche markets such as adventure tourism. In order to assist adventure tourism companies towards identifying and developing effective marketing strategies to attract or penetrate the adventure niche market, this study aims to contribute towards the current understanding of adventure tourists by compiling a demographic profile of such tourists. This profile includes the gender, age, ethnic group, family life cycle stage, household type, as well as the income and expenditure rates. Two hundred and fifty adventure tourists who used the products/services of adventure tourism companies within Pretoria participated in this study. However, because of incomplete self-completing questionnaires that could affect the outcome of this study, the sample size that realized were 234, a 93.6% response rate.

The results indicate that a typical adventure tourist in Pretoria is generally Afrikaans speaking individuals between the ages of 28 and 49 years (born between 1960 and 1981). These individuals are mostly part of a family, because a large segment is married with no children or have two children who are above the age of twelve years. Adventure tourists in Pretoria tend to be further educated as Technicians and Associate Professionals, or Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers whose gross individual income ranges between R10 001 and R29 999 per month. Their households tend to consist of two or four people and there are generally two income earners per household.

This study established that there is a need to further research comprehensive adventure tourist profiles that is equally accepted and interpreted. These findings could assist adventure tourism companies to promote and sell specific activities and experiences that will meet the specific needs and wants of identified target markets.

JEL: M000

KEYWORDS: tourism; adventure tourism; market segmentation; demographic profiles

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is the act of travel for predominantly recreational or leisure purposes and refers to the provision of services in support of this act. Tourists are people who travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year – for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (World Tourism Organization [WTO], 1991). Adventure tourism, according to Andrews (2007:21), is a type of tourism involving exploration or travel to remote, exotic and possibly hostile areas where the tourist should "expect the unexpected". Adventure tourism is rapidly growing in popularity because tourists increasingly look for different kinds of vacations. According to the Adventure Travel and Trade Association (2005) of the

United States of America, *adventure tourism* may be any tourist activity that can include two of the following three components: a physical activity, a cultural exchange or interaction, and an engagement with nature. While these characteristics might constitute the motivation for participation in adventure activities for some, it can also be a deterrent for others not to participate in adventure activities.

An exhaustive search of existing literature did not reveal any profiles of adventure tourists – only general classifications or definitions used to attract all possible adventure tourism groups were found. Furthermore, Heyniger and Consulting (2008:2) suggest that adventure tourism is not a well-defined segment in the discipline of tourism studies. Therefore, it is difficult to examine the different motivations and segment differentiations in niche markets such as adventure tourism. As a result, adventure tourism companies need to include target marketing as a core element of strategic marketing management in order to identify the parts of the market it can best serve, rather than trying to compete in an entire mass market. This could assist adventure tourism companies to promote and sell specific activities and experiences that will meet the specific needs and wants of their identified niche target market.

Against this background, the primary objective of this investigation was to develop a demographic profile of adventure tourists in Pretoria with a view to assist adventure tourism companies to promote and sell specific activities and experiences that will meet the specific needs and wants of their identified niche target markets. More specifically, the secondary objectives of this investigation were to explore the notions of market segmentation, market targeting, and market positioning in order to explain how these elements contribute towards profiling consumers; and to identify the demographic descriptors applicable to adventure tourists.

This investigation starts with reviewing the literature applicable to demographic segmentation and this is followed by discussing the research methodology and data analysis techniques used. This is followed by a presentation of the findings. This investigation concludes with a discussion of the findings and the managerial implications, research limitations, and recommended directions for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although tourism, as suggested by Kalbassi (2010:51), is one of the world's largest industries, it is still difficult to define its limits and decide what counts as tourism. As mentioned earlier, many definitions of tourism are lodged within a leisure and recreational context. Therefore, tourism shares strong fundamental characteristics and theoretical foundations with the recreation and leisure field of study. The exact size of the adventure tourism market is still debated because of (1) the lack of a standard adventure tourism definition; (2) the fact that the phenomenon of adventure tourism is both new and complex; (3) the majority of available research on adventure tourism is kept confidential as it is collected for individual companies' marketing purposes; (4) government and industry awareness of adventure tourism is not equally developed worldwide; and (5) the available data on adventure tourism is difficult to use due to a lack of comparability.

Although it is difficult to measure the market, Fluker and Turner (2000:380) explain that the adventure tourism market is a newly emerging, fast-growing sector of tourism. Swarbrooke, Beard, Leckie, and Pomfret (2003:55) further concur that although the adventure tourism market appeals to an expanding population who are seeking self-fulfillment and excitement through participating in physically and mentally stimulating activities, the patterns of consumer behavior are in a constant state of flux.

Loverseed (1997:93) suggested in the 1990s already that satisfaction and self-actualization appear to be crucial in understanding tourists' engagement with an activity or a product for a specific purpose to satisfy their specific interest and needs. However, Weber (2001:368-370) recommends that when analyzing the decision-making process, researchers should obtain information regarding tourists' characteristics and their consumer and travel behavior because anticipating and meeting tourists' needs are the key to success.

Adventure tourism research has received relatively little attention in academic literature and the focus of studies in this field tends to be on accidents or injuries. In addition, adventure tourism is mentioned in some texts of ecotourism, outdoor recreation and park management, but not explored in much detail. Authors such as Fennel and Eagles (1990), Fennel (1999), Page and Dowling (2001), as well as Weed (2008) include adventure tourism typologies within their publications. However, it appears to be only Hudson (2003), Swarbrooke et al. (2003), as well as Buckley and Cater (2007) whose publications specifically focus on the concept of adventure tourism. In addition, research investigations with an adventure tourism focus have been published by Bentley, Page and Laird (2001), Beedie and Hudson (2003), Gyimothy and Mykletun (2004), Cater (2006), as well as Bentley and Page (2008). However, profiling adventure tourists does not form the focus of their research, as this investigation proposes to do.

Adventure tourism companies ought to recognize that they cannot appeal to all consumers in the same way (mass/undifferentiated marketing). Yang, Wall and Smith (2008:753) indicate that "consumers are too numerous, too widely scattered, and too varied in their needs and buying practices". Furthermore, different companies vary widely in terms of their ability to serve different segments of the market. As a result, Kurtz (2008:281) suggests that every company should implement differentiated marketing strategies.

In order to implement an effective target-marketing strategy, companies should follow the three major steps of target marketing. Target marketing, as set out by Kotler (2000:256) coincides with the model of Rudra (2008:48). The *first* step, market segmentation, involves: (1) dividing a market into distinct groups of consumers with different needs, characteristics, or behaviors who might require separate products/services or marketing mixes (segmentation bases), as well as identifying different bases to segment the market, and (2) developing profiles of the resulting market segments. The *second* step, market targeting, involves: (3) developing measures for every market segment's attractiveness and (4) selecting one or more of the market segments to enter. The *third* step, market positioning, involves: (5) developing the competitive positioning for the product/service and (6) developing a detailed marketing mix for every segment.

As developing profiles require the implementation of an identified segmentation basis, the following section will explore demographic segmentation as a sub-section of market segmentation, as well as how these elements contribute to developing a demographic profile of adventure tourists.

Market Segmentation

Markets consist of consumers and consumers, according to Waldfogel (2008:569-570), may differ in their wants, resources, locations, buying attitudes, and buying practices. Ideally, every consumer can be viewed as a potentially separate market because consumers have unique needs and wants (customization). The role of market segmentation, according to Kurtz (2008:281), is to divide the total market into smaller,

relatively homogenous groups. This is necessary in today's business world because there are too many variables in consumer needs, preferences, and purchasing power to attempt attracting all consumers with a single marketing mix.

This does not necessarily mean that adventure tourism companies should change their products/services in order to meet the needs of different market segments, but it does suggest that adventure tourism companies should attempt to identify the factors that affect consumers' purchase decisions; group consumers according to the presence or absence of these factors; and then adjust their marketing strategies in order to meet the needs of the selected group(s) of consumers. Market segmentation presents numerous advantages and disadvantages to adventure tourism companies. The *advantages* of using market segmentation, according to Musyoka, Mutyaulyu, Kiema, Karanja, and Siriba (2007:633) are: easier marketing as it is simpler to address the needs of smaller groups of consumers if they have many characteristics in common; finding niches (locating under-served or un-served markets will enable a new company or new product/service to target less contested marketplaces and helps a mature product/service to seek new consumers); and, efficiency (creating a more efficient use of marketing resources by focusing on the segments with the best potential). The *disadvantages* of using market segmentation, according to George (2001:121), are: developing separate market products/services are expensive; it may be difficult for the company to know how accurately or broadly to segment the market; and lastly, there is a tendency to appeal to markets that are not viable.

Taking the above into consideration it can be concluded that market segmentation is the process of breaking a larger target market into smaller groups with specific characteristics. Every group requires different promotional strategies and marketing mixes because every group has different wants and needs. An understanding of a group's characteristics such as personality, social class and lifestyle plays a vital role in developing a successful marketing strategy (Kurtz, 2008:283).

As previously indicated, there are two steps involved in market segmentation, namely: (1) identifying the bases for segmenting various markets; and (2) developing profiles of the resulting market segments. These steps form the basis of this investigation and will now be further explored.

Bases of Market Segmentation

Companies can identify four different bases for segmenting markets, namely geographical, demographical, psychographical and behavioral. However, according to studies by Kotler, Bowen & Makens (2006:263), demographic characteristics should be known to assess the size of the market and to reach it effectively. Therefore, for the purpose of this investigation, the focus will be on exploring the demographical bases to segment a market. Following is a description of six demographic segmentation variables.

(1) *Gender*-Gender is a variable that helps define markets for certain products/services; yet, segmenting by gender can be tricky. Gender segmentation is in some cases obvious, according to Kurtz (2008:287). However, adventure tourism companies may have to segment their markets differently if a 'typical' male or female product/service is not clearly identifiable. Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2006:269) suggest that companies' marketing strategies should rather be aimed at consumer interests rather than gender as gender marketing is more effective when combined with lifestyle and/or demographics.

(2) *Age* Age is another variable that adventure tourism companies could use to segment their markets. However, as with gender, age distinctions have become blurred as consumers' roles and needs change, as age distribution shifts, and as studied changes take place in every group. Adventure tourism companies can benefit from taking into consideration the sociological concept called the cohort effect. Kurtz (2008:288) describes this concept as "... the tendency of members of a generation to be influenced and bound together by significant events occurring during their key formative years." The cohort effect helps to define the core values of the age group that eventually shape consumer preferences and behavior. In order for adventure tourism companies to be effective, they need to understand some basic characteristics of the cyber generation, generation Y, generation X, baby boomers, and the silent generation.

(3) *Ethnic group*- Companies are increasingly segmenting the market according to ethnic groups with a view to increase their market share. Companies then tend to target the largest and fastest growing ethnic groups (Kurtz, 2008:290-293), as well as ethnic groups with the most disposable income. The focus then is to inform and attract these groups as spending by these groups are rising at a faster pace than what is the case for general households.

(4) *Family life cycle stages*-As people move from one life-cycle stage to another, they become potential consumers of different types of goods and services (Frash, Antun & Hodges, 2008:382). Therefore, adventure tourism companies should consider whether a consumer is a young single person, a young couple, a full nester, an empty nester, a single parent, a blended couple or an older single person when developing their marketing approaches.

(5) *Household type*-The average household size in South Africa, as indicated by the Health Systems Trust (2007), has decreased from 4.5 in 1995 to 3.9 in 2007. Hayami and Okada (2005:201) explain that the trend towards smaller households could include lower fertility rates, young people's tendency to postpone marriage, the frequency of divorce, and the ability and desire of many people to live alone. Today's households represent a wide range of diversity.

Households, according to Kurtz (2008:294), could include a household with a married couple and their children; a household that is blended through divorce, or the loss of a spouse and remarriage; a household with a single parent, same-sex parents or grandparents; couples without children; groups of friends; and single-person households. It is important for adventure tourism companies to identify household trends, should these be applicable, in order to modify their marketing approach, so that they will be able to meet the needs of different groups.

(6) *Income and expenditure rates*-Companies often target geographic areas known for the high incomes of their residents, and/or they might consider age or household types when determining potential buying power. In order to identify how expenditure patterns vary with income, adventure tourism companies could utilize Engel's Law. Ernst Engel, a German statistician, published what is known as the *Engel Curve*, or *Engel's Law*. This law states that the higher a family's income the smaller the proportion of it is spent on food; the percentage spent on housing, household operations and clothing remain constant; and the percentage spent on other items (education and recreation) increases (Engel, 2009). Engel's conclusion was based on a budget study of 153 Belgian families and was later verified by a number of other statistical inquiries into consumer behavior. It is evident that adventure tourism companies could utilize Engel's Law when segmenting their markets according to income and expenditure rates.

To conclude the discussion on demographic segmentation, it is important to keep in mind that demographic segmentation as a basis can be helpful, but it can also lead to stereotyping, as indicated by Kurtz (2008:287). Furthermore, it can alienate a potential market or cause adventure tourism companies to miss a potential market altogether. The idea is to use demographic segmentation as a starting point and not as an only alternative.

The discussion on market segmentation addressed the first step of the market segmentation process; the next section will elaborate on how to develop profiles of the resulting market segments.

Profiles of Resulting Market Segments

Profiling is the second and last step of the market segmentation process and this concludes the first step of the target marketing process. Before a marketing program aimed at a specific market segment (differentiated marketing) can be developed, adventure tourism companies should understand the typical consumer in that market. According to Czinkota et al. (2000:225), a detailed picture of a market segment is called a *profile*. A profile, according to Hanson, Rauniyar and Herrmann (1994:303), should paint a clear picture of the typical consumer by using applicable segmentation variables. For the purpose of this investigation, the demographic variables were identified and discussed above. Although a profile is a generalized average of the typical consumer in a segment (Mostafa, 2009:11034), profiling is very important because the usefulness of market segmentation is precipitated upon accurate profiling. Relatively low accuracy in forecasting segment membership will result in ineffective marketing programs and may have a potential negative impact due to targeting unintended segment members.

As the primary research purpose of this investigation was to develop a demographic profile of adventure tourists, step one and two of the market segmentation (step one of the target marketing process) forms the basis of this investigation. The resulting information gained through implementing this process will address the research problem of this investigation. In order to identify how this investigation's resulting information can be utilized by adventure tourism companies, companies should implement market targeting and market positioning strategies. Detailed discussions of these strategies fall outside the scope of this investigation but could form part of future research.

METHODOLOGY

This paper is based on applied research in order to attain the stated objectives and find a solution to the research problem. This paper is based on the descriptive research approach because of the specific information requirements. A quantitative methodology is used because the methodology of this paper is grounded in the positivist social sciences paradigm.

The target population consisted of all adventure tourists within Pretoria, and the sample consisted of adventure tourists using the products/services of adventure tourism companies within Pretoria. Non-probability sampling in the form of quota and convenience sampling was used to select the sample members. Quota sampling with predetermined parameters was used to ensure data comparability. The sample consisted of 250 adventure tourists of whom 50% were male and 50% female. However, because of incomplete questionnaires that could affect the outcome of this paper, the sample that actually realized was 234, providing a 93.6% response rate. Lastly, convenience sampling was applied because the selection of sample members was based on their proximity to the researcher and the ease with which participants could be accessed.

A list of adventure tourism companies presenting adventure tourism activities at their premises within Pretoria was compiled with the assistance of the Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA), the GSA (industry magazine), the Indaba traders' catalogue, the Internet, and personal interviews. The list consisted of 35 adventure tourism companies; however, due to a lack of cooperation by some of these companies, the final list comprised of 20 adventure tourism companies. The sample size was divided into the number of adventure tourism companies to ensure that an equal number of responses were obtained when these companies were visited. The aim was to include as many as possible adventure tourists participating at adventure tourism companies, in order to obtain a representative sample.

Prior to distributing the questionnaires, 30 first and second year adventure tourism students at the Tshwane University of Technology completed a pilot questionnaire in order to determine the analytical capability and the effectiveness of the questionnaire as a research instrument. Based on the feedback received from the pilot paper, adjustments were made to the questionnaire before it was distributed. Self-completing questionnaires were distributed among adventure tourists using the products/services of adventure tourism companies in Pretoria. To ensure that these tourists have participated in at least one adventure activity, the researcher approached them to participate in the study after they have completed their activities. This approach was necessary because the purpose of this paper was to profile *adventure* tourists and not tourists in general. The researcher administered the pilot and fieldwork.

The questionnaire was specifically designed for the purpose of this paper. Questionnaires used in previous profiling studies were consulted as a guideline during the construction of this questionnaire, such as (1) the questionnaire used by Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008) for profiling golf tourists attending an international golf event in South Africa, and (2) the questionnaire used by Muthaya (2009) for segmenting the international market. Furthermore, the literature review served as a guideline to ensure that all the demographic variables were included in order to address the objective of this paper. The questionnaire followed a positivistic approach and consisted of closed-ended, dichotomous, multi-choice and two ranking scale questions that required the participants to rank their personality, social class, and lifestyle. The guidelines for constructing questions (Babbie, 2009:262-270) and the Code of Ethics (Jennings, 2001:98) were followed to aid the success of data collection and analysis.

Reliability is a complex issue in the social sciences because the fact that human nature changes over time and space means that consistency with previous research findings is by no means a guarantee of reliability. The reliability of the questions in the questionnaire posted to the sample was tested by using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient. According to the Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for all the items tested in the questionnaire, 0.7388 indicated raw variables and 0.7302 indicated standardized variables, which were more than the acceptable level of 0.70. Therefore, the questionnaire used for the purpose of this paper proves to be reliable and consistent.

Data validation is the process of ensuring that a program operates on clean, correct and useful data. Each variable was tested to fall within these boundaries. These boundaries were pre-programmed into the Microsoft Access database on which the pre-coded data was captured. Thereafter, the data was imported into the SAS (Statistical Analysis Software) format through the SAS Access module to perform a univariate and bivariate analysis. Data accuracy and correctness were ensured by capturing the data twice and comparing the two data sets for errors. Errors could be in the form of an invalid code or an unexpected missing value. By referencing back to the original questionnaires, all errors were traced in the data file and corrected. However, construct validation can only be taken to the point where the questionnaire measures what it is suppose to measure. As the questionnaire was suppose to develop a

demographic profile of adventure tourists, construct validity was assured during the planning and development stage of the questionnaire. The final data outputs were validated and checked by the research statistician.

FINDINGS

Demographic descriptors are those innate economic, geographical, and social attributes that constitute an individual and describe the location of that individual in his or her social environment. Demographic characteristics provide the impetus for both tangible and intangible variations among the ways consumers think, feel and act. This study used pre-determined demographic descriptors in order to provide an overall picture of the respondents' gender, age, ethnic group, family life cycle stage, household type, as well as their income and expenditure rates. The primary objective of this investigation was to develop a demographic profile of adventure tourists in Pretoria. In order to achieve this objective the demographic descriptors applicable to adventure tourists within this area were identified. A univariate and bivariate analysis was performed on all variables; displaying means, standard deviations, frequencies, percentages, cumulative frequencies and cumulative percentages. The univariate and bivariate statistics for the demographic variables enabled the development of the demographic profile of adventure tourists.

Gender

An equal number of respondents are male (49.4%) and female (49.4%), whereas 1.2% of the respondents did not stipulate their gender. This is an important factor to mention as it facilitated the comparison of adventure tourists' profiles.

Age

The age descriptors were divided into the sociological concept of the cohort effect. 32.1% of the respondents are part of the generation Y age group (born 1982-2001), 57.3% are from the generation X age group (born 1960-1981), 9.8% are from the baby boomers age group (born 1943-1960), and 0.4% are from the silent generation age group (born 1925-1942).

Ethnic group

More than half of the respondents (51.7%) belong to the Afrikaans-speaking (linguistic) ethnic group, 23.9% of the respondents are from the English-speaking (linguistic) ethnic group, and 24.4% of the respondents are from other ethnic groups. Not all the ethnic groups are specified because many companies tend to target the largest and/or fastest growing ethnic groups (Kurtz, 2008:290-293).

Family life cycle stage

The majority of the respondents comprise of families (41.9%) and pre-families (26.9%) as they are married (49.6%) or single (30.8%) with no children (38.0%) or two children (35.0%) older than twelve years of old (64.1%). However, 17.1% of the respondents have one child that is under the age of twelve, 14.5% have two children under the age of twelve, 3.4% have three children under the age of twelve, and 0.4% has four or more children under the age of twelve. This is an important factor to identify seeing that most adventure tourism companies provide special activities and discounted prices for children under the age of twelve.

Household type

Adventure tourism companies should identify household trends in order to modify their marketing approach, so that they will be able to meet the needs of different groups. It is important to note that there are various household types within Pretoria, for example foster parents/children, but for the purposes of this study, the ten most common household types have been used. As indicated in Table 1, a large percentage of the respondents (24.4%) are married with children (the children would select the same option if their parents were married), and this exceeds single person households with only 9%.

Table 1: Household Type

Household type	Frequency	Percentage
Married with children	57	24.4%*
Single person household	36	15.4%**
Couples without children	33	14.1%
Couples with children	29	12.4%
Single parent household	24	10.3%
Married without children	19	8.1%
Household blended through divorce	16	6.8%
Group of friends living in a commune	12	5.1%
Grandparents	6	2.6%
Same sex parents	2	0.8%

This table indicates the type of households that adventure tourists in Pretoria occupy.

**Most represented sample ** Second largest represented sample*

Furthermore, a large number of households (25.6%) consist of two people and households consisting of four members (25.2%) closely follow this segment. This coincides with the results obtained in the family life cycle stage.

Income and expenditure rates

In order to identify how expenditure patterns vary in terms of income, adventure tourism companies should consider the level of education, current occupation, individual income, and the number of income earners within a household of their target markets. For the purposes of this study, the respondents' responses to their education level are divided into the three levels of education used in South Africa. The *general* level of education comprises an NQF (National Qualification Forum) Level 1 (Grade R to Grade 9 school grades). The *further* level of education comprises the NQF Level 2 (Grade 10), NQF Level 3 (Grade 11) and NQF Level 4 (Grade 12). The *higher* level of education comprises the NQF Level 5 (Certificate, Higher certificate and First diploma), NQF Level 6 (Bachelor's degree, Professional first-degree post-graduate, General first degree), NQF Level 7 (Postgraduate diploma, Honors degree, Master's degree), and NQF Level 8 (Doctoral degree).

Based on the results, the respondents are normally *further* (67.1%) or *higher* (30.8%) educated Technicians and Associate Professionals (27.8%) or Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers (24.4%) whose gross individual income ranges between R10 001 and R19 999 per month (26.5%) or R20 000 and R29 999 per month (20.9%). Their households generally consist of one (32.5%) or two (58.6%) income earners per household.

To conclude, numerous adventure tourism companies should view marketing as a major tool to reach their target markets who in return needs to understand the nature and benefits of the adventure tourism companies' products and/or services. Adventure tourism companies should also use different marketing

methods and techniques to meet the varying levels of understanding tourists. Moreover, they should further consistently analyze, plan, develop, deliver, evaluate, and update their marketing campaigns to meet their marketing objectives whilst meeting the demand of their target markets.

DISCUSSION

The primary objective of this paper was to develop a demographic profile of adventure tourists in Pretoria; more specifically, the secondary objectives of this paper were to explore the notions of market segmentation, market targeting, and market positioning in order to explain how these elements contribute towards profiling consumers; and to identify the demographic descriptors applicable to adventure tourists.

Summary of Findings and Managerial Implications

Technical definitions of tourism are commonly used by companies seeking to define their target markets. Although, the WTO definitions are applied by the majority of users to define tourism-related terms, Page and Connell (2006:12) indicated that there are different interpretations between countries where tourism statistics are gathered. They suggest that international comparisons can only be made if statistics are equally defined, collected, and analyzed. This exemplifies a need for a tourism classification that can evolve and accommodate more complex forms of tourism, such as adventure tourism. According to Page and Connell (2006:16), a robust system is required to classify and measure tourism-related terms.

The importance of implementing target-marketing strategies when developing consumer profiles were identified. This study's empirical research identified that adventure tourism companies cannot appeal to all consumers in the market and they cannot successfully approach all consumers in the same way. It is recommended that adventure tourism companies should identify sections of the market they can serve best – niche target markets. This approach contributes towards identifying market opportunities and developing products/services that are more appealing.

The first step of target marketing, namely market segmentation is the act of dividing the market into distinct consumer groups who might merit separate products/services or marketing mixes. Markets can be segmented using different bases and adventure tourism companies should try several approaches, and even combinations of these, in order to determine which will yield the best opportunities. This addressed the second secondary objective, seeing that the development of demographic profiles require the implementation of the mentioned demographic segmentation bases, namely gender, age, ethnic group, family life cycle stage, household type, as well as their income and expenditure rates. In order for adventure tourism companies to utilize the profile, the last two steps of the target marketing strategy (market targeting and positioning) should also be implemented.

The steps of this process are reliant on the success of each other, in other words, every step needs to be implemented effectively in order to proceed and successfully complete the systematic process. Therefore, adventure tourism companies should consistently analyze, plan, develop, deliver, evaluate, and update their marketing campaigns to meet their marketing objectives whilst meeting the demands and/or preferences of their target markets.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The structural limitations of this investigation include the limited available literature associated with adventure tourism. Adventure tourism has been industry-driven; therefore, the importance of theoretical constructs might not have been fully recognized as greater attention was paid to empirical applications. Adventure tourism studies are usually performed from a social science perspective, therefore exchanging research terms or application practices may violate assumptions across these two fields.

In addition, regarding the research methodology, the sample might raise the following concerns in terms of representativeness and the fact that the findings of this investigation cannot be generalized. *Firstly*, this investigation could not be extended to include more or all provinces in South Africa, nor a bigger sample. *Secondly*, due to a lack of cooperation from some adventure tourism companies, all the adventure tourism companies based in Pretoria could not be included in this study. *Lastly*, non-probability sampling was used. Nevertheless, the target population of this investigation was not the general public in Pretoria; rather, it comprised adventure tourists utilizing the products/services of adventure tourism companies within Pretoria.

Future research could include more extensive research to gain further insight into profiling adventure tourists; more geographic, demographic, behavioral and psychographic components (such as needs, motivations, or benefits) should be considered. Further research is needed in terms of adventure tourism marketing because the full effect of this type of marketing will be beneficial to the entire adventure tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

The demographic profile of adventure tourists developed in this paper presented a challenging but worthy task, particularly when little systematic research has previously been reported on the subject to date. As there are only general classifications or definitions used to attract all possible adventure tourism groups, the findings of this paper will assist adventure tourism companies to promote and sell specific activities and experiences that will meet the specific needs and wants of adventure tourists in Pretoria. This will contribute towards the effective management of adventure tourism companies whose goals will benefit the company as well as their surrounding communities.

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DOES SEXUALITY IN ADS WORK FOR EVERYONE/ANYONE? AN EXPLORATORY RESEARCH OF MUSLIM CONSUMERS' REACTIONS TO SEXUALITY IN ADS

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the reactions and responses of Muslim consumers to advertisements that include sexuality. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following questions: What do Muslim consumers think about the advertisements that include sexuality? How does sexual content of ads influence their behavior? What might be the mechanism that explains the behavioral process? This study utilizes exploratory research methods to answer these questions. It suggests that Muslim consumers tend to develop negative attitude toward the advertisements that include sexuality. They may also develop negative attitude toward the brands in these ads, and toward the firms that own these brands, a process explained by "halo effect." Furthermore, they tend to take some measures in order to prevent both themselves and their children from being exposed to these ads. This paper argues that the concept "personal modesty" explains Muslim consumers' responses to sexuality in ads.

JEL: M37

KEYWORDS: Advertising, sexuality, Muslim consumers, personal modesty

INTRODUCTION

The use of sexuality in ads and its effects on consumer behavior have been a matter for discussion among researchers. Some (Smith et al., 1995; Reichert, 2002; Treise and Weigold, 1994) have found that advertisements which include sexuality may negatively influence consumer behavior; on the other hand, others (Reichert et al., 2001; Dudley, 1999) have shown that sexuality in ads may positively affect consumer behavior. Research (Reichert, 2002) suggests that religious preference is one of the most important factors that influence individuals' reactions to sexuality in advertisements. Given the traditional importance of conservatism, personal modesty, the value of women and raising moral and righteous children in Muslim community, it emerges as important questions to explore what Muslim consumers think about and how they react to advertisements that contain sexuality. Furthermore, given the significant number of Muslim population in the world, which is gradually increasing, and the widespread use of sexuality in ads, it becomes more important to explore the aforementioned questions. This study aims at exploring how Muslim consumers react and respond to ads that include sexuality. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following questions: What might be the outcomes of sexual advertisements, when it comes to Muslim consumers? What might be the mechanism that explains Muslim consumers' reactions to ads that include sexuality? What explains their reactions and responses? For these purposes, this paper firstly offers a brief review of literature on sexuality in advertisements and personal modesty in Islam. Secondly, it introduces the exploratory research findings along with the proposed mechanism that explains the behavioral process. Finally, it discusses the contributions and future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sexuality In Advertisements

In recent years, there has been an increase in the use of sexuality in advertising. Human body has been abused in advertisements and provocatively used to sell products (Heller, 2000). Sexual appeals in advertisements consist of a variety of elements and are generally presented in visual elements such as attractive models (Gould, 1994). An analysis reveals that common forms of sexual content include the followings: nudity (dress), physical attractiveness, seductive behavior and interaction, innuendo, and other factors such as setting, context and camera effects (Reichert, 2002). Lambiase and Reichert (2003) suggest that there are five types of sexual information in ads: Nudity, sexual behavior, physical attractiveness, sexual referents, and sexual embeds. Ramirez and Reichert (2000) propose that physical characteristics are perceived as the most sexual in an advertisement and the sub-categories of these characteristics are clothing, attractiveness and body.

In many advertisements, women are used as a marketing instrument that exists to satisfy men's sexual desires (Bayraktar, 2011). Baker's study (2005) shows that an average person in the US is exposed to over 3,000 ads each day and in many of these ads, women are portrayed as sex objects (Smith et al., 1995; Boddewyn, 1991; Baker, 2005). Advertisers feature provocative images of sexually attractive women in ads (Reichert, 2002) without considering their negative effects on individuals and society (Bayraktar, 2011). Many researchers have examined the effectiveness of ads that include sexuality. Most of them (e.g. Steadman, 1969; Alexander and Judd, 1978; Bushman, 2005; Bushman and Bonacci, 2002; Bushman and Phillips, 2001) have found that sexuality in ads negatively influences consumer behavior. One of the most significant negative effects of sexual content is that it reduces consumers' brand recall (Steadman, 1969; Alexander and Judd, 1978; Bushman 2005; Bushman and Bonacci, 2002). Research demonstrates that sexual images have high attention-getting value and that they arouse the immediate attention of both men and women (Baker, 1961). Many individuals pay more attention to sexual media than non-sexual media (Bushman, 2005). Therefore, when an advertisement contains sexuality, many viewers will direct their attention to sexual stimuli, pay less attention to other cues in the advertisement (Steadman, 1969; Alexander and Judd, 1978; Bushman 2005; Bushman and Bonacci, 2002) and have lower motivation to process brand information (Petty and Cacioppo 1986; Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983). This mechanism negatively affects consumers' brand recall.

A limited number of studies have found that sexuality in ads positively influences consumer behavior. Reichert et al. (2001) argue that advertisements that include sexual images create more positive feelings about the implementation of the ad than do advertisements that do not include sexual images. Besides, researchers (Dudley, 1999; Reichert et al., 2001) suggest that sexual information attracts attention. In addition, findings show that advertisements which include sexuality are more engaging, involving, and interesting than advertisements which do not include sexuality (Reichert and Alvaro, 2001; Reichert, et al., 2001). The above discussion demonstrates that sexuality in ads does not work as advertisers expect. It lowers consumers' brand recall, which is one of the most important goals of advertisements. What would happen, if individuals also have negative attitude toward sexuality in ads? Would the negative outcome still be only reduced brand recall?

Personal Modesty In Muslim Community

Personal modesty is of significant importance in Muslim community (Denny, 2006). It has a great place in the Qur'an, the holy book in Islam, and Hadiths, which are narrations originating from the words and deeds of the Islamic prophet Mohammad. Modesty in Islam is known as haya, a word that describes shyness, propriety in dress, speech and behavior, and a deeper modesty based on faith (Benlafquih, 2009). In the Qur'an, God says, "O children of Adam, We have provided you with garments to cover your bodies, as well as to be an adornment to you. However, the best garment is the garment of righteousness. These are some of God's signs, that they may receive admonition" (Quran, 7: 26). This verse emphasizes the importance of being righteous or modest. The Qur'an (24: 30-31) also says: "Say to the believing man that they should lower their gaze and guard their modesty; that will make for greater purity for them; and Allah is well acquainted with all that they do. And say to the believing women that they should lower their gaze and guard their modesty; and that they should not display their beauty and ornaments except what must ordinarily appear thereof; that they should draw their veils over their bosoms and not display their beauty except to their husbands..." In a Hadith prophet Mohammad says, "If you feel no shame, do as you wish." In another Hadith, He says, "Modesty is a part of faith," (Nevevi, 2009: 243). These suggest that modesty in Islam is so important that the absence of it can lead a person to sinful behavior and disbelief (Benlafquih, 2009).

In the writings of the Qur'an and Hadiths, the code of modesty for both men and women includes (Benlafquih, 2009; Guven, 2010; Colakoglu, 2001; Nevevi, 2009):

- Lowering the gaze and avoiding flirtatious speech and behavior,
- Refraining from close physical contact with unrelated individuals of the opposite sex,
- Avoiding eyes from being exposed to forbidden images,
- Paying attention to wearing modest or Islamic dress and avoiding seductive dresses,
- Refraining from drawing unnecessary attention to oneself,
- Protecting one's purity.

In Islam, both men and women are forbidden to look at the nude images of opposite sex. They are also forbidden to look at some parts of the same sex (Benlafquih, 2009; Guven, 2010). In a Hadith, it is defined as the adultery of the eye to look at women with desire (Nevevi, 2009: 490). Looking at unlawful images is regarded by Muslim scholars as a first step that takes one to greater sins such as adultery or other unlawful sexual relations (Guyen, 2010). Thus, individuals are encouraged to avoid being exposed to sexual images. In addition, it is the parents' responsibility to protect their children from being exposed to illicit images or scenes. Islam pays much attention to raising righteous and moral children. Therefore, it is one of the main duties of parents to bring up modest children (Guyen, 2010; Colakoglu, 2001). Adultery appears explicitly in the Qur'an as "Nor come nigh to adultery: for it is a shameful deed and an evil, opening the road to other evils" (Bennett, 2007). Qur'an does not say "Do not commit adultery," instead, it says "Do not approach to adultery." This means, one should avoid from the ways or situations that may take him or her to adultery. Therefore, most Muslim individuals pay great attention to refraining from looking at sexual images or scenes (Guyen, 2010). In Muslim community, prohibiting looking at

unlawful images and adultery is thought to prevent emotional injury, and to result in greater familial stability and social harmony (Bennett, 2007, Guven, 2010). In addition, it is believed in Muslim community that looking at sexual or unlawful images or watching illicit scenes weakens individuals' memory and leads to amnesia (Guvén, 2010).

Women have distinctive value in Muslim community. There is a chapter in the Qur'an named Nisa, which means women. In this chapter, the Qur'an enjoins fairness toward women. It says, "Live with them with kindness." In addition, we can find the same kind of distinctive value given to women in Hadiths. Prophet Mohammad says, "Act kindly towards women..." (Nevevi, 2009: 112) In another Hadith, He says, "The whole world is a provision, and the best object of the benefit of the world is the pious woman," (Rahim, 2000). In Muslim families, the man is responsible for his wife and girls' purity, and his honor is directly connected with the purity of the women in his family (MacNeill, 2009).

Qur'an warns those who propagate shameful things among believers. It says, "Verily those who love that indecency should spread among the believers deserve a painful chastisement in the world and in the Hereafter. Allah knows, but you do not know," (Quran, 24: 19). In all Muslim countries, all kinds of body displays and sexual references are considered indecent (Boddewyn, 1991).

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted exploratory research methods in order to obtain in-depth understanding of Muslim consumers' reactions to sexual advertisements and the mechanism of the process. It utilized long-term observations of Muslim individuals and families and interviews with them. The analysis of observations and interviews sought to identify Muslim consumers' general approach and reactions to sexuality in ads, their attitude toward the brands whose ads include sexuality and toward the firms that own these brands and the motivations behind their behavior.

FINDINGS

The findings suggest that Muslim individuals tend to believe that today's advertisements include too much sexuality. Furthermore, irrespective of their gender, they have negative attitude toward the use of sexuality in advertisements and express their discomfort with it. In addition, they tend to avoid looking at or seeing advertisements that contain sexuality. The extent to which they take some measures to avoid being exposed to these ads varies. They tend to believe that most advertisements abuse females' body, degrading women's value in the community, and deteriorating social values. They are mostly troubled with the sexual ads on billboards, newspapers and TV channels. Moreover, some are irritated by the advertisements including sexuality. A great majority of women find some advertisements disgusting and insulting. Their discomfort tends to increase when the ads also include the images of sexual males. On the contrary, some Muslims do not have any negative attitude toward sexuality in ads and avoid seeing these ads. Moreover, they regard it as a legal strategy to attract consumers' attention. This research argues that religiosity level, in particular personal modesty, determines the extent to which a Muslim person has negative attitude toward sexuality in ads.

Therefore, it hypothesizes that those who are more religious and have high level of personal modesty have more negative attitude toward sexuality in ads than those who are less religious and have low level of personal modesty. At this point, significant questions arise: Does Muslim consumers' negative attitudes toward sexual ads influence their evaluations of brands in these ads? Do they develop negative attitude toward the brands and firms that own these brands? In other words, does "halo effect" occur? If yes, how

is the evaluation process influenced? What extraneous variables affect the evaluation process? The exploratory research findings suggest that Muslim consumers may develop negative attitude toward the brands whose ads accompany sexuality, toward the firms that own these brands, and toward the advertisers who use sexuality in the advertisements that they make. Some informants make very harsh criticism against these firms and advertisers. One interviewee draws attention to a very interesting point, when criticizing firms' use of sexuality in the ads. He says,

“Why do they use this strategy to attract my attention or why do they try to attract my attention by using sexuality? I feel insulted whenever I see an advertisement which includes sexual women.”

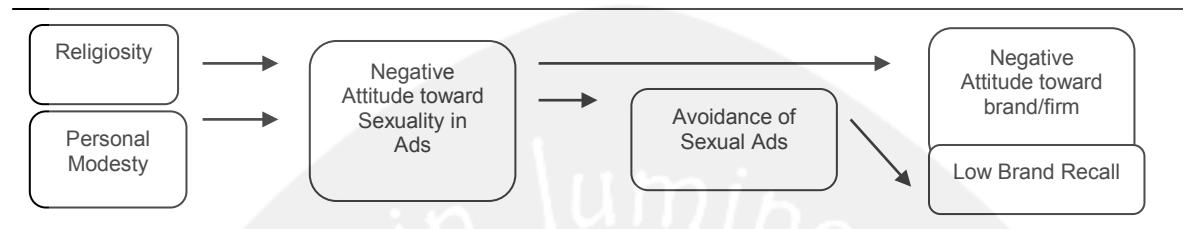
He further claims that advertisers who use sexual women in ads are insulting men. Although not common, Muslims may even boycott the products whose advertisements include sexual images. They try to avoid buying them even if the products are desirable. One participant gives a very interesting example, saying that he has not bought a biscuit with a particular brand since he saw its advertisement. He says, “Almost 10 years ago, I watched the advertisement on TV, in which there were huge sexual woman lips that covered the whole screen, which had nothing to do with the product. It was disgusting...” One claims that those who make sexual ads on billboards limit his freedom.

“I can avoid those in newspapers by not buying the newspapers or those in TV channels by not watching the channels; however, it is difficult to avoid those on billboards.”

The extent to which Muslim consumers' negative attitude toward sexual ads influences their decision making process needs further attention and examination of large samples by including other variables into the study such as price, brand name, product quality and product category. However, this research explores that sexual ads significantly influence their decision making when it comes to newspapers, magazines and TV channels. Muslim individuals tend not to buy any magazine or newspaper that contains advertisements including sexual images and watch TV channels that broadcast advertisements including sexuality. This tendency may also be related to other contents of these newspapers, magazines and TV channels. In addition, word-of-mouth effect may play role in the decision process. Those who know that a newspaper includes sexual images denigrate this newspaper and share their thoughts with others, trying to prevent their purchase. Therefore, we can claim that even if one does not know that a newspaper includes sexual ads, he or she may develop negative attitude toward the newspaper and avoid buying it through word-of-mouth communication.

Observations suggest that Muslim consumers tend to be stricter when it comes to their children. They tend to believe that advertisements that include sexuality deteriorate the culture and negatively affect children and adolescents. They consider that these advertisements arouse sexual thoughts in children and adolescents' mind, increasing their inclination to sexual behaviors. Some parents believe that it becomes more difficult for children who are frequently exposed to sexuality to focus on their education. Those who have children tend to prevent their kids from being exposed to these kinds of ads. Observations show that parents who are religious and who want their kids to become religious take more drastic measures. They tend not to let their kids to buy magazines or newspapers that contain sexuality and watch TV channels that broadcast sexual images. In addition, those who do not have children consider that they would do almost the same thing if they had kids. It is interesting to note that those who do not criticize sexuality in ads are relatively sensitive when it comes to their kids. Based on the above findings, table 1 demonstrates the proposed mechanism that explains Muslim consumers' reactions to sexual advertisements.

Table 1: Proposed Path Model of Muslim Consumers' Responses to Sexual Ads



This table shows the proposed path model of the Muslim consumers' responses to advertisements that include sexuality. The expected relationships are developed based on the research findings.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The effectiveness of advertisements that contain sexuality has been a matter for discussion among researchers. Many of them have found that sexuality negatively influences the effectiveness of ads, due to its high attention-getting value and attractiveness. Their argument is that sexuality attracts more attention than other cues in the ads, resulting in lower brand recall. However, when it comes to Muslim consumers, further negative effects occur.

This paper aimed at exploring the responses and reactions of Muslim consumers to advertisements that contain sexuality. The findings reveal that irrespective of their age, gender and marital status, Muslim consumers tend to have negative attitude toward the use of sexuality in ads. The extent to which sexual ads influence their brand evaluation and purchase decision appears as an important research question. Furthermore, the antecedents of this negative effect and the moderators involved in the process require further attention. Emotional perspective primarily considers the affective aspects of consumer decision process and accounts for the feelings of individuals as a complement to cognitive processes dominant in the value perspective (Auger, et al., 2011).

According to emotional perspective, both positive and negative feelings can significantly influence purchase intentions (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). In addition, it can be inferred from the "halo effect" that the first impression of a brand may influence the future evaluations of the brand. Therefore, those who have negative attitude toward sexuality in ads may negatively evaluate the traits of the brand, when its ads include sexuality. In addition, their negative feelings can significantly influence their purchase intentions. This study argues that Muslim consumers tend to avoid looking at or seeing ads that contain sexuality and try to prevent their kids from being exposed to these ads. This tendency is expected to lead Muslim consumers to have low brand recall. Furthermore, they tend not to buy newspapers or magazines that include sexual images and watch television ads that contain sexuality. This study suggests that "personal modesty," a concept that describes shyness, propriety in dress, speech and behavior, and a deeper modesty based on faith (Benlafquih, 2009), explains Muslim consumers' reactions to sexuality in ads.

Therefore, it hypothesizes that advertisements that contain sexual stimuli will negatively influence consumers with high level of personal modesty. This paper recommends that those who wish to appeal successfully to Muslim consumers should take into consideration the requirements of personal modesty. Specifically, they should avoid using sexuality in their marketing campaigns. The advertisers should

refrain from using women with seductive dresses. They should also refrain from using flirtatious behaviors and speeches in television ads. Furthermore, the newspapers, magazines and TV channels targeting Muslim consumers should pay attention to the requirements of personal modesty and avoid sexual advertisements. In addition, since Muslim parents pay much attention to raising righteous and modest children and want them to stay away from sexuality, the marketers should not use any kind of sexual image in their marketing campaigns that target Muslim children. Moreover, they should not use any kind of sexual image on the products with which they target Muslim children.

Briefly, firms that want to be successful in Muslim markets and appeal effectively to the consumers in these markets should use in their marketing campaigns the images and materials that comply with the requirements of personal modesty. The findings of this study points to several future research areas. First, more research is needed to better understand how Muslim consumers respond to advertisements that include sexuality. Due to its exploratory nature, this paper offers an initial understanding of the subject matter. Future research needs to examine the issue with a large sample size and investigate some covariates such as age, gender, marital status, country of origin and educational background more in depth. Second, future studies need to pay attention to personal modesty in order to understand this phenomenon and its effects on consumer behavior. The development of “personal modesty scale” can help better understand Muslim consumers’ behavior and contribute to consumer behavior literature. Finally, it is likely that cross-cultural investigations will offer new insights and a better understanding of the subject matter.

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EMPLOYEE STOCK OWNERSHIP PROGRAM (ESOP) PHENOMENA ON PUBLIC COMPANIES IN INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to explain the phenomena of employee stock ownership program on public companies in Indonesia. It is done because the ownership of companies in Indonesia is concentrated by single controlling shareholder. Some time, board of directors and board of commissioners of the company are controlling shareholder or his/her family. Therefore, this study is interested to describe the interesting phenomena of employment stock option program. This study collects data from Indonesian Stock Exchange Database conducting the program. The company conducting this program only is 45 companies from 1999 until 2011. In 2011, the number of public companies listed on the Indonesian Stock Exchange approximately 398 companies. It means that the public companies conducting the program are only 11.30%. Why do not more companies make this program? Almost 33.56% directors of public companies in Indonesia is family of controlling shareholder. Therefore, he/she feels that this program will not have any impact to the manager because the manager has the same interest with controlling shareholder. Thus, the program is not attractive in Indonesia as one way to mitigate agency problem between shareholders and manager. It is relevance to be applied in public companies dispersed ownership.

JEL: M41; G32

KEYWORDS: employee stock ownership program, corporate ownership, concentrated, dispersed

INTRODUCTION

Management practices of the world can affect a company's practices in Indonesia. These practices generally occur in the developed countries such as employee ownership program. It is better known as Employee Stock Ownership Program (ESOP). This program is introduced by the management of human resources in the form of corporate ownership by employees. One objective of this program is to align the interests between agent (managers) and principles (owners). The alignment can reduce agency problems between owners and managers.

This program will be decided in a general meeting of shareholders or the extraordinary meeting of shareholders as in PT Garuda Indonesia Tbk. Based on a decision of the Extraordinary Meeting of Shareholders (EGM) of PT Garuda Indonesia Tbk on November 15, 2010 as amended by Decision Circular Shareholders on January 26, 2011, the shareholders have approved ownership program by the management and employees (Management and Employee Stock Allocation/MESA). It was done by allotment of shares to the buyer special which consists of stock bonus and stock discount. It also provides the option right to the management and employees (Management and Employee Stock Option Plan/MESOP). Based on the approval of the shareholders, the directors have set the number of shares for the MESA program at most 5% of total issuance of new shares and stock option for the program MESOP as much as possible 0.97% of total issued and paid up after the public offering.

In Indonesia, the program has been set in the Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 53. The statement was effective from October 1, 1998. Stock option is offered as rewards and compensated to employee. It is measured and recognized at the fair value of equity instruments. The fair value of the instrument can be determined as service of employee as same as fair value after deducting from the amount to be paid at the time of the equity instruments given (IAI, 2007).

According Machfoedz (1999), stock option is the right to buy shares at a special price. It is usually given to executives because they have good dedication to the company in certain period. Employee stock option program is a program directed to provide an opportunity for employees to own stock of the company through stock options.

Implementation of ESOP in Indonesia has not yet optimal. It is not so many public companies to do this program. The question is why the program is not getting response from the public companies in Indonesia. The program has some good objectives as follows.

1. This program can provide reward to all employees and directors for their contribution to company performance.
2. This program can also create alignment of interests between employees (directors) and owners (principals).
3. This program can also increase employee motivation and commitment to the company because they are also the owner of the company. Therefore, the program is expected to increase productivity and performance.
4. This program can be used to retain and motivate key employees to enhance value of the firm in the future.

However, why the program has less been done by public companies in Indonesia? Is it concentrated ownership causing the program less optimal? Therefore, the objective of this study is to answer these questions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the relevant literature. Section 3 is research method. Section 4 provides analysis based data. Section 5 concludes the paper.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Employment Stock Option Plan

According to El-Tahch and Ricaurte (2011), employee stock option program is the basis for developing a key employee in the present and future. Companies need to establish a work plan and a good blue print before establishing any basis. Philosophy and benchmarking is a blueprint and a plan to develop a company by an employee ownership program. Explain what the company's plans are intended to be achieved as retain key employees, paying a basic salary at a specific rate or an annual bonus on a certain level, and paying a basic salary or phantom stock.

Another important part prior to the implementation of the ESOP program is a comparative study. This analysis uses the market or industry survey data relating to other companies. How do they pay such as based salary and bonus payments annually? We shall compare it with the current pay practices at companies that will implement the ESOP. The study will provide an overview of the current picture of

employee compensation and what is needed to respond any gaps between the company's compensation plan and the relevant benchmark.

The stock option program has several benefits as follows.

1. Stock option program for employees can be used effectively to reduce agency problems between owners (principals) and managers (agents). The program is expected to increase company performance. According to Iqbal and Hamid (2000), employee stock ownership will increase sense of satisfaction, commitment, and control to the company. ESOP can also improve employee motivation and productivity for the the company (Shulman, 2002).
2. Related to agency problems, the stock option program for employees is an effective way to reduce agency cost (Brenner, Sundarm, and Yermack, 2000). The cost can be mitigated through the alignment of interests between managers and principals. According to Chance, Kumar, and Todd (2000), this program can be used by public companies to plan incentives and compensation for employees. McColgan (2001) suggests that the structure of executive compensation contracts can be an incentive to increase value of the firm. It also influences on the alignment of interests between owners and managers.
3. ESOP will increase value of the firm. According to Senders (1999), ownership of shares by the employee will increase the performance of company. Iqbal (2000) finds that there is a positive association between operating performance of ESOP companies and the price market of stock of this company.
4. According to Carberry (1996), stock ownership by employee can represent a respect for the voting rights by the employees. Therefore, the stock ownership can determine the percentage of their control to the company.
5. Cash flow advantages, an employee can contribute to a plan in the form of cash. The ESOP is required to invest primarily in the ownership by employees. This cash flow advantage for companies is clear. Through ESOP, employees receive a deduction equal at fair market value of shares (Shulman, 2002).
6. ESOP can be used to absorb funds from the public. Core and Guay (2000) suggest that when the problem arises of financial and capital needs, these companies will implement share-based compensation.

ESOP in Indonesia

According Bapepam (2002), in Indonesia parties implementing the concept of stock ownership by employees can be divided into two groups. The first group is public companies begin implementing stock ownership program. The program is conducted through a special allocation program for employee or employee stock allocation, bonus shares or bonus share plan, or provision of stock option or stock option plan. Employee stock ownership plan through program savings or purchasing stock is not yet a common activity in Indonesia.

The second group is companies which are subsidiaries of multinational companies (foreign companies). Multinational companies are part of the compensation package for employee to implement ESOP program. It is also applied to employee of its subsidiaries in Indonesia which are eligible to participate for this program.

According to Bapepam (2002), there are two main rules governing the implementation of ESOP in Indonesia as follows.

1. Bapepam. IX.A.7 suggests that employee get priority of allotment up most 10% of total public offering.
2. Bapepam. IX.D.4 regulates that issuers can increase equity without giving shareholders pre-emptive rights to all specified in the charter. Within a period of three years, additional capital is more than 5% paid up. Based on the regulation, many issuers use this rule to increase the share up to 5% of the total paid-up in the framework of the ESOP program.

This rule also regulates the disclosure required to increase equity without through public offering only limited to as follows.

- a. Analysis and discussion by management about financial condition.
- b. Pro forma company.
- c. Effect of increasing on equity to shareholders after adding equity.
- d. The reason for the addition of equity without the order right in advance is the best option.

The company also must follow to the regulation governing the exercise price of the shares issued in the added equity without preemptive rights. The exercise price must be at least from the market price of the stock in the regular market. It is the average closing price during the period of 25 consecutive days before the announcement of general meeting of shareholders scheduled to adding equity.

The development of the implementation ESOP in Indonesia is as follows (Bapepam, 2002).

1. Prior to 1998, the ESOP is done by Indonesian companies. At the beginning, ESOP is the allocation of shares when the company goes to public. It is only a stock allocation scheme. In this offering, employee obtains subsidies or loans guaranteed by the company.
2. 1998-present, before public offering, employee is given warrants to purchase shares at a specified price in the future predetermined period and price.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous researchers observed positive effects of employee stock ownership plan on operating performance as documented by Park and Song (1995) and Blasi, Kruse, and Conte (1992). According to Klien (1997), there are several theoretical perspectives relating with the ownership of companies by employees on employee behavior and corporate performance. Employee stock ownership will increase the employee commitment and performance for the company. According to Jensen and Meckling (1976), financial incentives such as employee stock ownership will align the interests of the employee and interests of shareholders.

Positive benefit will be obtained by employee-owners. It is often cited as a primary motive to establish an ESOP in the company. It suggests that employee will be more motivated and act as owners through ESOP participation. The program also minimizes agency costs and aligns their behavior with the goals of the firm. They will perform in their own best interest because they are not as employee but as shareholder.

Alignment of interest between agent and principle is a great benefit. This is a result of ESOP implementation. Because of ESOP has impact on improving company performance.

Wah (1999) finds that total shareholder return for ESOP firms exceeded those of non ESOP firms by 6.9% and that average annual return on assets for ESOP is 2.7% higher than for industry peers without ESOP. Wah (1999) uses 382 U.S. public firms that adopted ESOP over period 1971-1995.

Kruse and Blasi (2002) uses 343 matched pairs of ESOP and non ESOP held firms closely. Kruse and Blasi (2002) also compare performance differences from three years prior to three years after introduction of the ESOP. Kruse and Blasi (2002) find differences in favor of ESOP of 2.4% in sales, 2.3% in employment, 2.3% in sales per employee, and 4.4% in employee productivity. Lee (2003) uses Taiwanese electronics manufacturers. Lee (2003) find similar productivity gains of 4-5% associated with the introduction of ESOP. Pugh, Oswald, and Jahera, Jr. (2000) find that few firm performances increased significantly return on equity, return on assets, and net profit margin. This is in short term. Iqbal and Hamid (2000) examine the longitudinal relationship between stock price changes and operating performance of ESOP firms. Iqbal and Hamid (2000) find a positive relationship between stock price changes and performance. Iqbal and Hamid (2000) also find that this relationship significant on several quarters after the changes in stock prices occurs.

Ducy, Iqbal, and Akhigbe (1997) examine the ESOP three year pre- and post-implementation economic performance of publicly traded firms using operating cash flow (OCF) rather than accounting returns. Ducy, Iqbal, and Akhigbe (1997) determine that adjusted performance in industry of ESOP deteriorated on all three measures utilized as OCF to market value of assets, OCF to sales, and OCF per employee. According Kruse, Freeman, Blasi, Buchele, and Scharf, (2003), the role of human resources policies and the motivation of ESOP employee-owners are how to understand employee ownership works successfully. It requires three analyses as incentives of ownership, available of participative mechanisms, the corporate culture.

However, the executives take advantage of the opportunities available to increase earnings. They hope that stock market price will increase (Baker, Collins, and Reitenga, 2002). It happens because the earnings information shows the company's performance. The information can also be used to predict the performance of companies in the future. Managed earnings are known as earnings management. Some researchers in Indonesia such as the Asyik (2007) and Astika (2008) study earnings management and ESOP. Asyik (2007) finds that managers of the company have ability to manage earnings around option grant date. The effect is stronger when executives release earnings before option grant date for period prior to ESOP. For period after ESOP, the effect is stronger related to manage stock price volatility. It happens because the volatility determining fair value of option based on management policy. Astika (2008) finds employee stock option granted positively effect on earnings management before the grant date. The results indicate that the more option grant, the more likely manager to manage earnings downward. Manager hopes to lower the option exercise price. Astika (2008) also finds the number of exercised employee stock option positively influence to earnings management before the exercised date. It indicates the more exercised option the more likely manager manages earnings upward before the exercised date to take advantage of a higher stock price.

RESEARCH METHODS

Samples

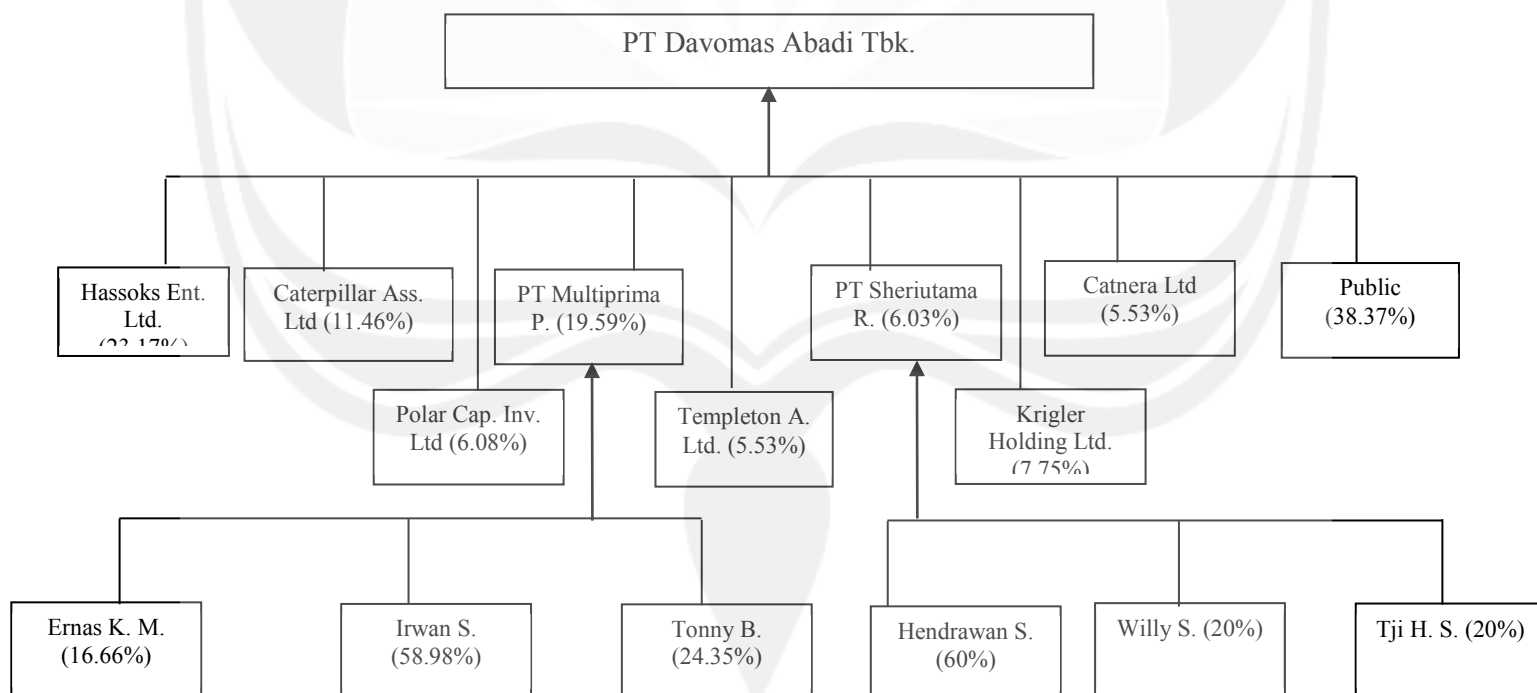
The sample of this study is that public companies implementing ESOP. The companies are listed in Indonesia Stock Exchange in the year 1999-2011. Sampling was done by purposive sampling. The

number of ESOP companies conducting programs during the period is 45 companies. The number of companies conducting ESOP is limited. Companies listed on the Indonesia Stock Exchange is approximately 398 companies. It means only 11.31% public companies conducting ESOP. Based on the facts, why the companies less make ESOP program? The program has some advantages both the company and shareholders. What is it caused by limited rules in Indonesia regulating ESOP program? Or whether concentrated ownership of the public companies causing ESOP program is not popular in Indonesia? These conditions will be discussed in the data analysis.

DATA ANALYSIS

Based on the samples, the study will analyze the structure of corporate ownership. This study uses the ultimate ownership structure to trace corporate ownership. To trace ultimate ownership, this study collects data from Indonesian Business Data Center. It is caused by concentrated corporate ownership (Sanjaya, 2011). This study analyzes corporate ownership only for the manufacturing industry because to obtain data on the ultimate ownership of non-manufacturing companies is very difficult to find. Based on 45 companies conducting the ESOP program, the study can identify only four companies included in the manufacturing industry such as PT Davomas Abadi Tbk in 2002, PT Dynaplast Tbk in 2003, Tbk PT Indofood Sukses Makmur Tbk in 2004, and PT Multistrada Arah Sarana Tbk in 2007. It will be shown in figure of the ownership structure for each company as follows.

Figure 1: Ownership Structure of PT Davomas Abadi Tbk in 2002



Based on the tracing in the chain of ownership, this study finds that the controlling shareholder in PT Davomas is Hassoks Enterprise Ltd. Percentage of share ownership is 23.17%. Hassoks is a foreign company in which this study is unable to trace who controls Hassoks. Hassoks' control rights to PT Davomas is 23.17% and cash flow rights is 23.17%. This result indicates that there is no agency problem

between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders in PT Davomas. Because of the number of control rights and cash flow rights are the same or cash flow rights leverage is zero. Cash flow rights leverage can be used as a proxy for determining the agency problems. Cash flow rights leverage is control rights minus cash flow rights. PT Davomas is controlled by foreign institution.

The compositions of the board of directors and commissioners of PT Davomas on December 31, 2002 are as follows.

Board of Directors

President Director: Johanes Herkiamto

Director: Theodorus Hopmans

Director: Berliana Sukarmadidjaja

Board of Commissioners

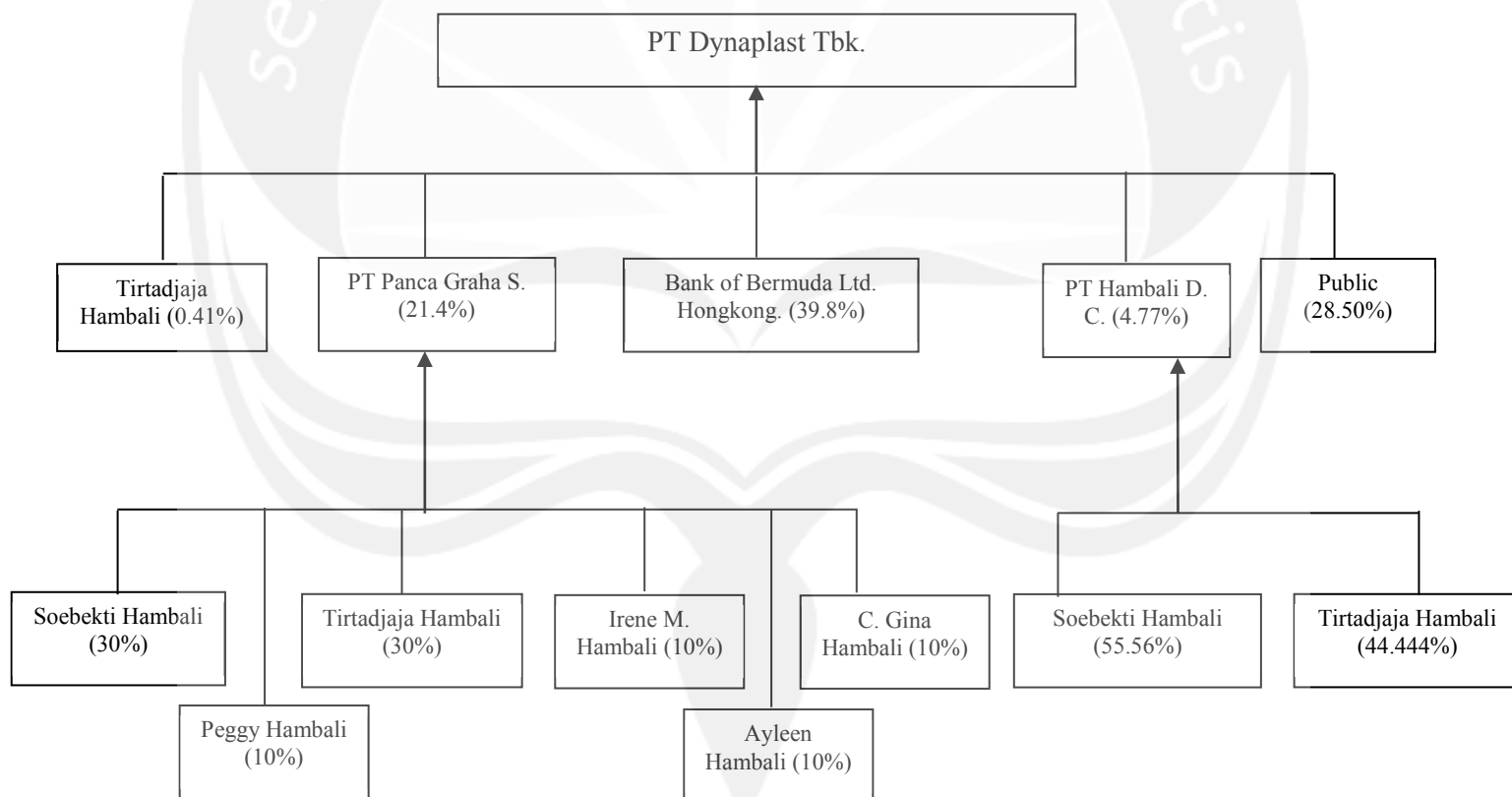
President Commissioner: Hermawan Felani

Independent Commissioner: Anthonius A. Unawekla

Commissioner: Elfisno

Board of directors and commissioners are professional people. Because of tracing the chain of ownership in PT Davomas does not find the names of families associated with directors and commissioners. This study shows the ownership structure of PT Dynaplast Tbk in 2003 as follows.

Figure 2: Ownership Structure of PT Dynaplast Tbk in 2003



Based on the tracing on chain of ownership in PT Dynaplast Tbk, this study finds that controlling shareholder in this company is the Bank of Bermuda Ltd. Hong Kong. Ownership percentage of shares of Bank of Bermuda in PT Dynaplast is 39.80%. Bank of Bermuda is a foreign company and this study could not trace who controls the bank. Bank of Bermuda has control rights as same as cash flow rights in

PT Dynaplast (39.80%). This suggests that agency problems between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders are low or absent. It indicates that the value of cash flow rights leverage is zero. PT Dynaplast is also controlled by foreign institution.

The compositions of the board of directors and commissioners of PT Dynaplast on December 31, 2003 are as follows.

Board of Directors

President Director: Tirtadjaja Hambali

Director: Gunawan Tjokro

Director: Mulyadi Kosasih

Board of Commissioners

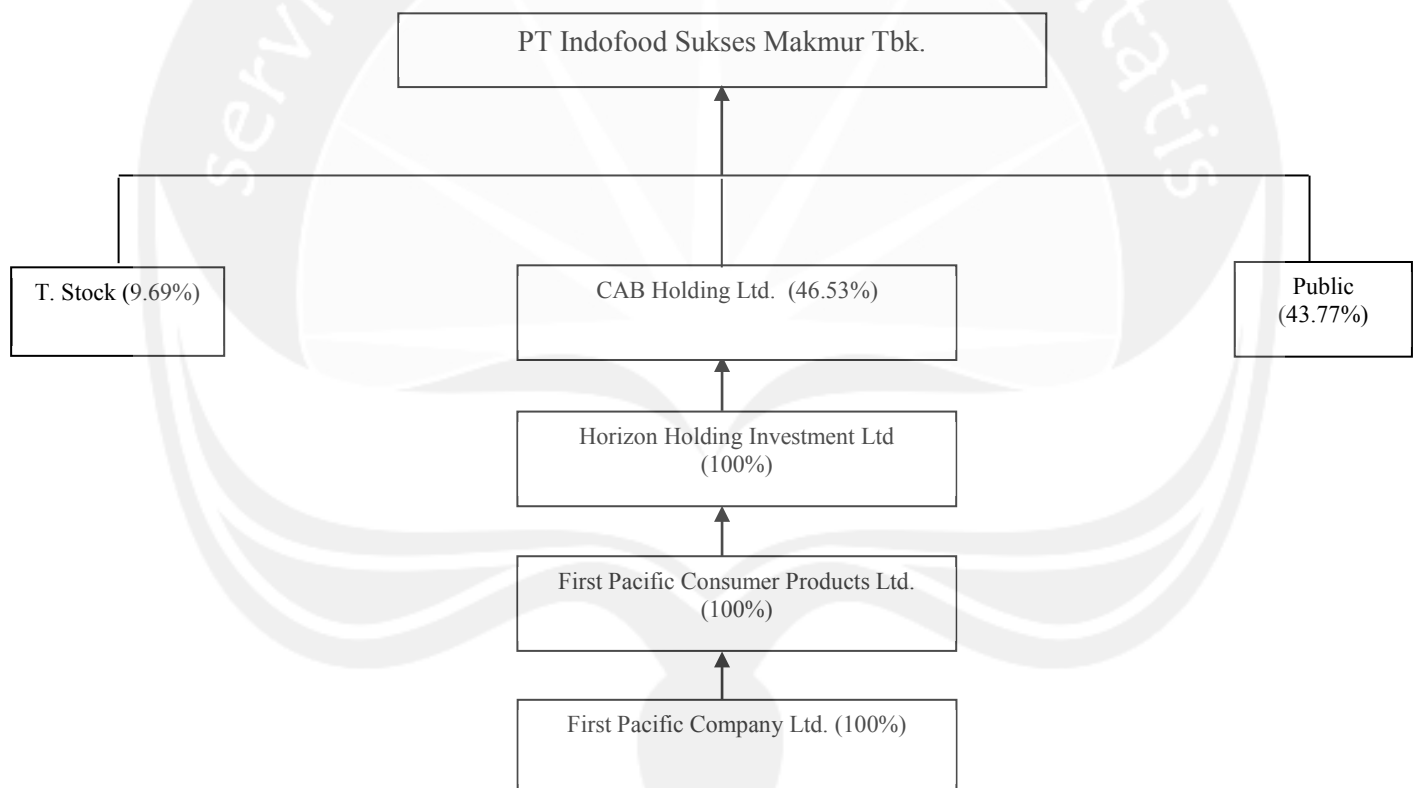
President Commissioner: Soebekti Hambali

Commissioner: Robert Wiryono

Commissioner: Santoso Symkoputro

Commissioner: Sri Hartini Urip S.

Figure 3: ownership structure of PT Indofood Sukses Makmur Tbk. in 2004



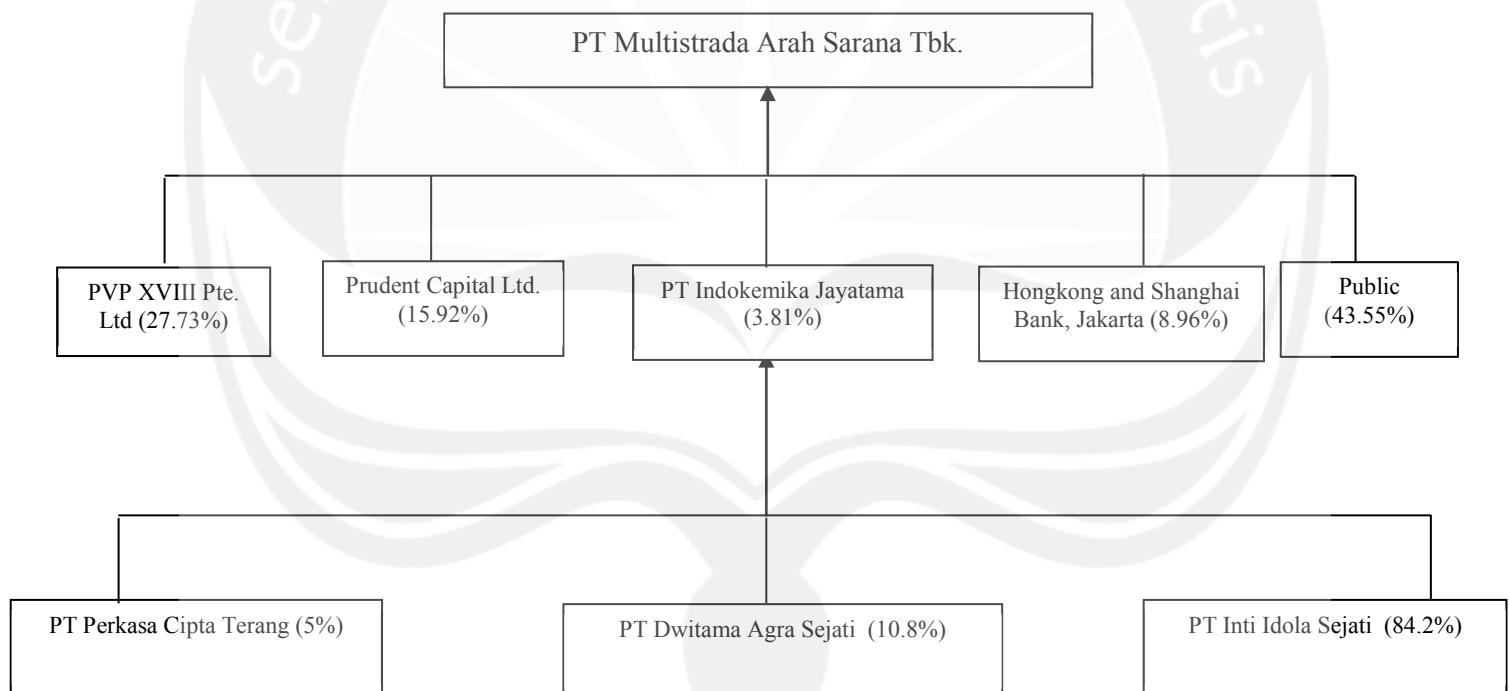
President Director and Commissioner of PT Dynaplast is the second controlling shareholder. They are controlling shareholder after the Bank of Bermuda. If calculated, their control rights and cash flow rights are 26.58%. The number is still lower than the control rights and cash flow rights of Bank of Bermuda. The objective of ESOP in this company is to motivate corporate executive to work the best for the company. Performance improvement will increase value of the firm. It will also improve the welfare both owners and managers. Agency problem in PT Dynaplast is low. It encourages alignment between the controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders such as Bank of Bermuda and Hambali's family

and other non-controlling shareholders. Next, this study shows the ownership structure of PT Indofood Sukses Makmur in 2004 as follows.

Based on the tracing on chain of ownership in PT Indofood Tbk, this study finds that controlling shareholders in this company is First Pacific Company Ltd. Percentage of shareholding First Pacific Company Ltd. in PT Indofood is 46.53%. First Pacific Company Ltd. is a foreign company and this study can not trace who controls the company. Control rights of First Ltd. in PT Indofood are 46.53%. Cash flow rights of First Ltd. are 46.53%. This results shows that there is no agency problem between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders in PT Indofood. This occurs because the control rights and cash flow rights are equal or cash flow rights leverage is zero. PT Indofood is controlled by foreign company.

Next, this study shows the ownership structure of PT Multistrada Arah Sarana Tbk in the year 2007 as follows.

Figure 4: ownership structure of PT Multistrada Arah Sarana Tbk. in 2007



Based on the ownership structure in PT Multistrada, this study finds PVP XIII Pte as the controlling shareholder. In PT Multistrada, agency problems are low and almost not exist. The control rights of PVP XIII. Ltd. is equal to its cash flow rights. This study can not trace who the owner of PVP XIII Pte. PVP is a foreign company. Thus, PT Multistrada is controlled by foreign company.

ANALYSIS

Based on these four manufacturing companies, ESOP in Indonesia is only conducted by companies owned by foreigners. ESOP is conducted in companies which have the low agency conflict between the controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders. It is shown by the value of cash flow right leverage equal to zero. The leverage can be used as a proxy for agency conflicts between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders on concentrated ownership.

The next discussion is why the ESOP programs are less popular in Indonesia? Though, this program has several benefits such as to reduce the agency problem between principals and agents. Another objective of ESOP is to align the interests between managers and owners. The alignment will improve the employee performance. It can also increase value of the firm. It will give a positive impact on the welfare of both the employee and the employer. But why this program is not interesting in Indonesia?

Sanjaya (2011) shows that the public companies which are not owned by ultimate or direct ownership (immediate) is 3.79% of all manufacturing companies listed on Indonesia Stock Exchange during 2001-2007. There are 96.21% manufacturing companies which are owned by ultimate ownership. Companies which are owned dispersed at cut off less than 10% of control rights is 0.49%. Based on cut off 10%, there are 99.51% manufacturing companies which are owned concentrated. The results confirm that only 0.49% manufacturing companies which are dispersed.

Sanjaya (2011) also suggests that the family is the greatest controlling shareholder as 68.49% at cut off 10%. This finding is consistent with La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes and Shleifer (1999), Claessens, Djankov and Lang (2000), Faccio and Lang (2002), and Siregar (2006). The Indonesian government only controls 2.58% at cut off 10%. The results are not much different with Siregar (2006). Other controlling shareholder controls 28.93% at cut off 10%. Other controlling shareholder includes foreign investors, cooperation, and employees. The results are not much different with Siregar (2006).

Siregar (2006) shows 437 of 1302 observations on a categorical variable are 1 for management. This result indicates that 33.56% controlling shareholder is also part of the directors of public companies. This means that directors of public companies are the controlling shareholder or the family member of controlling shareholder. Involvement in the board of director is another way to improve the control mechanisms other than through ownership pyramids or cross-ownership.

In this circumstance, ESOP program is not important because without this program directors had aligned their interests with shareholder interests. Directors may not make decisions that will harm their family members.

The phenomenon of agency problems in Indonesia is different from the phenomenon of agency problems in the U.S. or the U.K. Agency problems occurred in Indonesia is between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders. ESOP programs become less relevant to apply to this context. ESOP programs are more effectively implemented in dispersed ownership where managers are as the controller for company. Agency problem occurring is usually between management companies and owners.

ESOP program becomes very relevant and appropriate to be implemented in the context of dispersed ownership. The objective of program is to reduce agency problems and to improve the performance of

each employee. Meanwhile for companies that concentrated ownership, ESOP program is less effective to reduce agency problems. It is due to agency problems occurred between the controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders. How does the ESOP program align the interests between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders? It can not be done easily. However, this program relatively can be done to the context of concentrated ownership. This program can be implemented in companies which do not have agency problems between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders. The ESOP program is a strategy to make managers more serious and committed in their jobs. It is a way for mutually beneficial for all parties existing in the company.

CONCLUSION

The study concludes that the ESOP program less attractive to be implemented in Indonesia. It is caused by the directors of the company is the controlling shareholder or a family member of controlling shareholder. Second, ownership of companies in Indonesia is concentrated in certain groups such as family. Family is the most dominant to control public companies. Third, agency problems in Indonesia are between controlling shareholder and non-controlling shareholders. These conditions make the ESOP program to become less popular in Indonesia.

This program is effectively implemented in the dispersed ownership. Because, agency problems occurring in dispersed ownership is between managers (agent) and owners (principles). To reduce this problem, the ESOP program can be implemented. This program will align interests between managers and owners. In the context of concentrated ownership has occurred alignment between managers and owners. It occurs because the manager is a family member of the owners. In this condition, the manager will not make decisions which benefit themselves and harm the owner. If it is done, the manager also harms their families.

Limitations of this study are that, the first, this study only describes the phenomena existing in Indonesia. Second, this study is limited to the context of Indonesia. Third, private ownership in some companies in abroad can not be traced.

Subsequent studies can consider aspects of ownership to conduct research on ESOP. Astika's study (2007) can be developed by considering the agency problems occurred in Indonesia. Future studies can compare ESOP phenomenon in some East Asian countries. It will be done to confirm whether the ESOP program can be implemented.

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THE PERFORMANCES OF THE ORGANISATION IN THE CONTEXT OF THE ECONOMIC CRISES

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ABSTRACT

Major changes which occur in the economic actions and processes, as a direct effect of the economic crises and increasing competition, involve the use of innovation as founding pillar in the creation of strategies by managers. Knowledge along with information is the nowadays competitive weapon and will be the main motor force. This paper wants to reveal the superior rendering profitable of information and knowledge by the manager represents the main source of creating the value in the company which activates in economic crises. The world is literally crossed by a large number of economic, communicative, cultural, independence.

INTRODUCTION

The economy of the future will be totally different in its essentials from its present form. This new economy will find its reliance in the advancement of science and technique, the technologies of the future, which should work with priority according to the environment regulations. This trend is already noticeable especially in the IT industry. On the other side, the economy of the future will have to be more efficient than the present one; the motivation is already known: the changes in economic crises and their impacts, the population is constantly increasing and the resources are, quite often, limited, even if there is an important transformation undergoing in the place and purpose of the factors of production.

It's all about the genesis of a new civilization (based especially on elements coming from science and technique), which comes in a constant conflict with the other civilizations today, the later trying as well to expand their influences.

The essential dominant characteristic of this century is change. It applies to all the organizations, no matter what they do, all are systems undergoing change, and their self – regulation is done through management. We will witness, in economy, a revolution of the information which is the base of the economical increasing significance of information, of the capacities and of the organization competences. An essential role in the starting of this revolution it's held by the mixing up between the new IT, the communication technology and acquisition means, making, dissemination and use of information.

In the context of economic crises the need to have vast and inclusive information will trigger a very profound and broad process, with major changes in all the components of the economical activity.

LITERATURE REVIEW

We can say that we do not have to prepare for the organization of this situation, we are already there and only those who will adjust quickly will be winners, otherwise chances and opportunities will be lost. There's no need to build an ideal company, but one shaped by goals, people and cultures. An organizational culture has to be developed, focused on the values of knowledge and communication. It

takes a remodeled company, which can permanently shift from one strategy to another. This is the flair and instinct of the manager anchored in the society based on knowledge.

In a society affected by the crisis, the changes are more consistent and occur one after the other in a constantly increasing pace. These changes are oriented in some great ways, which even if they cannot be seen as exhaustive, give a rather clear image on the challenges of the future and of the impact these will have on the very existence and activities of the organizations.

In the informational society, the essential economical resource is no longer the fund, nor the land, nor physical labor. Knowledge and information will soon become essential elements of the obtaining of competitive advantages by the organizations in the context of the economic crises. At the core of the genesis and running of the informational system of the organization – just as the information management – there's a new paradigm. The one used until a few years back referred to the focusing of the informational system on the identification of the need of information and the ways of compliance, concomitant with the information usage approach, in a vision both strategic and economic, focused on efficiency. This paradigm is a prediction of the evolution towards the company based on knowledge, being the kind of organization which develops the fastest in a significant part of the globe. The approach of definition, running and designing of the company's informational system starting from a new paradigm represents the premise of its running and efficiency.

The information from within the organizations is extremely complex. To facilitate their description, there are classified according to several criteria, which allow the presentation of areas significant for the management of the organizations. Therefore, information is raw material involved in all the activities of the organization. Every work process, no matter its nature, is based on information. A common characteristic of managers is the fact some information contain a ruling aspect, shaping into decisions. Therefore, the decision can be defined as being that information through which is being ascertained, for other people, the obligation to do certain work processes with an exact outcome. In light of the aspects mentioned earlier, information gives power to the holder. The more information the person inside the organization holds – meaning raw material and finite informational product – and the more ability to use it efficiently, the more power he holds, formal or informal one. The relation information – power acquires new dimensions in the shifting environment to an economy based on knowledge.

Specialists believe information has value and generates efficiency at a level which depends on the complexity and the competitive aspect of the environment involved. In the context of the development of the organizations based on knowledge – the basis of birth, development and use of knowledge – is amplified. On the informational – managing side this is reflected in the appearance of the so-called contextual scanning, which is the systematic activity of research of the informational environment of the company by the manager, based on the Internet connection of the company and other informational resources. Therefore, information starts moving intensively towards the ambient environment, through which a large quantity of exogenous information is absorbed. In an increasing proportion, the ability of managers to ensure the access to the most recent and performing hardware and software limits the competitive capacity of the organization. For the performance of each organization it is essential that the informational subsystem is not approached by itself, but related to the other systems which form the managerial system. This is absolutely necessary because in each company there's the trend to ignore or underestimate the correlations with the other subsystems, which triggers multiple negative effects, on the functioning and economical level.

The managerial system of the company contains the shaping and exertion of the processes and managerial relations in a certain manner, as to determine the obtaining of high competitiveness. In other words, the managerial system, can be defined as the total of the elements with a decisional, organized, informational, motivational aspect from within the organization, through which is exerted the management process and relation ensemble. When it comes to them, the elements which compose the informational system greatly mark the running of the managerial instrument. The biggest impact is held by the quality of the information delivered, which, evidently, depend greatly of the characteristics of the procedures, circuits, transfer and informational means.

The data and information represent, accompanied by the decisions as well, the main inputs in the methodic – managing system, seriously limiting its effects generated directly and indirectly. The relations between the informational system and the organization system are both functional and structural-constructive. The entire informational system is held by the organizational structure of the company. Working with the data and information, the operation of the moving of information and the informational procedures, the use of means to deal the information are the result of the tasks, competences and responsibilities exertion of certain managers. Their reasoning has a great impact over all the components of the informational system.

Simultaneously, there's a strong influence of the organizational culture over the informational elements. This influence is functional, and is exerted especially over the operational way of the components of the informational system. By the correlative measuring of the performances, we call upon concepts of competitiveness and competitor advantage. Inevitably, the notion of performance brings to light the efficiency and efficacy, and the indicators of performance acquire a special diversity. Therefore, the obtaining of performances at a company level assumes, directly or indirectly, the reevaluation of the concepts of competitiveness, competitor advantage, efficiency and efficacy. Performance is not a simple ascertained fact of a result, but just the opposite, is the consequence of a comparison between result and objective. The proportions the term "practice" of performance has achieved, led to outline of a new concept, the one of performance management, itself debatable, but justified by the orientations which the stating of performance in the center of the managerial concerns of the organization gives the present steps and especially to the future ones of it. Also, performance cannot be defined as a great result obtained in the field of management, economics, commercial which gives characteristics of competitiveness, efficiency and efficacy to the organization and its procession and structural components. Which is particularly interesting are the theory and managerial practice from Romania, the managerial performances, which are absolutely necessary to obtain economic and financial performances in the fields they run.

CONCLUSIONS

The unanimous recognized conditions by specialists in this area of scientific concerns are clear: only a performing management, exerted by professional managers, is capable of managerial performances, generated by social, economic, financial performances. For this it is necessary to know the accomplishments of other organizations in the reference fields in order to compare (volume indicators, quantity, as well as efficiency). A performing organization, anchored in the economy based on knowledge, renders better the opportunities of the ambient environment, overcomes more easily the difficulties arisen, performs better from a quantity and quality point of view towards a segment of the social need, and obtains a competitive advantage on its specific market.

In fact, a performing organization from a managerial and economical point of view is capable to fully satisfy the economical interests of its main stakeholders – employees, managers, shareholder, state, local authorities, banks, contractors, clients – when the two fundamental trends are optimized and they mark its running: “the obtaining of value for the client” and “the obtaining of value for the shareholder”. Mainly, the obtaining of managerial performances at a company level is limited by the competence of managers and employees, by the cultural context in which they act and, evidently, by the contextual influences exerted by the ambient, national and international environment. One factor of limitation of the level of managerial performances is represented, without any doubt, the competence of those who exert management processes, meaning managers but also those who implement the decisions, the employees. Evidently, the decisive role is held by the managers, proper education, no matter the position in the organization. A competent manager, professional, takes quality decisions (proven scientifically, proper, complete), using modern leading instruments, increasingly sophisticated, in a cultural context as open as possible, to allow him to implement managing styles which involve others as well. The managerial performances are, in conclusion, several and have great chances of implementation in the organization. Knowledge along with information is, in condition of the economic crises, the nowadays competitive weapons and will be the main motor force.

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PROMOTION A MORE RAPID GRADUATION PROCESS FOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This article focuses on promoting the speeding up of the graduation process of university students. Graduation is delayed for many reasons; financial reasons, family reasons and a lack of motivation. Universities can promote study and graduation in many different ways and decrease the factors that cause graduation to be delayed. Interaction between university staff and students is a good way to promote study. Suitable methods of interaction are study plan counselling, personal master's thesis counselling, and feedback on courses and studies in general. Certain learning methods such as e-learning can also promote a more rapid graduation, especially if a student works full-time or lives in another city.

KEYWORDS: delay of studies, promotion of studies, graduation

INTRODUCTION

This article deals with factors that cause university studies to be delayed and makes suggestions on how to promote study and increase the speed of graduation. In Finland people start university studies at approximately 23 years of age. The average age of students when they graduate with an MA is 27 years. Academic freedom has made it possible for students to spend seven years studying and then allows them to ask for more time to finish their studies. Academic freedom is not always efficient and in Finland it is estimated that about 33 % of university students drop out of their study program (Saarenmaa, Saari & Virtanen 2010; Rautopuro & Väisänen 2001, 15, 30).

A protracted study period is clearly a different problem to dropping out. However, students themselves don't necessarily see protracted study length as a problem (Laukkanen 1988; Kalliosalmi, Pekkala & Rönkkömäki 1990; Rautopuro 2011). However, graduation and getting a degree "on time" without a major delay is to everyone's advantage: the state saves money, the university saves resources and improves its image, employers receive workers and individual students increase their competence. Getting a degree "on time" also positively affects students' physical and mental well-being. Students often feel guilt, social shame and stress if their studies are protracted (Remonen 1996). Despite the win-win situation only about 25 % of the Finnish university students attain a master's thesis within the five years aimed at by the Finnish state and 22 % of the students do not graduate (Rautopuro & Korhonen 2011). There has been some research (for example Rautopuro & Väisänen 2001; Vesikansa, Lempinen & Suomela 1999) on the factors that affect the delay of studies. However, despite the information and research results, universities are still dealing with study delays and drop outs. There has been little solution focused activity, nor research on how different solutions to avoid protracted studies might work in practice. This article presents different solutions for decreasing study delays and the amount of students who fail to graduate. It also analyses those solutions. This article answers the following study questions:

- 1) What are the main reasons that result in university students having delayed graduation?
- 2) What kinds of solutions are there for promoting study that results in graduation on time?

This article begins with a chapter about factors that affect the delay of studies, and deals with both the internal and external factors that affect how a student studies. It is followed by a chapter suggesting and

assessing solutions for promoting graduation on time. The article ends with a discussion of the issues raised.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT STUDY AND RESULT IN DELAYED GRADUATION

The causes of delayed graduation are complex and varied. According to Vesikansa et. al (1999) the factors that result in prolonged study can be grouped as follows: 1) Internal factors including motivation factors, orientation factors and orientation to the education field, clearance of field and certainty; 2) External factors including financing (financing of studies, working), education institute related factors (teaching, counseling, climate), structure of degree factors (education field, study methods), employment situation factors (work life qualification, working situation) and life situation related factors (family etc). Internal factors are mostly self-directed but external factors can also influence them. According to Seinä's (2000) study, motivation is a significant factor in the prolonging of studies. A weak study motivation can delay studies. In many cases, another activity, such as work or social activities, can take away a student's energy and decrease their study motivation. However, the delay of studies is so common it is expedient to think that this is because students are not highly motivated, or because they have poor study plans, or that an administrative reason led to the delay, rather than looking for the actual causes.

Orientation factors have a very important role in setting the tone for study, especially during the first study year. Students often want to change faculty and their field of study. Rautopuro and Väisänen (2001) conducted a study at the university of Joensuu where they gathered data on students who began studying in 1995 (N=916). They collected data from the same students during their second and fourth year and found three main reasons why students dropped out of a course. Over half (55 %) of the students named certain academic reasons, such as the nature of the studies, not being able to study subjects they were interested in and making the wrong career choice.

In Finland there are large differences between faculties regarding the amount of students who start at the faculty and the amount that graduate from the same faculty. The faculty of medicine has the highest graduation rate – almost 90 % receive a master's. The natural sciences have the lowest graduation rate, only about 30 % receive a master's (Korhonen 1994, 48). This phenomenon is partly explained by students changing faculty. Many students who start out by studying the natural sciences transfer to other faculties belonging to the technical or economic sciences. In study fields such as the humanities and social sciences, dropping out is more frequent than in sciences which aim for vocational degrees, such as law and medicine (Helenius 1991).

Rautopuro's and Väisänen's (2001, 49-50) results show that students' study experiences become negative during their studies. After the first year of study 15.4 % of the students had dropped out, and of those who continued their studies 14% had dropped out after second or third year. Approximately 25 % of the students gave reasons related to infrastructure factors as the cause of their dropping out of a course, e.g. the location of the university, the university's infrastructure, the city's climate, while about 20 % mentioned personal, social or family related reasons.

According to many studies (e.g. Helin 2000; Uski 1999) external factors are significant in delaying studies. The main external reasons for the delay of studies are full time work, financial reasons, family, long travel distances to the university, an unclear curriculum, studies being too demanding, too rapid a study speed and not enough information about study arrangements. In many cases financial reasons lead

to students working full-time or part-time during semesters. Some other factors, such as health problems, social relationship problems and studying abroad had only a minor effect on study progress.

Almost two-thirds of university students work during a semester (Osaava työvoiman saatavuus 2010) Working during a semester usually prolongs studies. According to Helin (2000), working estranges students from a university's conventions and decreases their social contacts with other students, which is something that can increase participation in lessons.

Life situation reasons include, for example, family reasons and health reasons. Typically, the birth of a baby and long-term health problems delay studies. However, health problems have only a minor role in the delay of graduation (Uski 1999; Saarenmaa et al. 2011) Many of the life situation factors can direct a student's activity more than university administration activities and expectations. For example, work life qualifications are not unambiguous (Vesikansa et. al. 1998; Vuorinen & Valkonen 2001).

Depending on the faculty it takes approximately about 6.5 years to attain a master's degree in Finland. In some faculties, such as sports, economics, education and health care, the average time to graduation is 6 years, while in other faculties it is 7 years. An architecture student's average time spent attaining a master's is 9 years, which is the longest (Tilastokeskus 2011).

There are some differences based on gender and age concerning delays and dropping out of studies. Male students drop out of studies or have a more prolonged study time compared to female students. Older students are more likely to drop out and their studies take longer than those of younger students. Older students are more likely to be affected by their life situation, family life and financial situation. They usually study alongside their full-time work (Friman & Kokko 2000).

A university cannot influence everyone regarding the above mentioned factors. However, in many cases it is possible to help students so that their studies move forward more quickly. On the other hand some of the factors slowing down studies are not so easily fixed by university administration (Päkkilä 2002). The next chapter looks at solutions for speeding up the average time of graduation.

SOLUTION PROPOSITIONS FOR THE PROMOTION OF UNIVERSITY STUDIES

According to researchers (for example Uski 1999; Salminen 2001) certain factors can help students to promote their studies:

1) *Introduction to a university's routines*: According to Vesikansa et al (1998), a study career includes moments where continuing studies becomes problematic. An especially problematic phase seems to be the first year, which includes many changes, such as moving, adapting to new teaching methods and meeting new people. Success in the first year of study seems to predict a smoother road to graduation. According to Virtanen (2000, 14, 34) and Rautopuro et al (2011), students whose studies progress slowly usually gain just a few credit points during their first study year. Students whose studies proceed well usually attain good grades. Some of the main ways to promote study are study counseling and tutoring. If students are properly introduced to university routines it is much easier for them to concentrate on their studies. This results in proactive study and – if done properly – it can increase motivation and help prevent the delay in graduation. Proactive counseling in the beginning of the first study year can be very helpful for many students as helping students before they fall behind schedule too much or build up too much stress might be a very helpful and efficient way of promoting study.

2) *Study counseling*: According to Salminen (2001) study counseling, encouragement and concrete support are good ways to minimize drop outs and delayed graduation. However, 25 % of those students whose graduation is delayed feel poor counseling was one of the key reasons for their delayed graduation (Saarenmaa 2010). Students also noted the lack of a contact person who knows the course structure, degree demands and who has time for students but who can also help them to make study plans. In particular, first year students miss study counseling, but so do other students. Students whose graduation is delayed have usually misunderstood or received incorrect answers to questions such as what courses they still have to study and when those courses will be available (Salminen 2001).

University studies emphasize self-direction. This means that university staff assume that students themselves plan their studies and figure out how to solve problems. In practice, not every student is able to take care of their studies without support and guidance. Many students need extra support and guidance during their studies. By increasing study counseling it is possible to decrease stress and lack of awareness and increase their self-confidence and motivation towards studies (Brockett & Hiemstra 1991; Grow 1991; Koro 1993).

In many cases students contact a study advisor when their anxiety level is high, their studies are falling behind schedule or when they don't know what else to do. Usually, such a situation has already progressed to a point where it is difficult to get students back on track. It also seems that many students hesitate to contact study counselors and other administrative and teaching staff until it is too late (Tanner 2002). Thus, it would be beneficial if students would contact study counselors proactively before a situation becomes difficult to resolve. Proactive discussions between every student and study advisor, for example, once or twice per year could help study planning and aid study progress. Development discussion once a year between student and a teacher, including the checking of credit points and motivation would also be a proactive way to promote studies.

For instance, a study counselor could be a contact person for study planning etc. However, the amount of study counselors is usually quite small and the amount of students is usually quite high – perhaps hundreds or even thousands of students per study counselor in some universities – so personal contact with every student might be hard to arrange. A counselor does not necessarily need to be a member of the study department's staff. In the beginning of the first study year student tutors could take on a bigger role than they have previously and be a contact person concerning simple study planning and study questions. In addition, students lack frequent counseling, especially from teachers. Kokko and Termonen (2002) emphasize the importance of personal interaction between students and university staff that would make it possible to discuss a student's progress in their studies. Thus, there could also be a member of staff contact person for every subject of study. That person could be, for example, an assistant, senior lecturer or even a professor. That way the number of students would decrease per counselor, which would increase the amount of personal counseling time per student.

3) *General and language studies*: General and language studies are in many cases problematic and cause graduation to be delayed for many students. Language courses are usually compulsory, which leads to problems in scheduling due to length, especially if students are also working. Students who live in different cities and who have to travel long distances to participate in long language courses find attending them difficult to arrange (Uski 1999). There are certain solutions for general and language courses. In many cases basic language courses and other general studies could be studied at the Open University in different cities. For students who live in other cities this should offer more opportunities to take part in courses where attendance is compulsory. Another possibility is e-learning solutions which are discussed in more depth in section 7.

4) *Time schedule of the courses*: According to Pääkkilä's (2002) research the main reason for graduation being delayed was work. Many students who were working felt that they did not have time for their studies. Some students mentioned that the work and study schedules conflicted and made it hard to attend classes. They hoped that at least some lectures would be organized during the evening or at weekend.

One possibility is to arrange intensive courses where all the course lectures are held over one or two days. That would also make clear to those students who live in another city which days to be absent from work and indicate when they should study intensively. However this solution is not trouble-free. Firstly, some courses might include homework and learning might be seen as a process which happens over time and for which one or two days of intensive study might not be the best solution. Secondly, intensive days might not fit a student's schedule and in that case the whole course would be missed because of one missed day.

5) *Lower demands*: Some of the students have asked teachers or professors to lower the demands of certain courses so that they would have a better chance to pass them (Uski 1999). In practice this suggestion is out of the question. In addition, university courses have certain learning goals and demands cannot be lowered below those learning goals (see Avoio Yliopisto, 2011).

The demands for passing a course and the performance demands are the same for every student whether a student is a full-time student or a part-time student etc. So, there is not much potential for flexibility. A teacher cannot make a course easier to pass for some students. Nevertheless, there is some potential for flexibility; a teacher can, for example, give certain alternatives to students regarding how they accomplish a study task, such as choosing between a learning diary, an exam or writing an essay. This might make it easier for students to study but will probably result in teachers having an increased workload.

6) *Work experience to compensate for some of the study courses*: There has been discussion about whether work experience should replace some study courses that cover the same subject area. For example, a student who has work experience in human resource management could use that to compensate for an academic human resources course. In practice, that does not happen very often. University studies include the mastery of theoretical information and practical work experience seldom offers that. Thus, even though practical work experience provides exactly that, it seldom offers academic readiness (see OPM 2007:4).

7) *Distance learning*: The possibility to take an exam in another city would help those students who live elsewhere. This would decrease traveling and the possibility to take an exam in another city should be easy to organize. There will be some extra costs, such as postal costs and extra work for administrative staff, but those are quite small. Students who live in other city can then save time and money (see Jyväskylän yliopisto 2011).

Distance learning is much more than just taking exams in other city. Distance learning also includes different e-learning possibilities that could make it possible to listen and watch lectures at home online, do learning assignments at home and read e-books etc. In e-learning studying is independent of time and place. However e-learning is not the best option for every course. For some courses face-to-face contact is important, which is why e-learning does not solve all the problems associated with delayed graduation (see Kiviniemi 2000; Saarinen 2002).

8) *Master thesis counseling*: Students lack personal master's thesis counseling and counselors who understand the possible life situations facing students. In contrast, some students want their counselor to give them a research topic, possibilities to take part to study projects and ready book lists. In

consequence, masters counseling varies depending on the counselor and the questions asked. Some of the counselors rely on students being mostly self-sufficient and feel that a student should do their thesis without major counseling. On the other hand, some counselors feel that students need strict and exact counseling and they have certain protocols for counseling their master's students. Master's thesis counseling can benefit students by increasing personal feedback to students and by listening and motivating students more. Hakala emphasizes the importance of a counselor's quick response to students' questions concerning a master's thesis. A quick response often makes students feel that someone cares and will help to accomplish their goals. It also promotes activity because students do not have to wait for an answer for a long time and they can begin writing (Valtonen 2002). Counseling on a thesis' technical or substantive themes is not only important it also helps ascertain a student's motivation, and can help reduce their anxiety and promote self-confidence and hope, which are very important for students. However, an increase in personal counseling time per student is not as easy as it might sound. In many cases staff members have many master's degree students and increasing personal counseling time means longer working hours for them. Although, in many cases even a short phone call or short email to student asking how she or he is doing might have a very positive effect on a student (see Opinnäytetyö ja sen ohjaus, 2004).

Some universities have organized intensive master thesis counseling days where counselors motivate and help students during intensive days. Students can then write their master's thesis during the computer class and have the counselor available for all that time as well as the library. Such intensive days may be especially suitable for students who work or live in another city (Virolainen 2011).

9) *Flexible library services*: Some students have mentioned that borrowing books from other libraries should be made cheaper and easier for master's degree students. Students have also requested that more course books are made available in the university library (Uski 1999). Library services are partly dependent on resources and some libraries and faculties lack funds for extra course books, making it difficult to increase the amount of course books. E-books could be one possibility. By using e-books every student would have the opportunity to borrow a course book when they want. E-books would also decrease the amount of borrowing from other libraries and reduce costs for students. In practice, the situation is not so simple. There is a lack of suitable course books published in e-book format and even if a book is in that format, the teacher in charge does not necessarily know about those options and might choose a traditional paper book. Library opening hours could also vary to allow longer evening opening hours on some days, which would benefit students who work during the day.

10) *Different universities co-operation*: There is some co-operation between Finnish universities. Students can, for example, take some courses at other universities and include them in their grades. Open University studies are available for all and that is one solution for students who do not live near their university. However, the Open University does not solve all the problems, this is because the amount of courses it offers is limited (see avoinyliopisto.fi 2011).

11) *Study grant*: Raising the study grant has been discussed almost every year since the middle of the 1990s in Finland. By raising the study grant students would have more money to compensate for their living costs and they would not necessarily have to work during semesters and could concentrate better on their studies. This could help some students, although some students would probably still want to work during semesters. Universities cannot do much as the Finnish parliament decides the study grant. On January 1, 2010 a law came into effect that makes it possible for students who are over 25 years old to get

unemployment benefit if they have already spent their study grant. This gives financial support, especially to those students whose graduation is already behind schedule (see yövoimatoimisto, 28.10.2011).

12) *General motivation by university staff*: Academic studies emphasize studying at home. University staff believe that students will study hard and only come and ask questions when they have problems. On the other hand, for many of the students being able to study at home is not self-evident. Students might lack motivation and self-confidence and require motivating, which is something that is not always forthcoming from university staff. Hence, teachers and professors could, for example, provide more feedback to students, including both positive and constructive feedback. Furthermore, messages for students when a deadline has been missed as well as motivational emails and phone calls could be increased (see Kääpä & Siirilä 2008).

13) *Questionnaires and letters*: Receiving questionnaires or informative letters from a university might create a feeling of being appreciated. Letters can also increase the motivation to study and function as a “wake up call”. For students who have not studied for some time this kind of letter might be the only contact from the university in a long time. Such letters might receive better results if they are sent to students whose studies have only just started to fall behind schedule (see Kronqvist & Linnansalo 2004).

DISCUSSION

This article identified the main reasons for a slow pace of study and delayed graduation. It also suggested ways study could be sped up. The main reasons for study delays are students working during semesters, a lack of motivation, financial difficulties and a difficult life situation. Some of these reasons affect others. For example financial reasons affect the need to work and the motivation to study. A university can reduce the effect of some of those factors but not necessarily all of them. Ultimately, taking care of one's studies is a student's own responsibility. However universities have relied too much on students' self-direction and concentrated mainly on curricula. By putting a little extra effort into encouraging students there could be benefits that exceed the effort expended.

Many activities for encouraging student study can be done fairly easily but may require resources from a university or its staff. Nevertheless, activities such as quickly responding to student questions and motivational activities are highly dependent on the willingness of university staff and not on resources. One important period is the first year of study and it is clear that university staff and tutors should concentrate more on those students. By creating a positive learning atmosphere and by offering them counseling and help, students will receive a strong foundation for continuing their studies. Another critical moment is the master's thesis stage. Good master's thesis counseling includes motivation, quick response and guidance, which promotes thesis activity.

Proactive ways of thinking at universities concerning the counseling and guidance of students is required. In many cases universities claim that they have a limited amount of resources for study counseling. However by increasing proactive activities such as study counseling there would probably be fewer delays during the study period and a fewer amount of students would drop out. Dealing with students whose studies fall behind takes, in many cases, much more time and resources than proactive activities. Thus, universities would probably save resources by investing more resources in proactive activities. A proposal further study proposal is to enact some of the above mentioned activities, such as study counseling, or e-learning possibilities and study how they affect the average speed of graduation or course dropout rates. This should be conducted as a longitudinal study.

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CONVERGENCES AND DIVERGENCES REFFERING TO THE CONCEPT OF FAIR VALUE

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ABSTRACT

Many of the authors are presenting the advantages of the fair value, but there are voices which contest this concept, because of its volatility and the tendency of subjectivism, of the manipulation of used models for the evaluation. Among the advantages of the fair value there can be named: utility, relevance, transparency and superior accuracy of the results and cash-flow of the company, it brings more clearance to the financial statements, it does a total accounting of the comparable value and it gives more liability to the manager. The credibility regards a reasonable evaluation, the using of market information in all possible situations for evaluating and justifying the subjective arguments. Starting from these concepts, the users of the accountancy information had demanded the elaborating of a model for a general appliance of the fair value. There are also specialists who criticize the limited use of fair values in IFRS. However, those criticizing fair value accounting do not seem to provide any credible alternatives. Do we go back to historical cost accounting, wherein the financial assets are stated at outdated values and hence are not relevant or reliable? In the current crisis, a question that is raised is: Should assets be marked down to their current throw away prices, as companies may not want to sell them at those values? This paper analyses the answer of this question, and also various controversial issues of the concept of fair value it as it is presented in the current project of the IASB and FASB.

INTRODUCTION

Fair value is a relatively new concept. It did not feature in the academic debate on current values in accounting that raged (not too strong a term) in the 1960s. In those days, the current values that were debated as alternatives to historical cost, and to one another, were replacement cost (Günter 1966), net realizable value (Chambers 1967) and deprival value (Baxter 1967). The term 'fair value' seems to have been used first by accounting standards setters in the United States and has subsequently appeared in UK standards, in international standards and in the Directives of the European Commission, in addition to some more recent standards in the US. The use of the term by standards setters has been to describe, rather loosely, a market-based current value, as opposed to traditional historical cost. The precise application of fair value has varied from standard to standard, and the United States Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) has recently developed a standard which prescribe a uniform method of calculating fair value, to apply within all standards that currently use the term. An exposure draft was issued in 2004 and the final standard was published in September 2006. The International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) is committed, as part of its international convergence program, to issuing a discussion paper (the first stage of its due process for developing a standard) based on the new FASB standard.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Fair value is usually defined as a current market price. The definition in current international financial reporting standards (IFRS) is: „The amount for which an asset could be exchanged, a liability settled, or

an equity instrument granted could be exchanged, between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction" (IASB 2006, 2304). The FASB fair value measurement standard defines fair value as follows: "Fair value is the price that would be received to sell an asset or paid to transfer a liability in an orderly transaction between market participants at the measurement date" (FASB 2006).

The new definition resolves two of the alternatives within fair value as follows:

1. The reference to price rather than amount makes it clear that transaction costs are not included in fair value. If they are included in the measurement, the correct description would, in the case of assets, be 'fair value, less cost to sell'.
2. The reference to received to sell an asset and paid to transfer a liability clarify the choice of market, by specifying the exit market (disposal) rather than the entry market (acquisition).

There are two distinct dimensions to the consideration of alternatives to fair value. The first is to examine alternative current values, and the second is to consider historical costs. Discussions of fair value often fall in to the trap of debating the relative merits of fair value and historical cost while ignoring the existence of alternative current values. Thus fair value can, wrongly, be regarded as the only alternative to historical cost. In order to avoid giving this false impression, the current discussion will focus first on alternative measures of current value.

Like fair value, the other current value measures have a number of alternative definitions and their classification into generic groups is far from simple. Here we shall adopt the classification used by the Discussion Paper on measurement bases, published recently by the IASB (IASB 2005). APB Opinion No. 16 (1970) on business combinations in an early example. The term 'fair value' subsequently became widely used to describe the measurement basis used in the revaluation exercise required by acquisition accounting for initial recognition of an acquired entity. This includes an entry value, current cost (subdivided into reproduction cost and replacement cost), two exit values (net realizable value and value in use) and one method that combines both entry and exit values (deprival value). For the sake of simplicity, the subsequent discussion is conducted in terms of measuring assets, although most but not all of it is equally relevant to liabilities. For example, due to the financial nature of liabilities, the distinction between reproduction cost and replacement cost is not generally relevant to them. A useful analysis of the recognition and measurement of liabilities is Leonard in 2002.

The Fair Value Against the Historical Cost

Historical cost is the method of measurement traditionally used by accountants. It measures an asset at the cost of acquiring it. This provides a reliable basis for measurement, but an obvious disadvantage is that, as price change subsequent to acquisition, the relevance of historical cost declines if the objective of measurement is to reflect the current economic benefit represented by the asset. Moreover, it is possible that, in some cases, the transaction did not take place at market price (as in the case of bargain purchase) so that the transaction price did not represent the current economic benefit conferred by the asset, even at the moment of purchase. This comparison holds between historical cost and each of the current value alternatives described above. Each of the current values measures a current rather than an historical attribute of the asset and looks to the market rather than the specific transaction for evidence, but this leads, in each case, to a degree of estimation, because the current measures are not based on actual transactions but upon transactions that might take place in markets that are far from perfect and, in the extreme, may not even exist. Hence, current values include gains or losses in value that are unrealized,

where as historical cost does not amend the measurement arising from the acquisition transaction until the gain or loss is realized in a disposal transaction.

These benefits of historical cost are obtained by sacrificing relevance to the current economic opportunities represented by the asset. From that perspective, historical cost loses its relevance as time passes and prices and opportunities change. Moreover, historical cost will measure otherwise identical assets of the same entity at different amounts, depending on the specific acquisition cost prevailing at the time of acquisition. Thus, it does not provide either a timely or a comparable basis for measuring the economic benefits conferred by the ownership of asset. There are clearly several plausible alternatives to fair value. In choosing between them, it is necessary to have criteria with which to weight their relative costs and benefits. The conceptual framework of various accounting standard setters attempt to provide such criteria, although no standard setter has yet taken the courageous step of choosing a single valuation basis which is considered to be generally superior to the others. Thus, the extant standards are based upon mixed measurement systems. Current values and historical costs are used in different standards and sometimes as alternatives within the same standard. The selection of alternative current values also varies: sometimes it is described as fair value and other time is not (e.g. the use of 'fair value less cost to sell' in IAS 36). Even when fair value is the prescribed measure, as in several of the current IASB and FASB standards, the precise application of the term is not the same across different standards: removing such inconsistencies is the main objective of the current FASB and IASB project in fair value measurement.

The fundamental measurement issue is not application guidance and the choice of evidence to support measurement, but rather it is to determine the guiding objective of the measurement process. The primary objective of account, and therefore of measurement in accounts, is, according to the conceptual framework of the IASB and the FASB, relevance to the need of users. Those needs are assumed to arise from the economic decisions that users have to make. These decisions are assumed to be primarily those made by an investor, and they therefore relate primarily to the prediction of future cash flows. However, prediction does not imply merely forecasting, and the concerns of stewardship are also assumed to be included in the objective. Stewardship implies accountability by management to investors. The feedback that this provides is relevant to future cash flows because it will affect the future conduct of management and confidence which investors will place in the entity's prospects.

In practice, therefore, cost/benefit considerations seem to rule out an unconstrained multiple column approach, and the need for comparability suggests that the single measurement that is given prominence in the accounts should be chosen by reference to consistent guidance, so that like transactions and events are recorded in a similar manner. This requirement does not rule out measurement methods such as deprival value, which may use a different measurement method in different circumstances, because such a method will always treat like circumstances in a similar manner. Equally, it does not rule out systematic valuation of different types of asset on a different basis (e.g. current assets at selling price and fixed assets at cost); such an approach might be chosen on cost/benefit grounds (e.g. if fixed assets are expensive to value and the resulting valuation are unreliable). However, when the cost measure used is the historical cost, it could be argued that such measures cannot be compared in an economically meaningful way because the measure is dependent on the time of acquisition, which will differ across different assets.

Many academic writers have advocated that a single measurement method be applied to all assets. This would have the obvious benefit of enabling different types of asset to be compared without having to allow the changes in valuation method and would also remove possible errors or bias arising from different classification methods being used by different entities or at different times. However, it seems

likely that, in practice, cost/benefit considerations may justify the use of different measurement methods for different categories of asset (e.g. when market evidence is unavailable or expensive). In the latter case, it may still be helpful to users to have a common valuation objective, imposing consistency of purpose, even if the techniques used to achieve it may vary according to asset type. Moreover, it may be preferable to choose techniques by reference to specific circumstances rather than asset type: thus, it would be the actual absence of market information, rather than asset type that would justify the use of an alternative technique, so that the measurement objective would always be followed as closely as was permitted by the available evidence. This is the approach adopted by the fair value hierarchy discussed above. The positive result of the theoretical debates of the 1960s was to demonstrate the potential usefulness of different current valuation bases, such as replacement cost, net realizable value and deprival value.

CONCLUSIONS

To conclude, there are a number of plausible alternatives to fair value and that the choice will depend upon the specific circumstances of the entity and the needs of the user of accounts. In an uncertain world with imperfect and incomplete markets, no particular measurement objective should be regarded as having a monopoly, and different measurements should be regarded as complementing one another. Fair value is here to stay. It is already deeply embedded in IASB and FASB literature and there are growing calls from the user community to increase its use in financial reporting. Conceptual support for fair value is demonstrable and will be further underpinned in the revised conceptual framework. Users, auditors and regulators will become more comfortable with the use of fair value as time passes.

Moving from theory to practice, the question perhaps becomes: What are the informational advantages and disadvantages of the practicable proxies to fair value, value, both when applied consistently, and when applied pragmatically on an item-by item basis? This takes us back to the academically traditional debates on the pros and cons of the various theories of income measurement and asset valuation. Many academics have strongly held view on these issues.

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ARE THE DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS RELATED TO THEIR PREFERENCES FOR ONE UNDERGRADUATE COURSE DELIVERY MODE OVER ANOTHER?

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ABSTRACT

Students in higher education can and do take courses delivered in a variety of ways. But, to date, little research has been done on the demographic characteristics of students related to their preferences for one undergraduate course delivery mode over another. This study sought to fill that void by comparing the effectiveness of three undergraduate course delivery modes: classroom, online, and video conference at a technical institute in a mid-Atlantic state. Students (N = 1,206) completed questionnaires on effectiveness, in terms of satisfaction for each delivery mode and on demographic characteristics. The questionnaire response rate was 74% for students. In summary, in terms of the relationship between demographic characteristics of students and preference for the three delivery modes, significant differences were found on most characteristics tested. Only gender and race/ethnicity showed no significant relationships to choice of delivery mode. The other factors, age, year in school and full-time status, were significantly related in some way to delivery mode. The results of this research should assist leaders in higher education to understand the benefits associated with different undergraduate course delivery modes. In addition, the study provides leaders with a useful tool for securing and applying this type of information when making decisions about the modes best suited to serve their academic communities.

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THE FACTORS OF INNOVATIVE ORGANIZATION: SOME EVIDENCE IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to explore the organization structure that suite for innovative organization and support employees' creativity. Mix method is used in gathering the data that can categorize in two parts. The factor of innovative firms are company infrastructure, external confidence, clear objective, team constitution, external influence, freedom, attitude to risk, internal confidence, department growth and development. The result shown almost employees understood the important of innovation and innovation concept that would served organization in business competition environment. The employees recommended firm to create innovative culture from executive manager to employees to support the new research and development of exist products and new products, set work standard in organization. The communication among individual, group, organization would be facilitated employees to understand the detail of firm' innovation, and should be openness and motivate employees to participate and create new ideas.

JEL: M 10, M12, M14

KEYWORDS: Innovation, Innovative Organization, Corporate Structure, Biotechnology, Small and Medium Firm

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, Biotechnology industry is critical to Thailand's economy and the government set the biotechnology framework that the detail focused on expanding its neighboring countries, boosting a large country investment and supporting industrial research and development. This policy made the private sector active and interested in biotechnology investment as well as attracting new foreign corporation. Thus, the local company that looking forward to build a competitive advantage start the innovation strategy. Although, the successful innovation is not simplify, its depend on several factors, such as funding, networking, marketing strategies, and human resource management in the organization. Especially, human resource management (HRM) will affect the corporate structure: the employee relation within firm, and employee behavior change that are the important factor of the innovation failure or successful. However, organizations must realize to start from the effective source of human capital and find the right person who has special skills and the willingness to work differently (Hawitt-undas, 2006).

LITERATURE REVIEW

What' S Innovation?

Drucker (1994) business management scholar, "Innovation is the entrepreneurial tool for getting property, profit and firm potential, whether innovation may be related to technology and new technique or not, but the innovation affect the entire economic and society, for example, the emergence of the newspaper and

insurance business.” Roger (1995) stated that “Innovation is a new idea implementation or new method of the individual.”

Hansen and Birkinshaw (2007) described the main innovation concept as innovation value chain process that are:

1. Idea Generation – idea generation is the first stage of the innovation process and could be both from the in-house idea and external idea.
2. Conversion – the idea selection and development stages.
3. Diffusion – the commercialized and distributed the new product or service to be outside.

Figure. 1: Innovation Value Chain

IDEA GENERATION			CONVERSION		DIFFUSION
IN-HOUSE	CROSS-POLLINATION	EXTERNAL	SELECTION	DEVELOPMENT	SPREAD
Creation within a unit	Collaboration across units	Collaboration with parties outside the firm	Screening and initial funding	Movement from idea to first result	Dissemination across the organization

The factor of innovative organization

The emergence of innovation often occurs in the organization because of huge investment in research and development and systematic knowledge management. Thus, the pleasant environments and good managerial way will result in an effective innovation. Katz (2004) stated one of the innovation dimensions called the human side of innovation that consisted of three factors:

1. Corporate Culture - socialized the employee what the organization needs and the innovation process.
2. Architecture / Structure - The relationships of managers and subordinates in the organization will help people to interact and blend ideas among groups, teams, departments or business units that the origin of innovation.
3. Roles - The role of formal and informal of staffs that are project leader, product champion, and gatekeeper. These roles take the dominant in the innovation process.

Rosenfeld (2008) said the executives not only understand the innovation process, and the innovators must have a wide range of skills, but also motivate the employee to work. Meanwhile, creating the appropriate infrastructure, corporate structure, innovative champion and trust are needed.

Tidd and Bessant (2009) noted the challenge of organizational management is to create an innovative organization that made people focus on creativity, innovation and change behavior to innovative

behavior. The innovative behavior of employees is achieved by working with a multi-skill team in proper working environment. The human resource management practices associated with the innovative aspects of promoting and supporting innovation, such as job design, reward system, employee participation and team building, etc. The critical components of innovation in the enterprises are:

1. Company Infrastructure - refers to the resource, management model and plans that affect the operation.
2. External Confidence - The confidence of the executive of employees.
3. Clear Objective - The clear goals setting and thinking process that guide employees work and recognize.
4. Team Constitution - The nature of the team member who consistent with the corporate plan.
5. External Influences - The external environment that affect the operations of the organization such as finance, technology, creativity, new knowledge.
6. Freedom – the employees have the authority to decide, plan and control their work.
7. Attitude to risk - refers to proactive thinking, ready to change and learning from mistakes that are beneficial to organizations.
8. Internal confidence - Trust in a group of employees and confidence in the ability of their potential to create change and solve the problem.
9. Department growth and development - The employee should develop new skills which add value to the organization.

METHODOLOGY

The research designs of this paper is mixed methods and study in a medium well known firm in Thai biotechnology industry that was selected to be the case study. The methodology categorized in two parts.

1. The qualitative collection used focus group discussion in R&D unit. The participants consist of manager, assistant manager, supervisor and talent employee. Data analysis is to describe the nature of participant and grouping information followed the components of innovation in the enterprises (Tidd and Bessant (2009).
2. The quantitative gathering is the employee perception survey about innovative culture and structure by questionnaires. The samples are 152 employees in all departments that were selected by simple random sampling technique. The statistic is descriptive statistics that are frequency, percentage, means and standard deviation.

FINDING

A case study is the import-export company that distributes animal feed raw materials and initiates new agriculture product through investment in research and development to expand the domestic and ASEAN

market. The main products include shrimp feed, shrimp head protein extracts, soybean processing, organic minerals, organic agricultural supplement, protein and probiotic enzymes. The currently targets accelerate to research and develop of human functional food and distribute in the country and abroad. In order to R&D, the company works with government agencies, research institutes and academic institutions to develop technology and transfer knowledge. Further, the company enrolled many pretty patents and patents and was taken the National Innovation Award in 2007.

The Opinion Of Employees

The survey results had shown that the employee rated the team constitution and the external influence in the high level ($\bar{x} = 4.34$), followed by the attitude to risk ($\bar{x} = 4.18$), the company infrastructure ($\bar{x} = 4.14$), the clear objective ($\bar{x} = 4.01$), the internal confidence ($\bar{x} = 3.99$). The department growth and development and the freedom dimension were in the same rate ($\bar{x} = 3.96$). Finally, the external confidence was rated at low level ($\bar{x} = 3.89$).

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviation of The factors of innovation in the enterprises

Components	\bar{x}	SD
Company Infrastructure	4.14	0.85
External Confidence	3.89	1.04
Clear Objective	4.01	0.80
Team Constitution	4.34	0.79
External Influence	4.34	0.79
Freedom	3.96	0.75
Attitude to risk	4.18	0.60
Internal confidence	3.99	0.76
Department growth and development	3.96	0.93
Total average	4.09	0.64

The factors of innovation in the enterprises

Almost employees had understood the innovation concept that “the innovation is new product, service or process. The innovation novelty has multiple levels: new to the world, new to the nation, new to the organization or new to the market. However, the important for innovation is its invention can commercialize.” The company plans to create learning atmosphere within the organization and recognizes to transfer basic innovation concept to all employees. Moreover, all process in the organization base on the innovation concept. It could be seen from the development of innovative products and ongoing research. In addition, management also plays a role in innovation supporting in organizations such to encourage long life learning of employees and creating network that is beneficial to the organization.

1. Company Infrastructure – the company had sufficient tools and equipments. For scientific equipment, some of which are often less use and high investment, the company had cooperated with outside agencies to use. The organization not only created a learning organization environment, but also restructured organization to flat organization that had less hierarchy and command level. This made close contact among employees, departments and top managerial positions. Furthermore, the monthly meeting was held to receive suggestion and operating problem, and the directly channel between employees and executives via E-mail took employee comments as well.

2. External Confidence - top executives recognized the employee capability and supported staff to public training with technology institutions. In the part of in-house training, the top executives allocated resources and coordinated with external experts to set training program for educating the employees, including socialized new values “the innovation is not overloaded work, but is the challenge of the work.”

3. Clear Objective - the company set the clearly direction and communicated to employees in monthly meeting and prime occasion. Instance of each meeting, the president had focused and repeated about company vision, mission and strategy to ensure that all staffs get into the same direction before start the new discussion topics.

4. Team Constitution - the coordination and sharing production information among various departments, such as production problem, R&D information and customer needs, was essential for efficiently new product development process. All parties involved in setting goals and operating guidelines. For R&D unit, the company focused on career planning of researchers and knowledge sharing each other.

5. External Influence - the cooperation with educational institutions, universities, research and technology agent, and government unit; the Nation Innovation Agency (NIA), Nation Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA), in funding, policies and transfer body of knowledge affected the development operations in the company.

6. Freedom - the company permitted the employee to work on their own, express the opinion and delegated authority in decision making about their job. These ways were convenient and helped to encourage creativity of employees. Therefore, the staff proposal and ideas would not be blocked that affected sense of belonging and goal achievement.

7. Attitude to risk - the company initiated new projects that focused on technology investments and high risk operation. Thereby, the administration and staffs had understood about innovation and risk in doing it as well. They also learn from the past failed experience and successful implication before develop the suitable plan for each project.

8. Internal confidence – the company had efforts to create a workplace environment regarding safety and quality of work life of employee issues as well as focused on communication within the organization and interpersonal communication to keep good relationships and trust.

9. Department growth and development - the company emphasized on staff development at all levels. In R&D unit, the company invited the technology expert to be an employee consultant and coach. Further, they highlighted on internal and external training as well as career management.

CONCLUSION

The survey and focus group discussion aligned in the same results. The final finding found that almost staffs had understood the innovation concept, and all factors of the innovation in the enterprise affected the employee innovative behavior and innovation process in the company. The innovative firms should be concerned and transform the organizational structure to motivate and support the employees’ creativity as well as boosting the innovative culture from leader to operational level and set the standard base on the innovation process. The staffs also had the opinion about an external factor such as the government must take the proactive role in promoting and supporting. Especially, resources and service center who provides science equipment, laboratory service and knowledge management system to facilitate the private sector. As this study the population is small and come from a single company. The results obtain not pretty complete and reliability is not so much. Therefore, further study should require increasing the size of the population and comparing with other biotechnology companies or other industry.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful in this study come from the collaboration of CEO of the company that allowed the author to gather the data and provide much useful information. I would like to thank all staff who participated in group discussions and survey respondents.

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THE GLOBALIZATION AND EUROPEAN UNIQUE MARKET – A NEW CHALLENGES FOR THE ROMANIAN ECONOMY

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ABSTRACT

Globalization represents the process or the long term reception and approach systems of the greatest contemporary issues determined by the interaction of multiple processes and economic, technical, social, cultural phenomena and the envisage of their solution in a wide perspective by the international community. The European unique market is dynamic, constantly evolving and adapting itself to the new realities. Still, it must remain dynamic and steadily adapt itself in order to remain valid, and continuously contribute to the economic growth and social cohesion. The unique market must take position by stimulating the development of norms and quality standards in accordance with the international norms, in order to enable the European citizens and enterprises to benefit from the opportunities of globalization, minimizing the risks at the same time. This paper wants to reveal that Globalization and the European unique market, as all social-economical phenomena is neither totally good, but it can neither be considered something totally bad

INTRODUCTION

As regarding the globalization, we confront ourselves both with false ideologies perceptions of this phenomenon and with conceptions which make the rule of understanding, though they are inadequate, accomplished or simply inaccurate.

As both theory and phenomenon, globalization tends to increase the economic blockings existent at a certain moment. Therefore, in the specialist literature, it is presented as a challenge and justification, as well as a stimulus to widen integrity, competition and freedom of trade.

The essence of globalization is to ensure a social completeness of economy. The economy may be globalized as an effect of commercial conventions through its specific agents, players of the global markets. According to their position on the international scene, this phenomenon shall be benefic for humanity. Globalization seems to be an integration study of the worldwide economy in which the unique market tends to be an actor of the global market as a viable matrix of international transactions.

According to certain authors, the European Union appeared as a response to the intensification of competition on the global market and as a consequence and cause of changes in the economic role of the states. It became a significant actor in the worldwide economy.

The unique market is an essential component of the international economic integration and, at the same time, the main means of achieving the common goals of the states which are part of it. If initially, the accent was emphasized on the elimination of the main cross-border obstacles which the enterprises were confronting with, the European unique market should evolve as to improve the functioning of the markets and to bring concrete benefits to the citizens, entrepreneurs, workers and consumers in an enlarged Europe.

In order to realize these objectives, the European unique market should face the following changes:

1. globalization, which offers numerous opportunities but which has accumulated the competitive pressure for the European enterprises and which makes that the razor edge between the internal and external markets to become more and more indeterminate;
2. structural changes generated by the development of the economy based on knowledge, the increasingly important role of services within the economy, the increase of energy dependence, climate changes and population ageing;
3. a more extended and diversified European Union, which developed from a community of 12 members and which has at present a number of members.

METHODOLOGY RESEARCH

As regarding the European integration, globalization is seen as an external threat which shall create an environment where a higher degree of integration shall be necessary. Therefore, Europe shall aspire towards realizing a union in global context. It will be difficult for Europe to accomplish its mission of reducing the tensions created from an economic point of view and to contribute to the hastening of institutionalization of international and global governing instruments.

For a better understanding of the new world formula and the way in which it determines the transformational reactions at the level of Romanian authorities we have to briefly consider the immediate past. The most important problem is if Romanians will be able to greatly take advantage of the immense opportunity of the European integration. For that the Romanian authorities must adopt a political decisions mix able to ensure the economic effect regarding the accomplishment of nominal and real convergence of our economy with that of other UE member states.

The European Union states shall increasingly feel the need of security offered as a member quality in the European economic block as the low economies can no longer develop isolated, in a global market environment. The most advantageous are the consumers and small Romanian enterprises due to the fact that the unique market maintains their benefits and the profits shall integrally return to them. They increasingly demand to stay under the “umbrella”, sheltered by the tumultuous globalize market.

Today the environment of the Romanian enterprises became more uncertain, more complex, and more turbulent. The competitiveness of the enterprises on more and more globalize markets constitute a supplementary competitive pressure for the enterprises of the countries developed. This dynamic depends of a complex game of various factors, but the production of knowledge and of new technologies play of it a role of first plan.

The competitiveness of the European Union, to the, global level, is conceived like an instrument to assure an attractive space in term of activities and of jobs, and finally to permit a supportable development.

In analyzing the benefits and the disadvantages brought by the European unique market, at the extremes there are those who either support the European unique market without reservation, considering it a cure-all, or reject it completely.

The disadvantages of the unique market would be as follows:

- on short term: partial loss of national economic control;
- on medium and long term: if this loss shall be prolonged, some immature industries could disappear.

The contemporary world is one of interdependences; from the specialists' point of view, there is no better solution at this moment than globalization and rationalization.

The integration within the European Union implies respecting the same rules and regulations both on the national and unique markets.

Adopting and implementing the EU standards in Romania represents one of the conditions for the access on the Unique Market, as Romania, after accession, is not only a member with full rights of the Unique Market, but it is also a completely integrated member within it.

Romania is challenged by the identification of key-factors to constitute an environment in which the entrepreneurial initiative and commercial activities may develop. Political measures shall be needed in order to stimulate the entrepreneurship both at the level of "unique" and national markets, through an adequate approach for raising the number of entrepreneurs and developing an increasing number of firms.

Therefore, the globalization is an irreversible reality and any country carefully preparing its future finds itself forced to interact with it. Failing to adjust to the new globalization "environment" represents not only a lost chance, but also the risk of losing position and market segments already attained.

The present evolution of the enterprises, the internationalization of the economy and walks entailed the multiplication of operations that is often about amounts elevated and frequently had transnational consequences.

There are voices which consider that the unique market must be rethought as the economy of the European Union is more fragmented than that of the United States. This European general trend regarding the consume, the investments and the labor market represents an argument for a rethought of the unique market politics. More exactly, a redirection of it is necessary from the concentration of the goods towards services and innovation. In addition, a message is conveyed to realize more reforms within the production and financial and labor markets in order to diminish the barriers that still exist against the commercial changes and investments.

Globalization and the European unique market, as all social-economical phenomena is neither totally good, but it can neither be considered something totally bad. We can only say that, overall, it has more positive aspects than negative ones or, just as Joseph E. Stiglitz states "those criticizing globalization too often ignore its benefits."

They demand that the unique market to become a means, not an aim. A means to allow all those who are part of the European Union to fully capitalize the opportunities offered to them by a more open and integrated European Union. At the same time, they contrive promoting the interests of the European citizens in an era of globalization on a cosmopolitan stage.

Therefore, the unique market is never going to be "complete" or "accomplished". A stable legislative frame was formulated for most of the activity sectors, but on the one hand there are still gaps to be filled, on the other hand the current norms are not always fully applied.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the unique market is promoted by certain connected politics applied by the European Union along the years and for Romanian economy specialists importance is that have the task of finding viable answers to such challenges. The purpose of these politics is to aid as many companies and consumers to enjoy the advantages of the unique market including the Romanians.

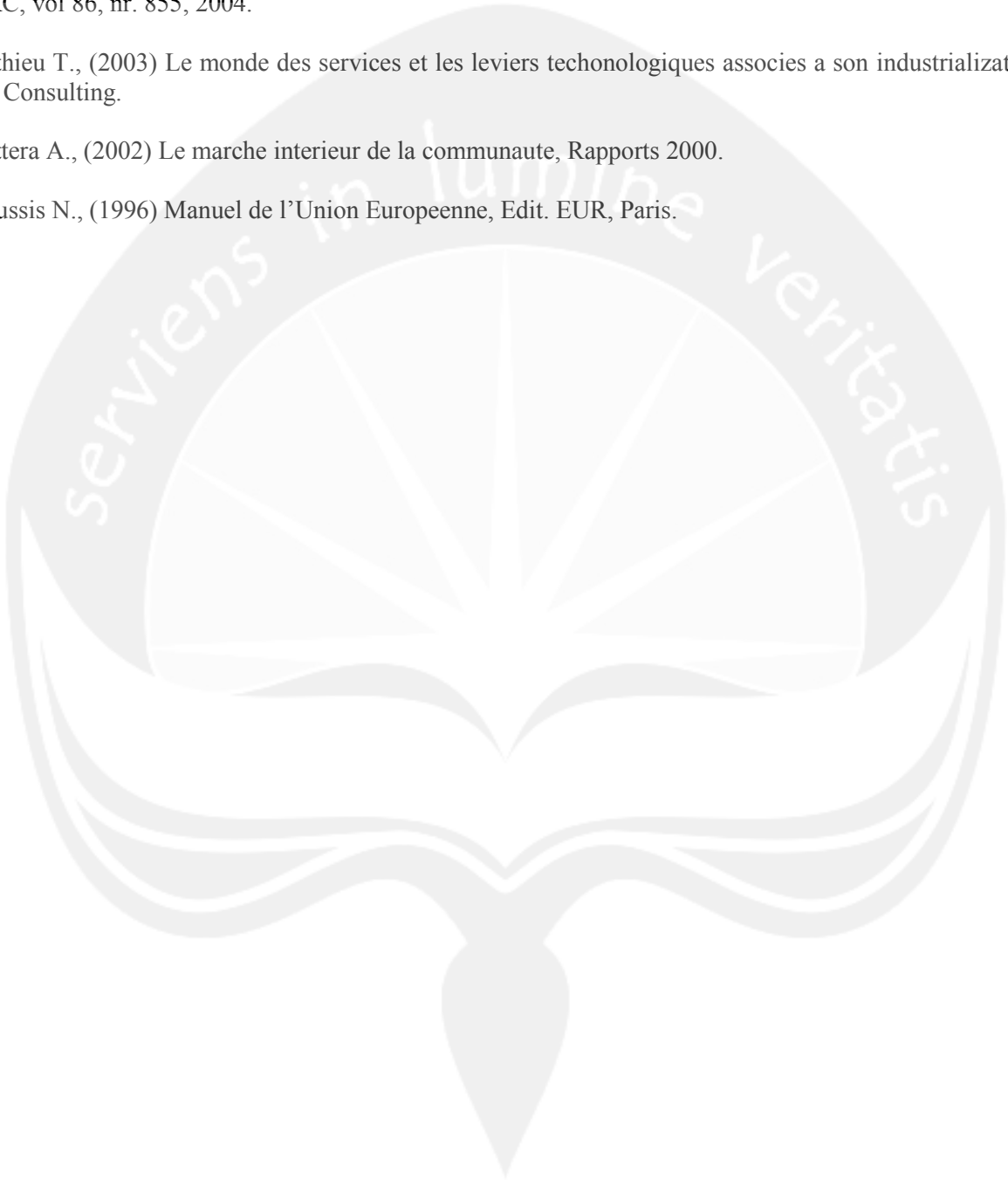
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THE INFORMATION CONTENT OF GOODWILL IMPAIRMENTS ARISING FROM THE ACQUISITION METHOD TREATMENT FOR BUSINESS COMBINATIONS

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According to CompustatTM, the reported amount of Goodwill during the past 10 years has increased by 219% yet the amount of goodwill impairments decreased by approximately 59% over the same period for U.S. domestic companies that remained active over the same 10-year period. Along with the significant increase in the reported goodwill came increased scrutiny from the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) of valuations used in the business combination, especially for indefinite-life assets. Goodwill in particular as it represents an amount paid in excess of the fair value of identifiable net assets, pressures acquiring firms to support economic reasons for the excess payments.

A KPMG study also documents that goodwill impairments substantially decreased between 2008 and 2009 citing improvement is a result of large goodwill write-downs from prior years as well as signs of improvement in the economy at that time. In that period, the amount of goodwill increased from \$3.5 billion to \$3.8 billion while the amount of goodwill impairments decreased by 89% according to the sample of CompustatTM firms. The data found in CompustatTM is consistent with a continuation of the KPMG study, which cited that the decline in goodwill impairments continued in 2010 by 72% from 2009 levels. The goodwill losses dominated the financial industry, with the remainder of the losses impacted telecommunications and energy. The modest increase in the amount of goodwill from 2008 to 2009 is reasonable given that deal values for those years aggregated about \$154 billion and \$251 billion, respectively (Sample obtained from FactSet Merger and Acquisition database for U.S. publically held acquirers and target firms.) However, deals values for 2010 declined to \$148 billion, which should lead to less goodwill impairments beyond 2010. Overall, the evidence suggests that goodwill impairments are declining in spite of fluctuating deal values and less than robust merger and acquisition market, while overall goodwill is increasing.

INTRODUCTIONS

The paradox could be explained by the other important factor that occurred in the 2008 to 2009 period; a significant change in accounting for business combinations from the purchase method treatment to the acquisition method. The latter method treats acquisition-related costs, namely accounting, legal, and investment banker fees as expenses; the former method afforded capitalization treatment for the same costs and thereby inflating goodwill and thus provide the explanation for the reported increase in goodwill amounts during the past years. The change in accounting for business combinations did not change procedures for testing the recognition of goodwill impairments. On September 15, 2011, the FASB issued Accounting Standards Update No. 2011-08, titled Intangibles-Goodwill and Other, Testing Goodwill for Impairment (ASU). The purpose of the ASU is to further simplify the goodwill impairment test from a 2-step test to an optional assessment of qualitative factors to determine whether there is a more likely than not that fair value of the reporting entity is less than its carrying amount. This procedure is effective for fiscal years beginning after December 15, 2011.

For 2008 deals, just before the change to the acquisition method treatment, goodwill was 50% of deal values at completion. In 2009 and 2010, when the acquisition method was required, goodwill as a percentage of deal values was 32% and 36%, respectively. The precipitous decline in goodwill as a percentage of deal values for 2009 and 2010 is directly associated with treating significant acquisition costs as expenses compared to past treatment as a component of goodwill. Therefore, the decline in goodwill impairments cited earlier could also be attributed to the change in the accounting treatment for business combinations.

The purpose of this study is to examine goodwill impairments associated with 2008 business combinations using the purchase method treatment, and for 2009, and 2010 business combinations that used the acquisition method treatment. Using the methodology of Bens et al. (2011), a sample of goodwill impairments from those business combinations will be analyzed for their information content as the difference between an estimate of their expected impairment and their actual impairment, “the surprise impairment.” The test variable is the accounting method used for the business combination. Controls for attributes of the business combination, such as bid premiums, deal size, industry comparability, and information asymmetry will be used in the analysis. Event study methodology, using the impairment announcement as the event date, will examine the market reaction to the surprise impairment.

The results of the empirical analysis are expected to be consistent with the findings of Bens et al. (2011), but for different reasons. The market reaction to the impairment news should be less significant for those business combinations using the acquisition method treatment than those that did not. The contribution of this study serves to highlight the acquisition method critics’ claims that not capitalizing acquisition costs, and thus reducing the amount to reported goodwill for business combinations, does not provide relevant accounting information for users to evaluate investments in the corporate control market.

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MANAGING THE FUZZY FRONT END OF INNOVATION

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The unacceptably high failure rate of new product development may be due in part to the inadequacies of the processes used to generate and manage ideas – the fuzzy front end of innovation. Improving this early phase of the innovation/development process may prove critical to enhancing a company's competitiveness and sustainability. This paper examines the unintended consequences that arise when companies fail to manage the fuzzy front end of innovation. Our research suggests some structured approaches and process models to improve the generation, capture and management of ideas during the early phases of the innovation process. The need to manage innovation more effectively is critical if a company is to remain competitive, efficient, adaptable and sustainable in an ever-changing world. (Collins, & Porras, 2002; Berkun 2007; Christensen, & Raynor, 2003; Christensen, 2000; Drucker, 1985). The fuzzy front end involves new product development, and research in the area focused on innovation management, processes, tools, resources, people, culture, and best practices for new product development (Kahn, 2005; Belliveau, Griffen, Somermeyer, 2002; Griffen, Somermeyer, 2007; Belliveau, 2004). On the process side, Koen (2005) breaks the innovation process "into three areas: the Fuzzy front end (FFE), the New Product Development Portion (NPD), and Commercialization" (p. 3). Of these, the fuzzy front end (coined by Smith & Reinerten in 1991) is considered a fundamentally important issue in future research on product development (Verwon, Herstatt, & Nagahira, 2008). Backman, Borjesson, and Setterberg (2007) posit that "the greatest opportunities for improving the overall innovation process lie in the very early phases of NPD" process (i.e., the fuzzy front end) (p. 321). Zhan and Doll (2001) state that "managers and researchers claim the benefits resulting from improvements in the front [end] are likely to far exceed those that result from improvements aimed directly at the design engineering process" (Koen, et al. 2001, p. 2). Process models for the fuzzy front end center on idea generation as a core activity of innovation (Hansen, & Birkinshaw, 2007; Khurana, & Rosenthal, 1998; Gallagher, George, & Kadaki, 2006; Koen et al. 2001; Husig, Kohn, & Poskela, 2003; Hüsigg & Kohn, 2003; Hüsigg, Kohn, & Poskela, 2005; Flint, 2002). Simply put, "innovation begins with an idea" (Vandenbosch, Saatcioglu, & Fay, 2006, p. 12). How important are ideas? Jack Foster (1996) asserts that "new ideas are the wheel of progress" (p. 3) and Linda Rochford (1991) states that "ideas are the raw material for product development" (p. 4). Therefore, it stands to reason that effectively managing ideas will enhance the innovation process and lead to improvements in new product development processes. According to Stasch, Lonsdale, & LaVenka (1992) "the objective of all idea-generating activities is to guarantee that the company does not leave the exploration stage of new-product development to chance" (p. 3). While McGuinness (1998) argues that "organizations that are active in new product development work must have a system of sorts to keep the flow of ideas coming" (p. 121). The problem, according to Tucker (2003), is that idea generation is often mishandled in companies where it arises sporadically and is inefficiently captured and managed. This results in a loss of valuable information, loss of new ideas, and loss of time and opportunity. As Gamlin, Yourd, & Patrick (2007) observe, "Idea generation is everyone's job and no one's responsibility....no one individual in a company or business unit is specifically in charge of idea generation, and often, when new ideas surface, no action is taken" (p. 42). This research explores both the intended and unintended consequences of managing the fuzzy front end of innovation and how it may improve innovation and sustainability.

TURNOVER AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS IN TIJUANA, MEXICO

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ABSTRACT

In this paper we analyze if having family and community links keeps the employees from leaving their jobs at the export processing zone (EPZ) in Tijuana. With survey data gathered in a organization belonging to the EPZ of the Tijuana area, we use the international model of extended job embeddedness to find the causes hidden behind turnover. A questionnaire with 125 items using a 4 points likert scale was developed using the international extended job embeddedness model. Questions measuring variables such as attachment to the firm and community, satisfaction with benefits offered by the employer, Attitudes towards job and community, Family attitudes towards job, recent events causing the employee to think about leaving, benefits of returning home or emigrating to USA, cultural questions and personal data were used to correlate vs. employee future intentions to stay or leave the organization. 225 questionnaires were applied to find the relationship between family and community embeddedness, affective commitment and satisfaction with benefits and future intentions to quit that employees present in the sample. High correlations were found that proof a strong relationship between the variables of the proposed model.

JEL-M12

KEY WORDS: job turnover, Ensenada, Mexico, Model of Employee Turnover, maquiladora industry (foreign assembly plant industry outside the U.S.A.)

INTRODUCTION

While an extensive literature research has been developed in the last fifty years since export processing began in northern Mexico, very little research has addressed the relationship between turnover and employee family and community links leading to labor migration in the export processing zones (EPZ). In this paper we look at if having family and community links keeps the employees from leaving their jobs at the export processing zone (EPZ) in Tijuana. With survey data gathered in a organization belonging to the EPZ of the Tijuana area, we use the international model of extended job embeddedness to find the causes hidden behind turnover.

The paper begins with a documentary research related to turnover studies and findings. Then we analyze the preliminary data collected using the questionnaire developed to be applied in Mexico with the purpose to establish the relationship of the variables of the model.

For the Mexican survey, we chose Tijuana due to its Maquiladora Industry dynamics along the Mexico Border that has contributed to employment growth, economic resources and knowledge spillovers in the area since 1960.

- Maquiladoras originated as part of the Mexican government's 1965 Border Industrialization Program.
- Most maquiladoras are foreign-owned, controlled or subcontracted manufacturing plants that process or assemble imported components for export.
- Maquiladora inputs are generally imported duty-free, and countries, like the U.S. only tax the value-added portion of maquiladora exports.
- Maquiladoras account for more than 60% of Mexico's exports
- The area of Tijuana, Mexico employs roughly 120,000 workers with over 3,000 maquiladoras. Approximately 58% of the jobs in Tijuana are from the maquiladora industry.
- Tijuana is also geographically desirable to foreign investors as it is conveniently located directly on the U.S. Mexico Border allowing for cheap shipment of assembled products directly into the U.S. (twin plants.)

Tijuana is known as the "TV manufacturing capital of the world." Maquiladora companies produce more than 12 million television sets there each year. Tijuana's largest employers, for example, are Sony and Sanyo. Also, other manufacturing plants not related to the electronics have chosen Tijuana as their center of production due to the geographical advantages described above. Carrillo, et al. found interesting statistic that less than twenty-three percent of the workers in Tijuana were natives of Tijuana.

Research Objectives: 1-Describe the relationship between family and community embeddedness and future turnover intentions in the sample. 2-Describe the relationship between satisfaction with benefits and future turnover intentions in the sample. 3-Describe the relationship between affective organizational commitment and future intentions turnover in the sample.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research for *turnover* and human resources management in the EPZ is scarce. Academic researchers have not analyzed this problem from the workers point of view. Various models designed to analyze human resource management have been developed to explain the reason behind *turnover*. These models have been widely accepted in the United States but application of the same in other countries is under speculation. (March – Simon 1958).

There is no appropriate *turnover* model for EPZ countries outside the United States and its absence is clearly manifested by the lack of knowledge in the application of a suitable *turnover* model.

Arrijoja (1993), partially proved that these foreign models could be used in EPZ countries, even though, his research was very limited and more than 10 years have passed since he validated his hypothesis. Other researchers such as Pena (2000) stated that conditions in the maquila industry were different, which allowed the emerge of new hypothesis that refuted the old ones. He also stated that up to the middle of the sixties, the most part of research found in turnover was bivariated, emphasizing the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover.

Williams e Ibarreche (1989) found that Mexican workers perceive personal and working conditions variables in a very different way than the United States workers. Also, they found that there is a strong relationship between the personality variables and job continuation. (Carrillo- Santibañez 2001).

McEvoy & Casio (1985) mentioned more than 1000 publications on turnover, and Rosse (1991) mentioned 2,000 articles concerning turnover.

Porter mentioned the organizational factors of job atmosphere, job content and personals as the main causes of turnover.

Rodriguez (1988) found that turnover didn't affect productivity of these companies due to the abundant labor available searching for jobs.

Carrillo and Santibañez 2001 emphasized the need of managing turnover in the maquiladora sector, due to the multiple factors that contribute to the individual decision of leaving the job and to the major problem that it means. For them, the problem of turnover was practically impossible of solving without affecting the location of the plants and the possibilities of managerial policies.

Ahr & Ahr (2000) mentioned that since March & Simon's, findings, researchers have focused in finding out how jobs availability and job dissatisfaction interact to give as a result turnover behavior. They stated that under certain circumstances, the availability of different job opportunities stimulate job dissatisfaction in the worker by creating expectations that are not met in the present job. According to them, some employees stay in the organization due to loyalty to the company (normative commitment), while others stay due to the fact that leaving their actual job cost is higher than what they are willing to pay (continuity commitment). Those employees that show attitudes and habits more desirable by the managers tend to be the ones that stay because they want to (affective commitment).

Organization practices represent a potential treat to efficiency and effectiveness of the organization in the maquila industry due to the centralization of power that characterizes this kind of companies. In the Maquila Industry, the grade of centralization is very high due to the fact that most of the high executives are foreigners who are the decision makers (Kacmar et.al 1999). According to them, the perception of the organizational practices is affected by activities such as favoritism, suppression of organization competition and manipulation of internal policies, according to the way the individual perceives them. In the maquila industry workers who do not perceive organizational policies like impartial, where supervisors and his under workers do not have a respectful relationship where the individual has the faculty to become jumbled in the decision making of the organization and to perceive that the opportunities and the forms of remuneration, as well as the relations occur in an impartiality atmosphere.

The lack of knowledge of the Mexican culture, its labor, its laws and the atmosphere of businesses that prevails could disturb the advantages of the low cost labor when requiring additional expenses in recruitment, selection and training, as well as in the losses of productivity whenever an experienced worker leaves the company. (Cascio 1991).

The voluntary exit of a worker of the company is understood as turnover. Turnover says so much about the need of a worker to go to another economic sector or towards not-economic activities. (Carrillo-Santibañez 2001).

Family and Job Embeddedness

In particular, Ramesh & Gelfand (2010) demonstrated that “family embeddedness”—comprising family opinions about an incumbent’s employment in a firm, family benefits from incumbent’s employment, and ties between family and incumbent’s colleagues—can explain additional variance in turnover beyond that of job embeddedness. Customizing this model for collectivist cultures is increasingly essential as turnover is a crucial challenge for manufacturers in export processing zones (EPZ; Sargent & Matthews, 2008) in developing—often collectivist—countries. To illustrate, factory turnover can amount to 31% in China (Chiu, Luk, & Tang, 2002) and exceed 100% in Mexico (Maertz, Campion, & Stevens, 2003).

Understanding what embeds the Chinese and Mexican EPZ workforce is important as they represent a vital source of low-cost factory labor (hired directly or indirectly) for transnationals (Gereffi, 2009). Chinese manufacturers may also become concerned about turnover in Mexico as they increasingly invest there to circumvent NAFTA tariffs, hire even less costly Mexican labor, and access Latin American markets (Liu & Chenyin, 2011).

Though Mexico and China both supply EPZ labor, their cultural comparison can offer a strong test of the cultural universality of our model and well as cultural moderation. According to the Globe Project, Mexicans have higher performance orientation, future orientation, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance than the Chinese (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Such cultural differences may translate into differential effects for various embedding forces. For example, greater collectivism among Mexicans suggests that links, normative pressures, and network colleague closure embed them more than do the Chinese. Moreover, our project further advances the limited cross-national attrition research by demonstrating whether between- and within-country differences in cultural values exhibit *similar* moderating effects. To illustrate, a collectivism moderation thesis is best sustained if embedding forces have stronger loyalty effects on Mexican than Chinese nationals (a between-group moderating effect) *and* if these relational antecedents are stronger among more collectivist than individualist individuals from both societies (Ramesh, 2007).

Testing the efficacy of the embeddedness model for counteracting forces driving employees to quit, such as job dissatisfaction or shocks—critical events at work (or outside work) prompting incumbents to think about quitting (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) is important for EPZ countries. In recent years, turnover researchers observed that basic job embeddedness can deflect the negative effects of shocks, such as supervisory abuse or layoff threats (Burton et al., 2010; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Trevor & Nyberg, 2008). That is, embedded incumbents exposed to shocks are less like to perform poorly or decide to quit. We extend this emerging research by considering whether our extended embeddedness model can attenuate shocks' effects among the EPZ workforce. EPZ workers are especially prone to varied shocks noted by Lee and Mitchell's (1994) unfolding model. According to EPZ research, they quit due to a) personal (path 1) shocks (invoking pre-existing plans to quit), such as returning home to care for family members, b) negative workplace (path 2) shocks, such as hazardous working conditions or unpaid wages, and job-offer (path 3) shocks, such as being recruited away by former co-workers or other plants (Johnson, 2004; Maertz et al., 2003; West, 2004).

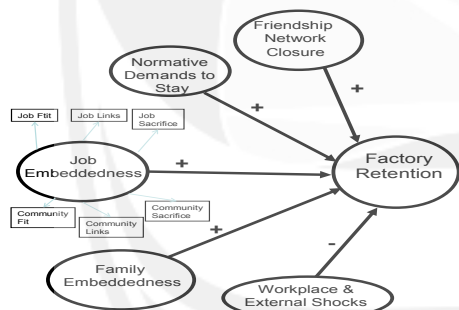
While exposed to greater forces that “push” (path 2 shocks) or “pull” (path 1 shocks) them away from the factory job, EPZ workers however lack certain “pull” forces keeping them in jobs (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Because many Mexican and Chinese EPZ workers emigrated from the interior countryside for work, they are rarely embedded in the EPZ community (Rivera & Tovar, 2007). To illustrate, Chinese

migrants lack *hukou* (or rights to housing or education benefits that are available for legal residents in a community) and thus would not find it costly (in terms of foregone community amenities) if they leave EPZ locales. They also may have few--if any--family members residing nearby and even may have left children in their hometowns to be reared by grandparents (Yardley, 2004). Because EPZ workers encounter more shocks and are weakly embedded in communities in which they work (lacking community links and sacrifice; Mitchell & Lee, 2001), it is not surprisingly that this workforce exhibits exorbitant turnover. In sum, evaluating "attenuation" capacity of our extended model to deflect or mute shocks' effects advances previous research by probing this capacity with EPZ workers, representing both a powerful as well as an international test.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire with 125 items using a 4 points likert scale was developed using the international extended job embeddedness model. Questions measuring variables such as attachment to the firm and community, satisfaction with benefits offered by the employer, Attitudes towards job and community, Family attitudes towards job, recent events causing the employee to think about leaving, benefits of returning home or emigrating to USA, cultural questions and personal data were used to correlate vs. employee future intentions to stay or leave the organization. The questionnaire items and corresponding variables are described in Table1.

Figure . 1: The International Extended Job Embeddedness Model:



Upon securing firm permission, we directly administered the survey to 250 workers when their work shifts ended. The purpose was to assure survey confidentiality as well as address respondent questions. After this first survey application, we tested the predictive validity of the model with logistic regression and cultural moderation with hierarchical moderated (logistic) regression.

Sample Characteristics

As we can see, most of the employees surveyed are young, 52% of them are less than 30 years old, 52% are male, 48% are married, 80% have a low level of education, where 40% only have elementary school and 40% secondary school. About seniority, 20% are new employees of 1 year or less, 28% have between 1 and 2 years of seniority, 12% have between 2 and 3 years and 40% have been working for the company for more than 3 years.

Table 1: Operational description of International extended Job Embeddedness Model

Variable	item
Workplace and external shocks	ES1-2
Family embeddedness	FE1-10
Job embeddedness	JE1-23
Satisfaction with benefits	SB1-18
Pay adequacy	PA1-4
GLOBAL JOB EMBEDDEDNESS	GJE5-12
JOB SATISFACTION	JS13-15
AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	AOC16-19
PERCEIVED JOB PROSPECTS	PJP19-21
SUPERVISORY COMMITMENT	SC22-25
TEAM COMMITMENT	TC26-29
DEFECTING COWORKERS OR SUPERVISORS	DCS30-31
NORMATIVE PRESSURES FROM FAMILY TO STAY OR LEAVE	NP11-13
RELOCATION DESIRABILITY FROM THARENOU AND CAULFIELD MODEL ON EXPATRIATE TURNOVER	RD1-8
MEASURES OF HOFSTEDE CULTURAL DIMENSIONS 1-6 = POWER DISTANCE 7-12 = COLLECTIVISM 13-17 = UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE	HCD1-17
Factory Retention	FR1-5

Source: self research

Table 2: Education Level of the Sample

percentage	Level of education
40%	elementary school education
40%	secondary school education
20%	had high school or more

Source: self research

Table 3: Seniority of the Sample

Percentage	Level of seniority
20%	One year or less
28%	between 1 and 2 years
12%	Between 2 and 3 years
40%	More than 3 years

Source: self research

Table 4: Sample's Age

Percentage	Age
52%	20-30 years old
28%	31-40 years old
20%	Older than 40

Source: self research

Table 5: Gender of the Sample

percentage	Gender
52%	Male
48%	Female

Source: self research

Table 6: Seniority of the Sample

percentage	Level of education
20%	One year or less
28%	between 1 and 2 years
12%	Between 2 and 3 years
40%	More than 3 years

Source: self research

Measures

Predictor variables: Two survey formats were used: (1) Likert-type scales ranging from 1, “strongly disagree” to 10 “strongly agree” and (2) demographic questions. Employees self-reported data on all variables with the exception of characteristics of the organization, for which human resources personnel provided data.

Control variables. Organizational characteristics and employee profile were controlled as both have been found to correlate with turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Gender was coded as “male” 1, and “female” 2. The variables in the model were measured by individual perceptions and assessments as recorded on the questionnaire. The questionnaire included multiple items intended to measure the perception of the employee for the variables attachment to the firm and community, satisfaction with benefits offered by the employer, Attitudes towards job and community, Family attitudes towards job, recent events causing the employee to think about leaving, benefits of returning home or emigrating to USA, cultural questions and personal data were used to correlate vs. employee future intentions to stay or leave the organization. Most of these variables were based on previous measurement work by Hom and Garcia (2011). We designed 128 questions in a new questionnaire.

RESULTS

We analyzed data using the S.P.S.S. program with Pearson correlations. For the variable of future intentions to leave the job, we used the methods described by Hom and Garcia (2011) in their turnover research.

Findings about demographics of the employees were:

- The group that presented high turnover represents 49.7% of the sample, and the low turnover group represents 41.7%, having 8.6% of non responders. Average seniority was 18 months in the job.

- Employees that stayed longer than 18 months in the job are older than 26 and younger than 35 years old.

Married women represent most of the low turnover employees.

- 48% of the total employees sampled are foreigners who don't have family or community links in this city.
- 47% of the total employees sampled are renting a small house temporarily.

About the satisfaction with the benefits offered by the organization, we found that the average of the employees were satisfied, even though, a great number was showing dissatisfaction, which could lead to turnover. Some of the results are shown on table No. 7:

Table No. 7: Satisfaction with the benefits offered by the organization

Benefit description	Very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	none	satisfied	Very satisfied
Christmas bonus	8%	20%	12%	52%	8%
Seniority bonus	12%	20%	32%	28%	8%
Punctuality bonus	4%	16%	8%	52%	20%
Yearly salary increases	16%	24%	28%	20%	12%

Source: self research

Table No. 8: Spearman Correlations

PEARSON CORRELATION MATRIX	FAMILY AND COMMUNITY EMBEDEDDNESS	FUTURE INTENTION TO QUIT	SATISFACTIO N WITH B.	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT
FAMILY AND COMMUNITY EMBEDEDDNESS	.629***	1.000	.553***	.427***
FUTURE INTENTION TO QUIT	.699***	.525***	1.000	.557***
SATISFACTION WITH BENEFITS	.553***	.552***	.206***	1.000
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	.427***	.557***	.397***	.445***

*** correlations significance is to 0.01 level

source: self investigation

Main Findings and Discussion

As shown in figure No. 8, correlations between family and community embeddedness and future intentions to quit are high, employees with no family and community links are the ones that leave the organization first. About the satisfaction with the benefits, there is a strong relationship found with the future intentions to quit. We found a strong relationship with future intentions to quit and the employees affective commitment.

Objectives are achieved in the main findings.

Mexico is a collectivist society. People respond to the norms of others to fulfill their need for social affiliation. Community embeddedness of fit and sacrifice reflect an individual's preferences (i.e., self need of acceptance). Community links is related to future quit intentions. As noted, 48% of the employees sampled have no community links and have future intentions to migrate to USA. Job embeddedness theory does not fully capture the emotional intensity of links (which Holtom et al., 2008 acknowledge).

American-based models are so individualistic, assuming that people are motivated mostly by self-gain. We are finally recognizing social influences, though we continue to disparage them as “constraints” on self-fulfillment. Yet newer theories on collectivism suggest that collectivists embrace the opportunity to serve group goals (finding altruism “intrinsically rewarding; cf. Adam, 2007) or that their self-identity derives from group affiliations (Brewer & Chen, 2007). As we carry out more turnover studies in collectivist countries, we need to revamp our models to fit these cultural differences.

As shown in the results, Family embeddedness and affective commitment are good predictors for turnover.

For the sample of this research, it was very clear the importance of community and family links to feel attached to their roots at the same time that they belong to the organization.

Having 35% of the population in Tijuana considered as floating population, due to their status, it is very understandable that employees consider their jobs at the EPZ as temporary and a necessary step before crossing the border. Many of those employees that get hired by this companies (48%) according to this research, will leave the company at the first opportunity.

With high instability in the border towns of the EPZ, administering and keeping the work force is a hard task for most human resources’ managers. Organizations need to “read” the future employee intentions to stay or leave the company understanding the hidden reasons he has for his final destination.

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GREAT WAR LEADERS' SUCCESSFUL MEDIA STRATEGIES FOR BUSINESS: HOW FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT AND JOHN CURTIN WON JOURNALISTS' SUPPORT

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ABSTRACT

At the height of the Pacific war, the American and Australian leaders communicated successfully with journalists, providing valuable business strategies on how to develop positive media relations in crises. After the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, in December 1941, the United States President, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Australian Prime Minister, John Curtin, generated favorable news coverage about their leadership. Yet there is a lack of information on their media strategies to win journalists' support in a time of crisis. This paper shows how Roosevelt and Curtin managed to influence and persuade the news media. First, they frequently communicated to journalists in an honest, egalitarian and friendly way, increasing the number of regular news briefings between the press and the national leader. Secondly, they advanced the relatively new medium of radio to broadcast appealing, inclusive and accessible messages. Journalists repeated and amplified their radio talks in the news. Thirdly, they used practiced, forceful rhetoric and hand gestures in filmed newsreel scenes to convey their resolve and create the appearance of a direct, friendly relationship with their target audiences. These media strategies are still useful to business leaders when managing information needs in today's 24-hour news cycle.©

INTRODUCTION

Just as CEOs need to communicate a unifying vision to reassure troubled markets, Franklin Delano Roosevelt used the media to bring together diverse global audiences after the Pearl Harbor bombing. During the Pacific crisis, for example, Australian people's "admiration of his personal qualities" was "unlimited", as that country's Prime Minister John Curtin declared (1945a). Why did people in Australia and around the world develop "a personal devotion" to this United States president "rarely given by a people to any statesman other than their own" (Eggleston, 1945)? While Roosevelt is known for his stirring radio "fireside chats," there is a lack of published findings on how he managed his media relations to generate positive news coverage about his resolve to end the Pacific crisis with Curtin. Likewise, United States journalists reported on "Honest John" Curtin's eloquent radio rhetoric, likening this to the words of Civil War poet Walt Whitman because it "should have roused the fight in the entire U.S. public" (*Time*, March 23, 1942, p. 27; August 23, 1943, p. 34; August 30, 1943, p. 28). Their media strategies are useful for today's businesses when communicating information needs during a time of crisis.

Effective leadership calls for personable executives skilled in the fine art of communicating across boundaries (Fombrun, 1992; Hartog and Verburg, 1997). The most successful firms provide a common understanding of a clear and consistent corporate vision (Bartlett and Ghosal, 2002). Through their frequent messages in the press, radio and film, Roosevelt and Curtin generated mainly favorable media coverage about their alliance in World War II (hereafter the war). They developed cooperative media strategies after the Japanese military government's bombing of the Hawaiian naval base, Pearl Harbor, on December 7, 1941. Roosevelt sent about 90,000 US servicemen to Australia, a country with major military bases and a population of seven million people, by August 1942 (Curtin, 1944a; Saunders and

Taylor, 1995). By talking frequently with journalists, using inclusive language and practiced, forceful gestures, they persuaded varied public audiences to coalesce and support their strategic direction. This paper identifies the lessons of their media success for today's businesses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature reveals parallels in both leaders' media skills. They established a close affinity with journalists by talking about their previous newspaper experiences in media conferences. While Roosevelt enjoyed referring to his undergraduate position as the managing editor and president of his university's newspaper, *The Harvard Crimson*, Curtin discussed his former role as an Australian labor newspaper editor (Davidson, 2000; White, 1979). When Curtin visited San Francisco on April 19, 1944, for example, he said he had been a "newspaperman" at a media conference that was "the biggest and best ever held" in the city, according to a Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) commentator (Moody, 1944a, p. 1). Appealing to journalists' sense of integrity, Curtin said they were in an "honorable" profession that necessitated a "high degree of responsibility" and upholding a "code" (1944b, p. 44-45). These press conversations assisted the two men to develop a sense of a common bond with reporters.

As Roosevelt answered journalists' impromptu questions, his interviews represented a significant departure from the more formal, structured briefings provided by his predecessors, Herbert Hoover and Woodrow Wilson (Perloff, 1998; Truman, 1945; Winfield, 1990). He generally conducted twice-weekly news conferences during his four presidential terms. This amounted to 998 interviews during slightly more than 12 years, from March 8, 1933, to April 5, 1945 (Perloff, 1998). Likewise, Curtin generally held twice-daily media briefings, well-timed at noon and the early evenings to coincide with reporters' deadlines including weekends (Lloyd, 1988, Lloyd and Hall, 1997). Furthermore, he conducted at least three major media conferences in San Francisco and Washington DC in 1944 (Campbell, 2008; Curtin, 1944c; Great Britain Foreign Office, 1944). Just as Roosevelt was the first president to employ a full-time press secretary, Stephen T. Early, in 1933, Curtin appointed Australia's first full-time prime ministerial press secretary, Don Rodgers, in 1941 (Levin, 2008; Rodgers, 1971). While Curtin and Roosevelt benefited from the wartime censorship policies, and a few newspaper publishers disagreed with their ideologies, they developed mainly respectful, egalitarian relationships with journalists (Day, 1999; Serle, 1998; Steele, 1985).

Both leaders enthusiastically used the relatively new media of radio and wartime newsreels (Bonner, 1963; Day, 2000; Link, 1955; University of San Diego, 2008; Ward, 1999). Scholars have described Roosevelt's radio "fireside chats" as setting "the gold standard for American political oratory" because of his ability to project a warm, fatherly persona to US audiences (Bonner, 1963; Lim, 2003, p. 438; Link, 1955). As historical accounts vary, it is believed he gave between 25 and 31 radio "fireside chats" during his presidency (Lim, 2003). Also Curtin gave radio talks from his country to US listeners (John Curtin Prime Ministerial Library, 2007). By early 1944, he and Roosevelt had developed a "very friendly and cooperative relationship" (Black, 2001, p. 225).

Likewise, the leaders' wives, Eleanor Roosevelt and Elsie Curtin, used news conferences to promote their wartime alliance, as well as to support women in business and leadership. On March 6, 1933, only two days after her husband's inauguration, Eleanor Roosevelt began weekly interviews to try to persuade US news organizations to employ at least one female journalist each. She conducted 350 women-only media conferences in the White House from 1933 to 1945 (Beasley, 2000; United States Library of Congress,

2006). Just as Eleanor Roosevelt gave media talks during her visit to Australia, Elsie Curtin conducted news interviews in Washington DC (Campbell, 2008).

As US correspondents portrayed Roosevelt's death as a shock to Americans, similarly many Australians were reportedly astonished by the loss of Curtin. Both nations' citizens seemed genuinely surprised by the news because journalists had cooperated with the two leaders and censorship policies by avoiding publishing detailed medical diagnoses of their health problems (Coatney, 2011; Evans, 2002). Curtin wrote to Eleanor Roosevelt and the new US President, Harry S. Truman, that Australians were deeply "shocked" by his death during his vacation in Warm Springs, Georgia, on April 12, 1945 (1945b, p. 34.). Similar statements were made about Curtin after he died in Canberra on July 5, 1945. Few Australians "were prepared" for the tragedy, with people quoted as saying they "didn't think it was so near." The news was reported as tributes on US press front pages (Coatney 2011). Journalists lauded the two men's resolve to remain as leaders to help achieve a war victory.

METHODOLOGY

To discover how the two leaders were able to develop positive media relations, this study has conducted a multimethod approach. First, a new examination is made of primary sources, some of which are rarely viewed, to identify the successful strategies developed by Roosevelt and Curtin in their media conferences. Secondly, through a limited content analysis, this paper investigates the keywords they emphasised to persuade audiences. Thirdly, the simplicity, accessibility and appeal of their words will be examined. The Flesch Kincaid score will be used for this purpose. This formula ranks documents on a school grade level. The recommended Flesch-Kincaid score for most public documents is about eight, close to the reading level of "middle-brow" newspapers and suitable for an eighth-grade student (Day, 2008; Lim, 2003). Rudolph Flesch first developed his readability formula as a doctoral thesis in 1943 at Columbia University's Teachers College in New York City (Sirico, 2008). Certainly, Roosevelt and Curtin were aware of the need to speak distinctly in national broadcasts (Curtin, 1941a; Ryfe, 1999). Expert recommendations have varied on the optimal pace of public speech, with some scholars advising a languid pace of one hundred words each minute (Lim, 2003) while other authors advocate 125 words a minute in a business setting (Nichols and Stevens, 1957). These formulas will be applied to a sample of Roosevelt and Curtin speeches to glean an understanding of whether their media messages were targeted effectively to global audiences.

Fourthly, it is important to discover whether these messages were reproduced favorably in the news. This analysis is based on the Pew Research Center's Project for Excellence in Journalism formula (2008) that a news article is deemed "positive" if two-thirds of the statements appear to support a leader (Public Broadcasting Service, 2009). Fifthly, while public opinion polling was new in the wartime era, these surveys indicate general support for the two leaders (Gallup, 1972; *The Courier-Mail*, August 14, 1942, p. 4; *Time*, August 23 and 30, 1943). By investigating their ability to promote their values and visions, this study will identify the secrets of their success as media communicators.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Managing the News

Although Roosevelt and Curtin cultivated good-natured relationships with journalists, they delivered their main messages forcefully to the media. For example, the president joked with the nation's newspaper

financial editors at the beginning of an interview, when he said: “Of course, very few newspapermen know the difference between a dollar and a dime, anyway. But then, on the other hand, very few Presidents do. So we start even” (1942a). Yet he knew how to persuade journalists to focus on his messages. At one of his White House media conferences, he sought to influence correspondents to report on the US economic agreements with Australia. He announced: “We have been receiving from Australia enough beef and veal, practically, to feed all of our troops that are based in Australia.” This “reverse lend-lease process” enabled US meat producers to send about the same amount of beef and veal to troops in Europe. “I didn’t know it until this morning,” he told journalists. “I grabbed hold of it and said that’s the thing that has been overlooked.” He also encouraged them to publish the news by saying: “That is a real headline. In the long run that is something that the country doesn’t know” (1943). As a result, the press reports supported the US-Australian military alliance (Coatney, 2011).

Roosevelt’s innovative news conferences perhaps influenced Australia’s prime minister to hold more frequent, two-way discussions with journalists. Curtin’s news interviews were unprecedented in their frequency, openness and informality in Australia (Coatney, 2011). At his San Francisco media conference, “pressmen” applauded and laughed when he joked that neither he nor Roosevelt “could get outside of the law of natural attraction” as American servicemen married Australian women (1944d, p. 35; Moody, 1944b). Despite these seemingly spontaneous interactions, Curtin was prepared to direct the content of these international media talks. When he visited Ottawa in 1944, the Canadian Prime Minister, William Lyon Mackenzie King, observed: “He seemed to attach great importance in the morning to the press interview. He came with material prepared for distribution, welcomed questions, etc” (June 1, 1944, p. 565). Just as Roosevelt had persuaded reporters to promote his “real headline,” Curtin focused journalists’ attention on his prepared information.

Likewise, Eleanor Roosevelt created a “delightfully informal atmosphere” and also made her main points emphatically at a media conference in Canberra, Australia on September 3, 1943. Afterwards a senior Australian journalist, Joseph Alexander, wrote in his diary: “She is the greatest woman in public life that I have ever met” (September 4, 1943). Furthermore, Eleanor Roosevelt’s candid media talks in Australia might have influenced Elsie Curtin’s interview techniques when she visited Washington DC in 1944. Elsie became a popular media personality, who assisted her husband’s US mission. Shortly after Curtin announced his trip, *The New York Times* (April 4, 1944, p. 14) and *The Washington Post* (April 6, 1944, p. 9) publishers praised Elsie’s decision to “break a tradition” and travel with her husband. Eleanor promoted a firm friendship with Elsie (Eleanor Roosevelt 1944). At her first US news conference, Elsie accentuated themes of kinship by saying Australian and American women had “a good deal in common” and she would continue to support their “prominent” work in “public affairs” (1944). After her interview with Washington DC’s leading female journalists, she was praised for her “honest opinions of matters American and Australian” (*Republican*, May 5, 1944; *The New York Times*, April 26, 1944, p. 20; *The West Australian*, April 28, 1944; *Valley News*, May 6, 1944). Elsie extended her US visit, resulting in *Washington Post* stories about her “busy time” as an “honor guest at luncheons” and her speech to the American Association of University Women (May 12, 1944, p. 12; May 15, 1944, p. 3). Subsequently the two women pioneered direct relationships between a national leader’s wife and international journalists.

Along with their candid press briefings, Roosevelt and Curtin were adept in diverting media attention from controversies. One day after the US declaration of war against Japan on December 8, 1941, Roosevelt announced new censorship rules at his press conference. In a persuasive manner, he added: “It is going to work out all right.” Yet one White House reporter questioned: “Will there eventually be a

censor who we can get our teeth stuck into?” The president replied: “It is awfully hard to answer it. Talk to Steve [Early] about this” (1941a). By referring the journalists to his press secretary, Early, he managed to forestall more negative questions. Ultimately reporters were willing to accept a voluntary censorship system because it was preferable to punitive war secrets laws and they recognised the popular support for fighting totalitarian enemies (Hammond, 2001).

Similarly Roosevelt was keen to prevent undue media attention of Curtin’s visit because he was secretly resting at his advisor Bernard Mannes Baruch’s hunting and fishing lodge in Hobcaw Barony, South Carolina. Before the meeting, Eleanor confided to Elsie: “The President may still be away on an enforced holiday due to complete weariness” (1944). They kept Roosevelt’s secret. Curtin did not give details of his forthcoming trip when he spoke to 80 leading journalists at Blair House, Washington DC on April 24, 1944. Instead, correspondents positively portrayed his views on peace talks (*The New York Times*, April 25, 1944; *The Washington Post*, April 25, 1944). While detailed records do not exist, Roosevelt seemed to have enjoyed Curtin’s visit because on the same day, he cabled Churchill to confirm: “Everything goes well here in my vacation residence. The doctor agrees with me that I am better” (1944a). Early’s media release indicated only that the Curtins had accompanied Eleanor on a one-day return trip to Roosevelt’s “vacation residence in the South” (Early, 1944, p. 15). This abstruse message was repeated in newspapers and an official photograph of the cheerful visitors was published (*Republican*, May 5, 1944; *The Daily Mirror*, May 1, 1944; *The Daily Telegraph*, Sydney, April 27, 1944; *The Sydney Morning Herald*, April 25, June 27, 1944). In fact, Roosevelt revealed his “vacation hide-out” to White House correspondents only when he invited them to an interview at Hobcaw Barony on May 6. Imploring them to maintain confidentiality, he said: “I have been very comfortable down here. I want to come back” (1944b).

Their press strategies are useful for businesses when conducting media conferences and news interviews. While cultivating direct, candid and forceful communications to journalists, they knew when to divert attention quickly from potential controversies. Although they gave the appearance of informal, spontaneous press interactions, they were prepared to focus on their main messages by distributing written material and persuading reporters to accept what they considered to be a “real headline” (Roosevelt 1943).

Connecting with New Media Audiences

During their global media broadcasts, Roosevelt and Curtin deliberately selected inclusive language of unity and appealed to ideals that evoked shared meanings among different cultural groups. When Roosevelt began his Pearl Harbor announcement and his “fireside chats,” he always welcomed his media audiences with some variant of a greeting to “My Friends” (Lim, 2003). One day after the bombing in Hawaii, he attempted to instil hope in his listeners by talking of “righteous might,” “absolute victory,” “confidence,” “determination,” and “triumph” (1941b). As Curtin broadcast the first prime minister’s radio talk from Australia to American listeners, he greeted “men and women of the United States” particularly those who were “fighting,” “sweating in factories and workshops,” and “making sacrifices.” His frequent use of “we,” “us” and “our” contributed to his reassuring tone (1942a). Curtin’s appeals to freedom, democracy, and liberty were familiar in Roosevelt’s rhetoric. More than half of the “fireside chats” were published on *The New York Times* front pages, with the full texts of the speeches continuing inside the issues (Lim 2003). Such prominent news columns indicated press endorsement for Roosevelt in his home state as he was a former governor of New York. Furthermore, when he mentioned “Australia” occasionally (1942b, 1942c and 1942d), his speech was often favorably promoted on Australian newspaper front pages (e.g. *The Argus*, April 30, 1942; *The Canberra Times*, February 25,

1942, September 9, 1942). Curtin broadcast his US radio talk to more than 700 radio stations connected to the National Broadcasting Company of America, as well as to the British Isles, Canada, Europe and South America (1942a; *The Age*, *The Canberra Times* and *The West Australian*, March 16, 1942). He received positive US press coverage and London reporters praised his “fighting message to America” (*The Age*, March 16, 1942, p. 2; *Time*, March 23, 1942). Thus they established a semblance of a friendship with their audiences that reinforced each one’s media image as a “man of the people” (ScreenSound Australia, 1945).

Despite their theme of unity, the two leaders tried to marginalise and isolate their critics. Roosevelt “assailed his opponents ... as often as he greeted his friends” in his “fireside chats” (Lim, 2003, p. 449). During his broadcast to celebrate George Washington’s birthday, he described foreign policy isolationists as those who “wanted the American eagle to imitate the tactics of the ostrich.” He added: “Now, many of these same people, afraid that we may be sticking our necks out, want our national bird to be turned into a turtle.” Roosevelt reassured his listeners, however, that “we prefer to retain the eagle as it is - flying high and striking hard” (1942e). Likewise, Curtin branded his critics, who were opposed to his military draft policy, as “the mischief-makers outside” the government, and “abusers” whose “quarreling” would not hinder “those who have the responsibility of conducting the war” (1943a, p. 592-596). Newspaper editors copied his speech, focusing on his description of the “mischief-makers” (*The Age*, *The Sydney Morning Herald* and *The West Australian*, February 12, 1943). Yet both leaders took care to make impersonal references to “Japan,” “the enemy,” and the war. It was necessary to avoid verbal “assaults” on Japan’s revered Emperor Hirohito, according to the US government. By the first half of 1942, Roosevelt and Curtin removed official anti-emperor and racist statements that might consolidate Japanese people’s support for their military government and could become counterproductive to Allied efforts in the Pacific (Brands, 2005; Curtin, 1942b; Mowell, 1942). With the aid of speechwriters, as well as adding their personal written flourishes, they were able to portray their opponents as removed from public opinion.

Moreover, Roosevelt and Curtin advanced the use of relatively new media to aim their messages appropriately to their target audiences. Roosevelt made about nine radio talks each year during his presidential terms. Curtin broadcast about 12 significant prime ministerial radio addresses a year. In terms of the accessibility of their words, Roosevelt’s “fireside chats” were suitable for audiences with a ninth-grade reading level. A selected sample of Curtin’s radio talks was generally appropriate for tenth-grade listeners. Although the prescribed standard was for a public document to be targeted to an eighth-grade student, it appeared that they still aimed their major radio broadcasts to a predominantly lower secondary school level. This was suitable for the era, when the average level of education was eight years of schooling in the US and nine years in Australia. The Roosevelt and Curtin radio talks were accessible to global media audiences (Coatney, 2011; Day, 2008; Lim, 2003; U.S. Census Bureau, 1942).

Both Allied war leaders knew how to deliver their oratory at the right pace for their target audiences. When announcing the Pearl Harbor tragedy, Roosevelt spoke for six minutes and was reportedly interrupted by “wild and thunderous applause and cheers” in the joint session of Congress (1941b; *The Argus*, December 10, 1941, p. 5). Therefore he spoke 86.6 words a minute; his pauses emphasised the drama and import of his words during the broadcast. In his radio talk on the same day, Curtin spoke 119.4 words per minute, which some scholars would consider to be an acceptable pace (1941b; Nichols and Stevens, 1957). After developing a reputation as a very fast speaker, Curtin talked calmly with Australians in like manner to Roosevelt’s reassurance that the invasion of Pearl Harbor was “a date which will live in infamy” (Roosevelt, 1941b; *The Herald*, October 4, 1941). According to different scholarly estimates, the president’s average pace was between 105 and 117 words per minute in his “fireside chats”

(Bradenburg and Braden, 1958; Lim, 2003). Based on a selected sample, Curtin spoke an average 139.46 words a minute, faster than the recommended levels of 100 to 125 words (Curtin 1941b, 1942a, 1943b). Yet at the start of the Pacific crisis, both leaders spoke more slowly than they normally did to emphasise their keywords about hope, unity and a strong defence.

During his “fireside chats” newsreels, Roosevelt spoke directly to the camera at eye level, with his hands placed on the table before him to signify his straightforward manner and a close connection with his audiences. Also the president was framed in close-up and medium shots to convey a personal relationship with US moviegoers (Universal Studios, 1933, 1934). In a 1934 scene, for example, he removed his pince-nez glasses and looked straight at the camera to criticize “a timid few people” opposed to his policies and to emphasize his words: “I believe in practical explanations and in practical politics” (Universal Studios, 1934). In like manner to his newsreels, filmmakers started a pattern of intimate, close-up scenes that signified Curtin was leveling with the public. Filmed rehearsals showed Curtin’s determination to perfect his messages as he uncomplainingly waited for the director’s clapperboard and the call for “action!” His practice film scenes indicated he refined his memorised rhetoric, gestures and camera delivery to build “a closer relationship between the Australian and American peoples,” as he declared in a public statement. During one of his stand-ups to the camera in “take three,” for example, Curtin pointed his finger, moved his head from side to side, looking like he might be addressing an unseen audience, and said: “We know that our destinies will go forward hand-in-hand and we are proud and confident in that association.” The camera zoomed in closer during “take four” as he embellished his statement to add, “we will stand or fall together” and “we are proud *and happy* in that association [emphasis added.]” As in his other newsreels, he did not refer to notes (Coatney, 2011). Roosevelt’s innovative use of relatively new media may have influenced Curtin’s radio and film strategies. Both leaders seemed to have approved of film techniques that emphasized their direct communications and strong, decisive gestures to reassure international audiences.

They worked hard to look like skilful media performers, providing useful tips to business communicators. Their strategies included rehearsing in practice sessions so that later, they would appear to be using new media effortlessly. Also they approved of close-up, eye-level visual images of themselves to establish a sense of a personal relationship with their audiences. They used assertive hand gestures to emphasise their main messages, such as when Roosevelt deftly removed his pince-nez glasses and Curtin pointed his finger as they made their points. Their unifying, inclusive language appealed to shared ideals that brought different groups together. At the same time, they portrayed their opponents as isolated from mainstream public opinion. Additionally they took care to use impersonal words to characterise foreign enemies so they would not alienate overseas populations. They spoke more slowly to appear calm and reassure people in a time of crisis, and selected accessible words that were appropriate for their target audiences. Their rhetoric, media images, and gestures are applicable for today’s business leaders when needing to articulate a clear vision to increasingly multicultural audiences

The frequency of their radio broadcasts, the largely positive reception towards them in the news, the mass audiences of devoted listeners and polls suggest that Roosevelt and Curtin used the media skilfully (Lloyd, 1988; Steele, 1985; *Time*, August 23, 1943). Similarly to the president, Curtin generated mainly positive news coverage of his foreign policies (Coatney, 2011; Steele, 1985). They were successful in using relatively new media to develop a close link with public audiences. For example, Australian radio listeners enjoyed Curtin’s “periodical talks to the nation” because they liked to “hear his voice, weigh his words and generally maintain that personal contact with the head of the Government which is eminently desirable” (*The Age*, January 22, 1945). At least 12 wartime senior journalists affirmed in their

reminiscences that he was a great prime minister (Coatney, 2011). Likewise, public polling conveyed the leaders' foreign policies were mostly popular among citizens. By January 1942, Roosevelt's public approval rating was 84 per cent, according to the Gallup poll. Another survey found 73 per cent of respondents approved his handling of foreign policy in May 1943 (Gallup, 1972). The next year he was elected to an unprecedented fourth presidential term. In a survey in Australia, eight out of 10 voters said they "were satisfied or more than satisfied with Curtin's job as prime minister" in August 1942 (*The Courier-Mail*, August 14, 1942). During the Australian federal election in 1943, he won 66.9 per cent of the votes in his electorate of Fremantle, Western Australia. At the time, this was the greatest election victory for his Australian Labor Party. *Time* reported (August 23 and 30, 1943) that 78 per cent of Australians supported his leadership. These types of polls and news coverage indicated the leaders' mass media strategies were successful in attracting broad support.

CONCLUSION

In a global crisis, Roosevelt and Curtin provided valuable lessons on how to manage media relations. As rarely researched documents have shown, they successfully cultivated spontaneous interactions with journalists, the result of thorough preparations before interviews. They kept focused on their main messages, directing talks from potential controversies and branding opponents as far from the mainstream. When advancing the use of relatively new media, they selected inclusive language of unity to appeal to ideals shared by disparate populations. Their media images signified a direct, honest relationship between them and the public. Also they spoke more slowly to media audiences after the Pearl Harbor bombing, emphasising their resolve, and targeted their words at an accessible level. Their techniques are helpful to business managers as they seek to communicate a strong, unifying and memorable vision in the media.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by the Australian Government under an Australian Prime Ministers Centre Fellowship, an initiative of the Museum of Australian Democracy. The author would like to thank the Institute for Business and Finance Research, the John Curtin Prime Ministerial Library, and Associate Professors Steve Mickler and Bobbie Oliver of Curtin University.

BIOGRAPHY

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THE FASB ACCOUNTING STANDARDS CODIFICATION AND ACCOUNTING QUALITY

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ABSTRACT

On June 30, 2009, the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) adopted Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 168, The FASB Accounting Standards Codification™ and the Hierarchy of Generally Accepted Accounting Principles – a replacement of FASB Statement No. 162. Although the Codification was not intended to change generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP) or any requirements of the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), the process of eliminating content viewed as redundant or nonessential introduces the possibility that GAAP is altered. Moreover, if management specifically used ambiguity in pre-codification compilation GAAP to shift their numbers toward industry means or stable time trends, then it is warranted to investigate whether the Codification lessen opportunities for this sort of earnings management (McEwen, Hoey, and Brozovsky, 2006). Against this background and concern, this paper examines whether the implementation of the FASB Codification is associated with higher accounting quality. The results indicate that accounting amounts of firms in the post-codification period exhibit less income smoothing, more timely recognition of losses, and higher value relevance than those in the pre-codification regime. This comparison provides direct evidence that accounting quality for U.S. public firms improves between the pre- and post-codification periods.

JEL: M4

KEYWORDS: Earnings Management•Conservatism•Value Relevance

DISCLOSURE LEVEL, STOCK MARKET LIQUIDITY, AND EARNINGS QUALITY: EVIDENCE FROM TAIWAN

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Hsiu-Chin Lin, Deloitte, Taiwan

ABSTRACT

In 2003, authorities in Taiwan launched a system to annually rank listed firms according to disclosure level to encourage raising disclosure levels so as to reduce cost of capital. This study explores the relation between disclosure level (as proxied by the ranking results of the system) and market liquidity (as measured by effective bid-ask spreads) to empirically test whether the objective of the system can be achieved as asserted. In examining the relation between disclosure and cost of capital, Francis et al. (2008) find that the relation between the constructs examined is due to disclosure being merely a proxy for earnings quality. Following Francis, et al. (2008), this study also examines whether earnings quality plays a role in the relation between disclosure and liquidity. Results of the study reveal that market liquidity is better for firms that disclose more. In addition, this study finds that market liquidity is higher (lower) for firms with higher (lower) earnings quality. Finally, in contrast to Francis, et al. (2008), this study finds no significant difference in the relation between disclosure and liquidity after controlling for earnings quality, which indicates that, aside from earnings quality, information disclosure is affected by other factors as well.

JEL: M

KEYWORDS: Disclosure, Information transparency, Earnings quality, Liquidity

CAPITALIZING WOMEN'S HUMAN RESOURCES THROUGH MICROENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS: ROLE OF MICROFINANCE

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ABSTRACT

Microfinance is closely associated with microenterprises due to its ability to eliminate one of the greatest obstacles of access to capital. However, its effectiveness in microenterprise development remains questionable. This study attempts to shed some light on this by assessing the role of the largest microfinance provider in Sri Lanka in microenterprise development among rural women, with a qualitative case study. The study reveals that mishandling of loans has largely limited the program effectiveness in promoting female microenterprises. This is mainly due to the lack of proper monitoring even with the availability of other supporting services. Thus, field officers' role in effective monitoring of credit disbursement and utilization is essential for actively promoting microenterprises among these rural women through the program.

INTRODUCTION

Microenterprise development through microfinance has been emerged as a major strategy for integrating women into the overall economic development process in many developing countries. Microenterprises mainly focus on developing and utilizing the entrepreneurial skills and potential of rural women below the poverty line (Kaushik & Rengarajan, 2010). Microfinance programs have been recognized as an effective mechanism for bringing equal opportunity for women by providing capital through repayment technologies. Thus, microenterprises are generally perceived as very small businesses owned by the self employed poor that usually do not have access to the commercial banking sector and use microfinance (Leon & Schreiner, 2001; Jones, 2004).

Despite the wide recognition given to the microfinance in promoting microenterprises, studies have offered contradictory findings on its effectiveness. This study seeks to provide an insight into this issue by assessing the role of Samurdhi program in Sri Lanka in promoting microenterprises among rural women in the country.

Samurdhi or 'prosperity' in local language is the largest microfinance provider in Sri Lanka. It was launched in 1995 by the government as a poverty alleviation program with total country coverage, where a large percentage of poor families as members of Samurdhi Banking Societies (SBSs) that facilitate community based lending. The program consisted of three main components of provision of consumption grants, provision of savings and credit facilities that provides microfinance services, and community development programs. These three components are operated as integrated support activities. The Samurdhi program has extensive coverage in rural areas, and the majority of the program participants are women (Gant et al, 2002). The main objective of the program is to ensure beneficiary participation in the production process by increasing access to resources for self employment.

This study was conducted in Ihala Koswaththa village with a population of approximately 2500 in 2010. The village is situated in Kurunegala District of North Western Province in Sri Lanka. The study relies on the female microfinance clients of the study village to reflect and assess to what extent access to

microfinance services through the Samurdhi program has contributed to develop microenterprises among them.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is no single definition of microenterprise as it varies depending on the context. Munoz (2010) comprehensively defines microenterprise as:

A very small enterprise that is typically owner operated and participated by marginalized segments that sell a product or service through entrepreneurial methodologies and utilizing diverse organizational forms. It operates under flexible arrangements and locations to manage entry barriers and capital constraints, in order to respond to market trends and customer requirements to achieve profitability and business growth. (p.3)

Microenterprise development projects are primarily designed to serve four objectives of poverty reduction, empowerment of women, employment generation, and enterprise development as an end in itself. Most projects combine first two or three as their explicit objectives (Jalal, 1997).

Access to finance has been a major obstacle faced by microenterprises along with lack of support, market access and geographic constraints, lack of infrastructure, growth and expansion challenges, lack of market intelligence, poor business expertise, and lack of management skills. Hence, successful microenterprise development requires both financial and nonfinancial services (Goldmark, 2001).

In this context, microfinance has been identified as an effective mechanism in providing financial services on a sustainable basis to poor who are outside the scope of financial markets by providing needed opportunity for starting up or expanding microenterprises. In addition to the financial services, microfinance often includes social intermediation and thus considered as the most effectual means for promoting female entrepreneurship (Ledgerwood, 2001; Churchill & Frankiewicz, 2006; Fayolle, 2007).

The basic theory in microfinance assumes that increasing women's access to financial services empowers them by putting capital in their hands, enabling them to increase their income through microenterprises and contribute financially to their households and communities. This economic empowerment is expected to produce increased self esteem, respect, and other forms of empowerment for microfinance women beneficiaries (Cheston & Kuhn, 2002, Mayoux, 2002).

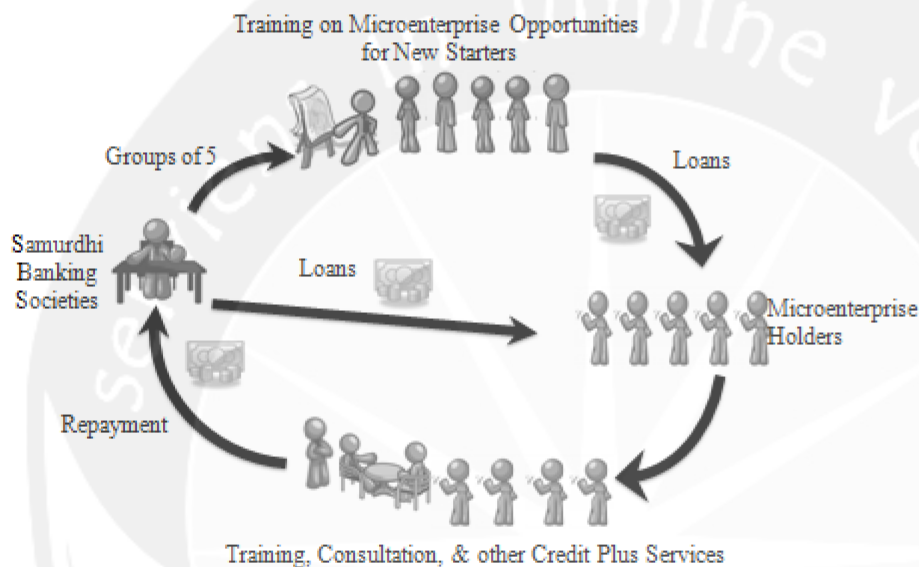
METHODOLOGY

The study is qualitative in nature and data were gathered conducting fieldwork in Ihala Koswaththa village during September 2007 and 2010, through in depth interviews with individual Samurdhi program beneficiaries, small groups, Samurdhi field officers, village officer, and informal interviews, and observations made by visiting beneficiary households, weekly Samurdhi group meetings and monthly meetings of Samurdhi societies during the fieldwork. The respondents were selected through purposive sampling by selecting information rich cases on the basis of theoretical saturation (Guest et al, 2006), and interviews of Samurdhi microfinance clients were conducted with the married middle aged poor women who are also Samurdhi consumption grant recipients in the village.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Samurdhi program has been primarily targeting women in Ihala Koswaththa for providing loans for microenterprises. According to the Samurdhi field officers, female recipients of Samurdhi in Ihala Koswaththa have been actively participating in the program and related activities.

Figure 1: Samurdhi Microenterprise Development Approach through Microfinance



Source: Compiled by the Author

Based on the group lending methodology, the program has encouraged women to form groups of five members having some already established connection and mutual understanding. The borrowers from groups guarantee one another's loan repayments. The Samurdhi field staff highlighted that they assess the feasibility of the projects, and conduct field checks before approving group members' loan applications. Furthermore, they monitor the progress and grant loan money at different stages of the projects. The village women who already owned microenterprises or had plans for undertaking income generating activities had obtained loans referring to those activities. In addition to the loan facilities, the program had provided various credit plus services including entrepreneurial skills training development of women in the village. The training component had assisted women to acquire new skills and identify avenues for starting microenterprises so that they were able to apply for loans. The program initially grants small loans for women and gradually encourages them to obtain larger loans through the expansion of their microenterprises. Microfinance through Samurdhi program has also provided insurance facilities for these women in the event of project failures due to various reasons such as death and natural disasters.

The importance of providing nonfinancial services along with the loans has been highlighted for effective development of microenterprises through microfinance. The enterprise credit without consumption credit or safety net is considered ineffective in developing entrepreneurship (Jalal, 1997). Although Samurdhi

program meet these criteria by combining financial services with nonfinancial services and a safety net component, the program role in promoting active entrepreneurship among women in Ihala Koswaththa village has been limited mainly due to the diversion of loan utilization for other purposes. Majority of the women interviewed in Ihala Koswaththa village had obtained loans through the Samurdhi program by indicating in the loan application that the money would be invested in microenterprise. This is consistent with the main objective of the program. However, according to interviews with recipients the loans had often not been used for the stated purposes, but instead for other purposes such as housing, family welfare, and repayment of other loans. Majority of the beneficiaries revealed that it was their initial intention even at the time of making the loan application. There were only few beneficiaries who had plans for investing in microenterprises when applied for the loans, but later had to prioritize their needs and spend the loan money on other purposes.

Discussions with the field staff highlighted that women somehow tend to manage their repayments on time without investing credit on microenterprises in the absence of rigorous follow up and monitoring. Given that, all of the women who were interviewed had managed the loan repayments on time, with the income from their existing livelihood activities, with the help of their husbands, or in extreme cases with constant loans from neighbors and moneylenders despite the fact that loan money had not been invested in any income generating activities. The women under the study revealed that, in most cases, the field staff neither visited them before granting the loans nor monitored their progress unless they had been given a considerably large sum of money, giving opportunity for women to deceive the officers and misuse the obtained loans. This has largely contributed to the ineffective use of Samurdhi microfinance services in promoting microenterprises among these women.

All of the women interviewed in Ihala Koswaththa possessed different skills, and had received various trainings under the Samurdhi credit plus service that could have been utilized for income generating activities. However, not all of the women had an entrepreneurial spirit or faith in starting or expanding their microenterprises. Women in the village highlighted various reasons behind this such as infrastructure constraints, limited market access, limited access to information, risk averseness, insufficient funds through loans for initiating projects, lack of commitment and discipline in continuation, lack of enabling household environment, and the traditional negative perception towards indebtedness in Sri Lankan society.

CONCLUSION

The findings highlight the limited capacity of Samurdhi microfinance services in promoting microenterprises among women in the study area largely due to the diversion of loan utilization for other purposes in the absence of proper monitoring, though the necessary nonfinancial supporting services are already in place with the financial services. The field staff role is vital in ensuring close monitoring of credit disbursement and utilization while approving enterprise loans only for viable economic activities. It should be ensured that repayments are made through business revenues enabling the primary objective of the program is satisfied. Along with that, program should adequately upgrade existing credit plus services to deal with the other issues and foster women's confidence in entrepreneurship for actively promoting microenterprises, and thereby capitalizing women's human resources that will ultimately enhance the life and economy of rural society.

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ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL DOWNSIZING IN THAILAND'S TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE ROLE OF BUSINESS IDEOLOGY

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the empirical relationship between business ideologies and perceptions of layoff and organizational downsizing within a context of tourism and hospitality business industry in Thailand. Drawing up on the concept of business ideology (Beyer 1986: 66), the study proposes that individuals having strong belief in business ideologies are more likely to perceive layoff and organizational downsizing as acceptable than those who do not. We have derived two formal hypotheses from this conceptual framework, discussed relevant issues in explaining key variables, and specified implications for future research and management practice.

INTRODUCTION

In the past three years, tourism in Thailand has been through its worst situation in decades, as a result of the global economic slowdown and political turmoil (Anonymous, 2008). Several tourism and hospitality businesses have to reduce cost by downsizing the size of an organization's workforce to handle the situation. The reduction can be implemented through several means such as temporary layoff certain number of employees, no further plan for new employees, ask some employees to leave a few weeks without pay, shut down restaurants in hotels for certain period of time, etc (Anonymous, 2008).

Organizational downsizing as a change management strategy has been adopted for more than two decades (Williams, 2004). Specifically, it is defined as a purposeful reduction in the size of an organization's workforces (Cameron, Freeman, & Mishra, 1991; Cascio, 1993). Downsizing literature has evolved and now covers many aspects of organizational downsizing. Within literature, there is a growing body of work (Budros, 1999; Lamertz & Baum, 1998; McKinley, Sanchez, & Schick, 1995; McKinley, Mone, & Barker, 1998) that addresses downsizing from neo-institutional and ideological perspectives. This research suggests that downsizing is now taken for granted by managers and supported by specific ideologies that they and their employees share.

One consequence of organizational downsizing that has become more visible lately is a dramatic shift in the employee-employer relationship. Originally conceptualized as a highly dependent and mutually beneficial relationship where the employee would stay with one firm for their entire career, now sees employees job hopping a myriad of times in order to get higher pay, better benefits, or a shorter commute. Because of this shift towards being increasingly independent, it would seem likely that the historically negative connotation about downsizing has also changed. Unfortunately, it is hard to test this assumption as little is currently known about the determinants of downsizing attitudes and perceptions because there is almost no research, to our knowledge, studying how business ideologies that both employers and employees in a society share impact level of favorableness in using organizational downsizing tactics. The current study sought to examine so by proposing that two business ideologies – the ideology of employee self-reliance and the ideology of corporate change help influencing the favorableness in using organizational downsizing tactics within tourism and hospitality business context of Thailand. In this

paper, the ideology of employee self-reliance is defined as the belief that employees should be as independent of employers as possible, particularly regarding their own employability (McKinley et al., 1998), while the ideology of corporate change is defined as the belief that corporate change is constant, healthy and the normal condition for a corporation.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

The employee-employer relationship has changed significantly over the past 20 years from one representing a dependence based relationship to more of an at-will relationship. As such, scholars studying this change (e.g., Ellig, 1998; Kissler, 1994; Lucero & Allen, 1994) have posited a shift from an employer-reliant relationship in which employees rely on their employer for career success to one where the employees are more self-reliant (McKinley et al., 1998) where employees counteract their typical reliance on the firm by an increased proclivity for job mobility. Amongst the multiple causes for this shift, there has been much focus on employees' increased levels of job mobility and organizations' increased usage of downsizing and restructuring strategies (McKinley et al., 1998) likely play integral roles and place an increased level of demand on employees to take advantage of available methods for improving existing skills and developing new ones (Ellig, 1998).

Beyer (1981: 66) defined ideologies as a “relatively coherent set of beliefs that bind some people together and that explain their worlds in terms of cause-and-effect relations.” When applied to organizational settings, contemporary scholars expand this definition and argue that managers adhering to ideologies experience a lowering of information processing requirements and some relief from the need to continually interpret an overabundance of complex information (e.g., Bunderson, 2001; Rust, 1999, Rust & McKinley, 2002). Therefore, following that belief in ideologies could ultimately influence decisions made by managers.

Researchers have attempted to identify ideologies adopted by managers, and analyze how adoption of these ideologies affects the actions and interpretations of those who hold them. For example, Meyer (1982a, 1982b) showed how ideologies influenced hospital administrators' perceptions of a doctor's strike. The major implication from this study is that different ideologies created different cognitive perceptions that led managers to interpret and respond to the same environmental event in different ways. Also, Barley and Kunda (1992) argued that managerial ideologies have repetitively shifted between rational and normative ideologies of control, influencing business practice in the process.

McKinley et al. (1998) identified two managerial ideologies currently being explained in the writings by consultants and the popular business press – the ideology of employee self-reliance and the ideology of debureaucratization. Specifically, McKinley and his colleagues argued that these two ideologies have helped to create a context favorable to downsizing, primarily by changing employees' views about the nature of the relationship between employee and organization. In her study of the effect of future threat of downsizing, Saengratwatchara (2005) further proposed that the ideology of corporate change, also creates a context of favorable to organizational downsizing by emphasizing that organizational downsizing is common as it is a part of organizational change, thus making downsizing seem more normal.

Losing jobs through downsizing is widely considered to be one of the most traumatic events that can occur in a person's life (Grunberg, Moore, & Greenberg, 2006). However, we suspect that this thinking will eventually be reduced when individual employees subscribe to the ideologies described above. The

ideology of employee self-reliance advocates employee independence, implying that the organization is not expected to be responsible for employees' job security. The ideology of corporate change supports the idea of change, and contains a message that layoff and organizational downsizing should be expected, since it is a part of corporate change. If one adheres to these ideologies, job security will not be one of the obligations that one feels and employer should provide. Thus the failure to guarantee and/or provide job security will be seen as more acceptable and expectable, instead of being painful and unbearable among employees. The arguments above are summarized in the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with strong belief in the ideology of employee self-reliance are more likely to perceive layoff and organizational downsizing as acceptable.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals with strong belief in the ideology of corporate change are more likely to perceive layoff and organizational downsizing as acceptable.

METHODOLOGY

Population of interest of this study will be employees working for tourism and hospitality businesses in Bangkok and metropolitan areas. Participants will be given incentives once they finish the questionnaire. In developing a survey instrument to collect information of employees in tourism and hospitality business's belief in business ideology and the use organizational downsizing, we will follow Saengratwatchara's instrument assessing the effect of future threat downsizing (Saengratwatchara, 2005). The first part is an essay advocating the ideology of corporate change and the ideology of self-reliance while the second part is a series of items asking about the plausibility and the logic of the author's argument. Additionally, there are four questions capturing their attitudes towards the use of downsizing tactics. These items are adapted based on the Downsizing Attitudes Scale (DAS) (Karau, Walker, & Saengratwatchara, under review). The scale shows excellent internal consistency, with the Cronbach alpha of .88 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The ranking scales range from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. The second part is demographic questions as well as other questions related to layoffs and/or downsizing experience. For example, the item asks whether participants have ever been laid off; if they have, when.

Since our master instrument is originally in English, it will be translated into Thai and the translated instrument will be administered to individuals employed in tourism and hospitality businesses in Thailand. After collection of the data, the instrument was back-translated by a different native Thai speaker from the one who had performed the original translation. This will be done to verify that the Thai version have been an accurate translation of the English original (Brislin, 1980).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The most general discussion of this research is that business ideologies influence how people perceive layoff and organizational downsizing. Specifically, individuals with strong belief in the ideology of employee self-reliance and the ideology of corporate change are more likely to embrace layoff and organizational downsizing than those who do not believe so. As emphasized above, ideologies provide a cognitive framework that reduces uncertainty about the meaning of phenomena with which the believer is presented, highlighting certain aspects of the phenomena and downplaying others. This applies to layoff and organizational downsizing as well as any other phenomenon. In the current research, the aspect of organizational downsizing that appears to be highlighted (or constructed) by strong belief in the ideology

of employee self-reliance and the ideology of corporate change is they have become more acceptable and thus favorable among employees nowadays.

There are several routes for future research. First, scholars might want to administer the scale on a sample that is also exposed to layoff and organizational downsizing. Specifically, certain industries such as auto manufacturing always have a looming presence of these organizational practices and would serve as an interesting sample. Second, it would be interesting to administer this scale among difference parties in the layoff and organizational scenarios such as terminating agent, survivors, management, and victims. Furthermore, future research may want to examine which antecedents drive individuals' perceptions toward the business ideologies. It is possible that personality traits such as self-esteem as well as others may impact the employee's reaction to the threat of future downsizing. For example, employees with high levels of self-esteem have confidence in their skills and their ability to find new jobs so that they will not be as vulnerable as those with lower level of self-esteem when experiencing with layoffs.

The study also has practical implications. Assuming that the results of the study supported the hypotheses that individuals with strong belief in the ideology of employee self-reliance and the ideology of corporate change would be more likely to accept layoffs and other organizational downsizing, we could expect managers to be tempted to hire employees holding those beliefs. This is because managers would expect that those individual employees would be more acceptable of layoff and organizational downsizing. Additionally, managers might seek to instill the beliefs into current employees so they would show less resistance when layoffs and/or downsizing occur in the organizations.

In conclusion, we hope that our study provides a spark in the literature to more thoroughly research the unlimited of variables within the phenomenon of layoff and organizational downsizing, especially on business ideologies related to it.

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BIOGRAPHY

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AN EXPLORATION OF THE CURE FOR DISSATISFACTION AMONG CUSTOMERS OF MEDICAL SERVICES

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ABSTRACT

Research across cultures has consistently reported that customers of medical services experience a high propensity to experience dissatisfaction. Because a customer's dissatisfaction with medical service produces a series of undesirable behavioral consequences, identifying sources of their dissatisfaction and cure for it is urgently needed. This study attempts to investigate the nature of dissatisfaction among medical service users from the perspective of the theory of perceived control. Data were collected from a sample of customers who had experienced dissatisfaction with medical services. Results of the study reveal that medical customers' perception of low control during their interaction with medical service providers indeed has significant influences on their dissatisfaction. Managerial implications and future research directions are provided.

BIOGRAPHY

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THE CROSS-BORDER REGIONAL GOVERNANCE OF THE GLOBAL AUTOMOBILE PRODUCTION NETWORKS IN ASIA

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ABSTRACT

This paper seeks to clarify the characteristics of the emerging cross-border regional governance of the global automobile production networks in Asia. It draws three streams; (1) the relationships between the global shift of the automobile industry and the sharp rise in automobile production and sales in China and India; (2) the ability of institutional settings at the host country focusing on the sub-national levels of government; (3) the role of foreign firms in technology transfer to developing countries and creation of local supplier networks. This paper seeks to examine and analyze the development of the Chinese and Indian automobile industries and the emergence of cross-border production networks in order to reveal a multi-scalar phenomenon linking specific regions and countries. It attempts to understand the nature and dynamics of operational regional governance comprising both individuals and collectives, as well as the roles of public and private actors pursuing common goals. The state has played an indispensable role in pushing the country to a higher phase of automotive modernization. But the paper highlights the dynamic and overlapping nature of automobile production networks in which cooperation and competition among economic actors actively take place.

KEYWORDS: automobile industry, India and China, local government, production networks

GLOBAL LINKAGE OF FINANCIAL SECTOR STOCK PRICES DURING US FINANCIAL CRISIS: EVIDENCE FROM INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

Monetary authorities in Indonesia, as well as some academicians believe that the absence of long run relation between Indonesian stock market and developed markets prevents this emerging market from being deeply affected by the US downturn. Nevertheless, this hypothesis may not apply to the domestic financial industry as such service firms involve in cross-country financial investments.

This study examines the global linkage of Indonesian Financial Sector stock prices during the US downturn using co-integration test and vector autoregression. This study elaborates the linkage of Indonesian Financial Industry with the same industry in US and UK markets, as well as with four developed Asian markets, i.e Tokyo, Hongkong, Singapore, and Kuala Lumpur stock exchanges, using more frequent time series data. We also conduct similar test using pre-US-crisis data to show magnitude of the linkage change. The results show whether financial industry fund managers would be able to diversify their portfolio in these markets either in long run or short run

KEYWORDS: Financial sector, financial crisis, market co-integration

EXCHANGE RATE VOLATILITY AND CORPORATE PERFORMANCE IN NIGERIA: A PANEL REGRESSION APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Nigeria experienced a large depreciation of its currency in the wake of the global financial crisis of 2008 with the result been a greater use of tight monetary policy tool and stringent management of the country's foreign reserves to check volatility in the foreign exchange market. The result has been massive fluctuation in exchange rate movement which have altered not only the structure and composition of firm's profitability but also the cost profile of most firms. In this study we obtained cross sectional data for the most active 20 companies listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange and adopted the panel data regression approach to assess empirically the effects of volatility clustering in exchange rate on firm's performance in Nigeria over the periods 2000 to 2010. Our result indicates that exchange rate volatility have had a negative impact on corporate performance in Nigeria. In addition, we find the negative effects of fluctuation in exchange rate to have been induced by high and sustained increase in imported raw materials and capital goods. These results have implications for economic stability, policy initiatives and firm strategies.

JEL: C34, D21, D51, D92, F31.

KEYWORD: Exchange Rate Volatility, Corporate Performance, Panel Data Regression, Policy Formation and Strategies

INTRODUCTION

Firm performance in Nigeria has not particularly received much attention from macroeconomic point of view. The few studies on the existing on the subject matter have focused specifically on individual firm performance in relation to micro variables. Yet, in the empirical literature, several scholars' contend that firms can take advantage of changes in macroeconomic aggregates to influence business performance (Greer, Ireland and Wingender 2001; Kypriotakis, 2002; Krishnamurthy, 2005; and Navarro, Bromiley and Sottile 2010). Others have linked firm's performance directly to the movement of exchange rate (Klitgaard, 1999; Chatterjee, Carneiro and Vichyanond 2010; and Baggs, Beaulieu, Fung and Lapham 2011).

The challenges posed by volatile movement of exchange rate became an issue of great concern to corporate establishments and policy makers in Nigeria in the wake of the 2007-2008 global economic crises. At the WDAS¹, exchange rate during the period (January 2, 2008), opened at

N115.00/US\$ and closed at N130.32/US\$ in the period (December 31, 2008) representing a depreciation of 13.32 percent. As at November 16, 2011 the naira exchanged at N153.5/US\$ representing a depreciation of over 33.5 percent over the period 2008-2011. The volatile nature of the movement of exchange rate in Nigeria and the paucity of research in the area of exchange rate volatility and firm

performance provides us a good opportunity for studying the effects of exchange rate volatility on firm performance in Nigeria. Instability in the foreign exchange market can pose significant risk to companies and enterprises conducting businesses in foreign markets. Through massive depreciation of the domestic currency of a country, firms operating in the domestic market can be subjected to either translation or transactions risks translating into significant shrinkage in company's earning, market share, cash flow and firm's balance sheet. In Nigeria, over the past decades, real output growth has averaged 6.5 percent with the manufacturing sector growth averaging less than 3.5 percent over the same period. This presupposes a declining firm's corporate performance in the face of changing macroeconomic environment. This paper empirically examines the effects of exchange rate volatility on firm's performance in Nigeria, using a panel data of twenty most active companies drawn from the Nigerian Stock Exchange and two key performance variables, cost of goods sold and gross profit before tax. We estimate a panel regression to take into account fixed effects and random effects across the companies. Following the introductory section, the rest of the paper is structured as follows; Section II covers some major theoretical and empirical literature while section III is the methodology. Section IV presents the result of the study while section V concludes the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Firm Transactions, Performance and Exchange Depreciation

Harris (2001) affirmed that exchange rate depreciation is a necessary factor that influences the gap in productivities. Auer and Chaney (2007) insisted that in equilibrium, the market power of a given firm depends on the prices and qualities of its closes competitors and more than on prices of other closely related firms. They noticed that exchange rate movement is largely influenced by export transactions of low quality goods, which are in high demand internationally, since producers of such good are in steep competition and face the same exchange rate shocks (Fung, 2004).

Considering exchange rate movements, the rates of export and firms' performance, Berman, Martin and Mayer (2008) study indicates that in the presence of distribution costs in the export market, high and low productivity firms react differently to exchange rate depreciation. They noticed that firms with high performance optimally raise their markup rather than the volume they export; while low productivity firms choose the opposite strategy. Consequently, this heterogeneity has serious distorting influence on the levels of exchange rate movements in the economy.

Insights from the concept of fixed cost to export express the fact that exporting requires a high productivity, an attribute which in turn gives an incentive to firms to react to exchange rate depreciation by increasing their export price rather than their sales (Berman, Martin and Mayer, 2008). They found out that high performance firms react to depreciation in exchange rate by increasing their export price rather than their export volume but low performance-exporting firms do otherwise.

In addition, results revealed that more firms enter the export market following depreciation, these firms are small, their productivity is low and their extensive margin response to exchange rate movement is small when compared with other firms at the aggregate level. Their results suggest that prices are rigid in the currency of the export market and the levels of uncertainties as a result of the nature of the levels of imperfection in the competitive market and the influence of distribution cost (Campa and Goldberg, 2005; Corsetti and Dedola, 2005; Gopinath, Oleg and Rigobon, 2010). In this wise, local distribution costs

basically lower the pass-through to consumer prices and generate uncertainties in productive capacity to remedy further reductions (Corsetti and Dedola, 2005; Berman, Martin and Mayer 2008).

Empirical Literature

To estimate exchange rate movement influence on firms performance, most literatures proposed that the main factors that are important in order for firms to be competitive include the ability to export, effective policy regulation, management style, ownership structure, technology and human capital (Bartelsman and Doms 2000; Girma, Greenaway and Kneller 2002). Therefore, to determine how the prices of different goods respond to exchange rate shocks and how this influences performance, Auer and Chaney (2007) proposed a model that viewed competitive pressure from various dimensions such as the domestic market structure, import competition, regional variation product markets, transportation infrastructure, and labor market competition. Also, they analyzed the time path of the impact of a competitive shock (i.e. the abrupt liberalization of prices, entry, imports, and labor mobility) in order to examine the non linearity in the effect of these competition forces. The evaluation of firms survival (persistent increase productivity), disclose that foreign and domestic market competition and good transportation infrastructure have negative impacts on survival, while demand shocks cause increases in the probability of survival. The strength of this impact depends on higher initial profitability and the size of export activities. This result also disclosed that total factor productivity produced strong evidences suggesting that domestic product market competition, import competition and local labor market competition have strong effects on firms' efficiency (Berman, Martin and Mayer, 2009).

Studying the effect of exchange rate shocks on pricing decision of multi-product firms and its impact on firm's performance, Chatterjee, Carneiro and Vichyanond (2010) constructed a model putting into perception the quantity of the scope of the product, to analyze firms' price adjustment in circumstances of exchange rate depreciation. It was noticed that firms face a product ascending steps of clustered processes, which is detected by their marginal cost of production. The research work revealed that these margins were usually high for products further away from firms' core competency. Also, in the event of rate of exchange depreciates, most firms increase the prices of products closer to their core competency. This level of adjustments enhances firms' performance.

Farinas and Martin-Macros (2003) measured difference in economic performance and evaluated the total productivity difference between exporting and non-exporting manufacturing firms for over a ten years period. To do this effectively, they evaluated two measures so performance, labor productivity and total factor productivity and introduced a panel data analysis in accordance with the generalized moving moment (GMM) approach of Blundell and Bond (1999). They controlled for unobserved heterogeneity and simultaneity bias produced by the effect of productivity of the firms on output decisions. They noticed that exporting firms exhibit greater economic performance and self-select the most favorable output process.

Park, Yang, Shi and Jiang (2006) considered firm performance by analyzing export demand shocks during the period of the Asian financial crisis in order to disclose how it influence Chinese exporting firms. They did this by constructing firm-specific exchange rate shocks based on the pre-crisis destinations of firms' exports. These unanticipated shocks were used for to evaluate the impact of exportation on firm productivity and performance. They controlled for the selection bias of joint estimate in the equation by using the full information maximum likelihood method (Clerides et al., 1998). Therefore, Park, Yang and Jiang (2006) perceived financial crisis shocks has unanticipated and large,

claiming that they were most ideal for identifying the impact of exportation on firm productivity and firms performance. As a result of this fact, they invoked a panel data to explore firm-specific exchange rate shocks based on the pre-crisis destinations of firms' exports. They noticed that although export growth increase firm productivity and performance, exchange rate depreciation slow growth in export.

The introduction of firm-specific exchange rate shocks is made possible by the availability of information on firm-specific export country destination for foreign-invested firms in China's industrial. This was used to represent the timing and pattern of devaluations which were unforeseen due to the crisis. This identification strategy controlled for sector fixed effect and thus rules out bias from unobserved regional or sectoral changes. Also, it made it possible to determine how instrumented changes in exports affect measures of firm performance. Three key measures of performance considered by this study are the value of total factor productivity, total sales and return to asset. They were known to increase as the levels of export increased. They disclosed that firms with greater currency depreciation have slower growth in exports and export growth was noticed to increase firm productivity and performance. This study is different because it examines shocks that are heterogeneous across firms (as anticipated shocks from the financial crisis), which are not based on potential endogenous government actions (such as trade liberalizations), and are not caused by major crises or regime changes that are likely to be correlated with other economic or policy changes.

Klitgaard (1999) examines the responses of firms to maintaining stable profit margins and sales as the rate of exchange fluctuates. These firms were known to strike a balance between a stable profit margin and a reasonable sales profile that will substance this profit. The short-run response of profit margins to exchange rate movements appears to be more prominent in firms associated with high valued commodities, the author suggested that this should be due to the fact that the prices of these commodities are majorly invoiced in foreign currencies such that when they are valued in terms of the local currency, they respond automatically to exchange rate swings.

It was also noticed that the direction of the movement of the local currency have no effect on firms behavior in analyzing sale-profit relationship, this is because, these firms are used to adjusting their profit margins to stabilize prices in foreign markets. This means that these firms will only raise their profit margins when the local currency depreciates and they may cut margins when the yen appreciates.

Baggs, Beaulieu, Fung and Lapham (2011) estimated the effect of real exchange rate movement on Canadian retail firms and its impact on firms' performance. The measures of performance evaluated are profitability, size, sales and employment. They anticipated that exchange rate movement will have a demand-side effect on retail firms through its impact on cross-border shopping, mainly, Canadian-American consumers. Also, they proposed that these firms will have a supply side effect through its impact on the prices of imported goods that Canadian retailers purchase for resale.

They examine the exchange rate effect on retail firms and its impact on different industry groups and detected that the effect of exchange rate movement was most adverse on profitability and the obtained effect diminished over time in accordance to the location of the firm, i.e. nearness to the market. They also disclosed that the real exchange rate distance interaction term maintain the same strong positive sign for all the firms observed. A negative exchange rate effect was observed due to a net effect in the prices of input as a result of an increase in the domestic rate of exchange, which caused the prices of inputs to fall and as a consequence, the retail price of the good was reduced. This indicates that a real appreciation of the Canadian dollar reduces the level of sales, increase in labor supply and firm profit.

The exchange rate movement was also noticed to influence the levels of sales. The levels of sales were noticed to decrease as the rate of exchange appreciated while in depreciation in the real rate of exchange lead to increase in sales. Subsequently, the mixed effect of exchange rate movement was identified to have effect on firm's survival. Therefore, the real exchange rate effect was viewed to have substantial implications for the sales, employment and profits of retail firms. Also, it was noticed that the largest shock adjustment effect is in profits, and that firms absorb a considerable portion of exchange rate shocks in sales and employment. It was also disclosed that the location of firms determine the magnitude of exchange rate shocks it can absorb.

In a model with heterogeneous consumers, exchange rate pass through can be incomplete and heterogeneous across goods of different quality, Auer and Chaney, (2008) affirm that exporters sell goods of different qualities to consumers who have heterogeneous preferences for quality. For this reason, the level of productivity is subject to decreasing return to scale. The level of supply and intense competition react to cost changes due to exchange rate fluctuations. Subsequently, it was justified that exchange rate shocks are imperfectly passed through into prices.

Exchange rate has a significant positive impact on export volumes, which varies across firms; although it is significantly reduced for low performing firms (Berman, Martin & Mayer. 2008). This suggests that high and low productive firms have distinct strategies for various circumstances of exchange rate changes.

METHODOLOGY

Data

We obtained the data used for this study from Nigerian Stock Exchange Fact Book (2008), companies' annual report and statements of accounts and the National Bureau of Statistics Nigeria. The company data comprises cross sectional yearly observations of company performance indicators for twenty most active companies listed on the Nigeria Stock Exchange over the period 2000 to 2009. The twenty companies selected for the study are Ashaka Cement Plc., Benue Cement Company Plc., Cadbury Nigeria Plc., Conoil/National Oil Plc., Flour Mills Plc., Guinness Nigeria Plc., John Holt Plc., Unilever Nigeria Plc., Julius Berger Nigerian Plc., Mobil Oil Nigerian Plc., Nigerian Bottling Company Plc., Oando/Unipetrol Plc., P.Z Industries Plc., Texaco. Nigerian/Chevron Plc., Total Nigeria Plc, W.A.P.C.O, United Nigerian Textile and UACN. The variables used in the study to capture corporate performance are cost related variables (Cost of goods sold) and profitability variable (profit before tax). The exchange rate volatility variable used is the square of the mean adjusted relative change in the official exchange rate.

Model

The model used for this study is a panel data regression in which corporate firm performance variable is expressed as a function of exchange rate volatility variable. To allow for control variable is the model, we added two explanatory variables prime lending rate and index of industrial production (a proxy for the level of economic activities). The model in it linear estimation form is expressed as follows;

$$LCOGS_{it} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \alpha_3 LINTR_{it} + \alpha_4 LINDP_{it} + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

$$LPRBT_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \beta_3 LINTR_{it} + \beta_4 LINDP_{it} + u_{it} \quad (2)$$

Where; $i = 1, 2, \dots, 20$

$t = 1, 2, \dots, 10$

$LCOGS_{it}$ is the log of cost of goods sold for the company i at time t .

$LPRBT$ is the log of profit before tax for the company i at time t .

$LINDP_{it}$ is the log of index of industrial production affecting company i at time t

$EXRT_{it}^2$ is the exchange rate volatility variable.

$LINTR_{it}$ is the prime lending rates affecting company i at time t .

U_{it} is the error term.

The study adopts the panel data estimation to test the behavior of the parameters in the models with the models allowing for three different assumptions: the common constant assumption, the fixed effect assumption and the random effect assumption.

The first two models, equation (1) and equation (2) represent the common constant model. In this specification, we assume there are no differences between the estimated cross sections of the twenty companies. This assumption is useful only under the condition that the data set of the different companies is a priori homogenous. But firms hardly behave alike. To capture heterogeneous behavior across the twenty firms, we re-specify equations (1) and (2) as follows;

$$LCOGS_{it} = \alpha_{1i} + \alpha_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \alpha_3 LINTR_{it} + \alpha_4 LINDP_{it} + u_{it} \quad (3)$$

$$LPRBT_{it} = \beta_{1i} + \beta_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \beta_3 LINTR_{it} + \beta_4 LINDP_{it} + u_{it} \quad (4)$$

The subscript i on the intercept term α_1 and β_1 suggests that the intercepts of the twenty firms may be different. Equations (3) and (4) are the fixed effect model which assumes heterogeneous behavior amongst the different companies and is based on the hypothesis of incorporating different constants for each company. This is carried out by simply introducing differential intercept dummy into the model. An expansion of equations (3) and (4) produces the differential intercept dummy model.

$$\begin{aligned} LCOGS_{it} = & \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 Dum_{2i} + \alpha_3 Dum_{3i} + \alpha_4 Dum_{4i} + \alpha_5 Dum_{5i} + \alpha_6 Dum_{6i} + \alpha_7 Dum_{7i} + \alpha_8 Dum_{8i} \\ & + \alpha_9 Dum_{9i} + \alpha_{10} Dum_{10i} + \alpha_{11} Dum_{11i} + \alpha_{12} Dum_{12i} + \alpha_{13} Dum_{13i} + \alpha_{14} Dum_{14i} \\ & + \alpha_{15} Dum_{15i} + \alpha_{16} Dum_{16i} + \alpha_{17} Dum_{17i} + \alpha_{18} Dum_{18i} + \alpha_{19} Dum_{19i} + \alpha_{20} Dum_{20i} \\ & + \phi_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \phi_3 LINTR_{it} + \phi_4 LINDP_{it} + u_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Where, $Dum_{2i}=1$ for the firm 1 and 0 otherwise; $Dum_{3i}=1$ for firm 2 and 0 otherwise and so no. In equation (5), α_1 represents the intercept value of the first firm while other α coefficients represents the differential intercept dummies. Thus, α_2 tells by how much the intercept of the second firm differs from the first firm. To test whether the fixed effect (FE) estimation should be included in the model, we use the Hausman specification test (1978) to guide us in the choice between the Fixed Effect model and the Random Effects model. The random effect model (RE) also called the error component model (ECM) suggests we treat the constants from each section as random parameter rather than fixed. We obtain the model from equation (3) by assuming α_{1i} in equation (3) and β_{1i} in equation (4) are random variables with a mean value of α_1 and β_1 respectively. Thus, enabling us to represent the intercept value for an individual company as;

$$\alpha_{it} = \alpha_i + \epsilon_i \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad (6)$$

Where ϵ_i is a random term with mean value of zero and variance of σ_ϵ^2

The random effect model therefore assumes the form;

$$LCOGS_{it} = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \alpha_3 LINDP_{it} + \alpha_4 LINTR_{it} + (\epsilon_i + u_{it}) \quad (7)$$

$$LCPERF_{it} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 EXRT_{it}^2 + \beta_3 LINDP_{it} + \beta_4 LINTR_{it} + (\epsilon_i + u_{it}) \quad (8)$$

Where; $(\epsilon_i + u_{it})$, is the idiosyncratic error term combines cross-section and time series component. The usual assumption made for the error component model (ECM) is that the individual error components are not correlated with each other and are not autocorrelated across both cross-section and time series units. They are also not correlated with any of the explanatory variables in the model.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In Table 1, the result of the common constant model and the least square dummy variable model is reported for the dependent variables (COGS and GPBT). In the common constant assumption, we pooled all the twenty firms by lumping them into a single model. From the result, the common constant coefficient performed poorly given that all the coefficients (measured as elasticities) failed the test of significance at the 5 percent levels of significance with the exception of the exchange rate volatility variable in the cost-performance based model which passed the test of significance at the 10 percent levels of significance. The adjusted R^2 values of 0.13 and 0.09 for both the cost of goods sold and the profitability model showed a very poor fit. While the Durbin-Watson values of 0.13 and 0.09 suggests the presence of autocorrelation in both models.

An explanation for the poor performance of both models can be attributed to specification error given that we assumed away the uniqueness of each of the firms in the common constant model by taking all the firms as homogeneous entities.

The least square dummy variable model (LSDV) reported in Table 1 (Column 3 and 4), showed a significant improvement over the pooled result suggesting that the twenty firm are heterogeneous in their various operations. This is in line with the results obtained by (Bartelsman and Doms 2000; Girma, Greenaway and Kneller 2002) that identified factors such as ability to export, effective policy regulation, management style, ownership structure, technology and human capital as the main factors that determines firm performance. The result reported in column 3, Table 1 appears to be better than the profitability model reported in column 4, Table 1. This result again tallies with the result obtained by klitgaard (1999), where it was established that the direction of the movement of the local currency have no effect on firm behavior in analyzing sales-profit relationship. From the result reported in column 4, all the differential slope coefficients were individually statistically significant with the exception of Dum5, Dum6, Dum8 and Dum14 which failed the test of significance at the 5 percent levels of significance. The exchange rate volatility variable passed the test of significance at the 1 percent levels and is positively signed indicating that a percentage increases in exchange rate volatility increases firms cost of goods sold by over 14.7 percent. Increase in the level of economic activity as measured by index of industrial production and lending rate had a negative impact on firm's cost of goods sold. The variables easily passed the test of significance at the 1 percent level. The adjusted coefficient of determination value of 0.86 shows a very

high fit, given that only about 14 percent systematic variation of the performance indicator variable is left unaccounted for in the model. The Durbin-Watson statistic value of 0.91 shows the presence of autocorrelation however, the overall model had a good fit as indicated by the F-statistics value the profitability model reported in column 4,

Table 1: Panel Data Results Based on Common Constant and Fixed Effect (LSDV) Model

Explanatory Variables	COMMON CONSTANT		COMMON CONSTANT		FE/LSDV		FE/LSDV	
	LCOGS (1)		LPBRT (2)		LCOGS (3)		LPBRT(4)	
C	22.14	(5.37)*	22.00	(4.07)*	24.32	(14.1)*	16.91	(4.60)*
EXR^2	15.68	(1.79)***	16.11	(1.34)	14.75	(4.06)*	10.74	(1.33)
LINDX	-1.79	(-1.60)	-2.42	(-1.66)	0.93	(-4.69)*	-1.62	(-1.66)
LINTR	-1.16	(-1.48)	-0.77	(-0.75)	-2.18	(3.02)*	-0.41	(-0.59)
DUM2					-1.95	(-10.7)*	0.27	(0.68)
DUM3					-3.21	(-17.1)*	1.63	(3.54)*
DUM4					-1.50	(-8.29)*	0.40	(0.85)
DUM5					-0.12	(-0.68)	0.08	(0.22)
DUM6					-0.08	(-0.45)	-0.10	(-0.26)
DUM7					-0.89	(-4.93)*	1.14	(3.46)*
DUM8					-0.21	(-1.20)	-0.37	(-0.91)
DUM9					-0.34	(-1.91)***	-0.08	(-0.21)
DUM10					-0.58	(-3.23)*	1.88	(4.62)*
DUM11					-0.39	(-2.14)**	0.04	(0.11)
DUM12					0.36	(-1.98)**	-0.09	(-0.24)
DUM13					-1.56	(-8.59)*	-2.48	(-6.36)*
DUM14					-0.30	(-1.65)	-0.38	(-0.91)
DUM15					0.50	(-2.78)**	0.58	(1.43)
DUM16					-1.52	(-8.36)*	-0.15	(-0.38)
DUM17					-1.09	(-6.04)*	0.13	(0.32)
DUM18					-1.29	(-7.09)*	-1.23	(-2.46)**
DUM19					-1.06	(-5.84)*	1.12	(2.50)**
DUM20					-0.65	(-3.58)*	0.20	(0.49)
R ² /Adj.R ²	0.14	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.87	0.86	0.65	0.60
F-Statistics	10.1		6.28		47.05*		11.5*	
DW-Statistics	0.135		0.95		0.91		2.42	

Notes: Figures in parenthesis represent t-values

*denotes Significant at 1 percent level, **denote significant at 5 percent levels while ***denote significant at 10 percent levels

Source: Authors Estimation, Eview 6, November 2011.

Table 1 performed poorly as all the variables in the model failed the test of significance at the 5 percent levels. With the aid of the Hausman test reported in Table 3, we dropped the Random effects model reported in Table column 2 of Table 3 this is because the Hausman test (which shows the estimated χ^2

value for 4 degree of freedom) had an invalid cross-section test variance with the test statistics set to zero making the Random effect model unreliable. Thus, for this study we concentrate on the least square dummy variable model result reported in Table 3, column 3 and 4.

Table 2: Panel Data Results Based on Fixed Effect and Random Effect Model

Explanatory Variables	FIXED EFFECT MODEL (1)				RANDOM EFFECT MODEL (2)			
	LCOGS		LPBRT (11.75)*		LCOGS		LPBRT (11.75)*	
C	23.53	(5.37)*	17.06.00	(4.06)*	23.46	(13.6)*	17.94	(4.60)*
EXR^2	14.75	(1.79)***	10.74	(1.33)	14.78	(4.07)*	11.60	(1.33)
LINDX	-2.18	(-1.60)	-1.62	(-1.66)	-2.17	(-4.66)*	-1.77	(-1.66)
LINTR	-0.98	(-1.48)	-0.41	(-0.59)	-0.99	(3.04)*	-0.46	(-0.59)
R ² /Adj.R ²	0.87	0.85	0.65	0.59	0.50	0.49	0.10	0.09
F-Statistics	47.05		11.5		58.7		6.20	
DW-Statistics	0.91		2.42		0.75		1.97	
	EFFECT SPECIFICATION				S.D	Rho	S.D	Rho
Cross-Section random.					0.68	0.75	0.74	0.48
Idiosyncratic random					0.38	0.24	0.77	0.51

Notes: Figures in parenthesis represent t-values

*denotes Significant at 1 percent level, **denote significant at 5 percent levels while ***denote significant at 10 percent levels

Source: Authors Estimation, Eview 6, November 2011.

CONCLUSION

This study has employed panel data estimating technique to examine the effect of exchange rate volatility on corporate performance in Nigeria. Using the squared value of the mean adjusted relative change in exchange rate to proxy exchange rate volatility and incorporating two control variables in the model-index of industrial production and prime lending rate, the result suggest that exchange rate volatility had a significant impact on firms cost of goods sold. A reduction in firms cost of goods sold is likely to imply significant improvement in firm's performance. The study shows that volatility in exchange rate would most likely impact on firms' profitability through increased transactions cost arising from either translations or transactions risk emanating from the volatility in exchange rate.

The result also showed that the level of economic activity as measured by index of industrial activity and lending rate are important factors in explaining firm's performance in Nigeria. Interestingly, lending rate seems to have a significant negative effect on cost of goods sold. This negates the a priori relationship between cost of borrowing and firm's performance. One explanation to this is that most firms are not driven by bank loans. This finding has severe implications for policy makers as continuous use of monetary policy tool (interest rate) is not likely to influence real economic aggregates as shown by the interest rate-firm performance variable.

Limitations

In this paper, we estimated the effects of exchange rate volatility on corporate performance in Nigeria using panel data. Our emphasis was on twenty companies listed on the Nigerian stock exchange without possibly separating the firms in terms of high and low performance firms. It will be worthwhile for future

research to examine the behavior of more firms by separating the firms in term of whether the firms are high performance firm or low performance firms.

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EXAMINATION OF ETHNIC AND POLICY ISSUES IN GROOMING PREFERENCES AND ETHNIC HAIRSTYLES OF AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN IN CORPORATE AMERICA

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ABSTRACT

For a century, college-trained, professional racial minorities: specifically, African American women with a preference in grooming methods have contributed to the labor market; however, in the new millennium, they are often discriminated against, scoffed at, isolated, and demoralized based on ethnic hairstyles. Research studies have distinguished a depth of research on this and conversely there are limited studies on racial minorities, in particular among grooming preferences in ethnic hairstyles. Studies have shown that in progressive companies, racial minorities and African American women who wear ethnic hairstyles had their employment terminated with prejudice. With regard to these case studies and findings, one could argue that in this nation there is freedom of speech and inequality in expression. For this reason, this research is very necessary to discover variables in ethnic and policy issues in grooming preferences with regard to the ethnic hairstyles of African American women as it relates to employers, whereat cohesive practices in diversity and policies address imposing construct in the labor market. This research will not address every ethnical concern in the labor market; yet, it responds to a call in the literature to define managerial deficiencies against racial minorities: in particular, African American women in grooming preferences.

KEYWORDS: African American Women, Hair Grooming, Corporate America, Ethnic Policy

COST AND VALUE ADDED COMPETITIVENESS: CHINA VS. MEXICO

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China and Mexico compete in the US market for consumer electronics, auto parts, machinery, etc. This study analyses the role of cost factors as well as technology and other differentiating factors in this evolving rivalry. As alternative low-cost locations emerge worldwide, both nations race to move up the value chain, and the cost focus gives way to a competition based on a wider array of elements. As China's cost advantages continues to erode, the country takes steps to move up the value chain, increasing its offerings of value added goods with a higher technology content. In turn, Mexico builds on its special location and NAFTA privileges to build a sustainable cost-plus-convenience advantage. Governments play a decisive role in shaping this transformation, and a comparison of national competitiveness and industrial policies reveals major differences, while also pointing at viable potential competitive strategies for both countries, including targeted Chinese foreign direct investment in Mexico's production system. Such an alternative would offer unique advantages to China including location advantages, guaranteed access to the US market, as well as a more receptive FDI legislation and treatment. This option becomes more valuable for China as trade and other tensions with the US escalate.

SUPPLY CHAIN PROBLEMS CREATED BY A CHINESE MANUFACTURER IN AN E-COMMERCE MARKETING ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

An e-commerce firm encountered major supply chain problems caused by extremely erratic and unpredictable shipments from its Chinese supplier. It was this firm that cooperated in this empirical investigation. The study was designed to experimentally find an approach to overcome customer dissonance caused by the resultant order shipment delays from the cooperating firm to its customers. The product was a GPS unit specifically designed for fishers. Two independent variables were manipulated: 1) order shipment delays and 2) the receipt of an extra unexpected gift with the order. Significant reductions in dissonance levels were achieved by giving the customer more than expected when they incurred unusually long delays in the receipt of their orders. The research included managerial implications.

A PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE FOR DYNAMIC ELEARNING ENVIRONMENTS BASED ON STUDENT ACTIVITY AND LEARNING STYLES

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ABSTRACT

Using computer assisted technologies or learning management systems to supplement or replace the classroom experience is common in education. The use of these technologies generates a large volume of transactional level data that could be used to help both the instructor and the student benefit more from the course content. This is in part due to the amount and type of data captured by technology based learning support systems. This paper proposes a potential architecture using business intelligence methodology for capturing a robust array of learner activity and using that captured data to automatically adapt the learning environment to the needs and learning style of the learner. This architecture has implications to individual learning, course management, program assessment, and college-level assurance of learning. Partial implements of this architecture are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Learning technologies encompass a broad range of communication, information and related technologies that can be used to support learning, teaching, and assessment. Learning technologies are common in the education industry as parents, students and teachers try to take advantage of the technologies to promote and improve learning.

With the invention of learning management systems (LMS), teachers and administrators are turning to online technologies to aid in the learning process. For example, Chico State University has rolled out experimental course redesigns, encouraging faculty members to think about how to use new learning technologies such as online instruction (Glenn, 2010). Carnegie Mellon's Open Learning Initiative and the Monterey Institute for Technology and Education's National Repository of Online Courses, are other examples of innovative uses of technology to help educate (Milliron, 2010). In a 2002 *Chronicle of Higher Education* article, the president of Pennsylvania State University was quoted as saying that the convergence between online and residential instruction was the single-greatest unrecognized trend in higher education. (Young, 2002). In 2003, the American Society for Training and Development identified blended learning as one of the top ten trends to emerge in education, where blended learning is some combination of face-to-face and technology based learning (Rooney, 2003).

As institutions engage in greater use of LMS, there are benefits to the use of the learning management systems (LMS). The use of LMS to manage course content allows for the capture of student behaviors such as accessing reading materials and teaching notes, when students start online assignments, how long students take to complete the assignments especially quizzes and exams, as well as productivity in discussion forums. Some LMS also capture how often and how long students log into the system. While many LMS capture this information, little is known about how to appropriately use this information to better understand student behaviors or e-Learning usage patterns. This paper presents a possible

architecture for understanding students e-Learning usage pattern. Parts of architecture are already commercially available.

PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE FOR UNDERSTANDING AND BENEFITTING FROM STUDENT E-LEARNING USAGE PATTERNS

The use of e-learning technologies has its strengths and weaknesses. The strength is definitely in the ability to manage and grade large numbers of assignments making larger classes easier to assess. It also allows for teaching material to be available to students 24/7. By centralizing access to assignments, discussion forums and learning material the instructor now has a rich dataset of transactions that capture student behaviors including information about when the student logs in to the system, what the student did while logged in, and the results of assessments. Some learning platforms can even tell the instructor the proximity of IP addresses of students and other websites the student was visiting while logged in to the learning management system. The weakness of this data is that an instructor can easily be perceived as invading a student's privacy. Maybe a student doesn't want the instructor to know how frequently they logged in and what they were doing other than evaluating the submission of assignments. While the data generated can help the instructor better understand and identify behaviors of the student while online, students may not appreciate the instructor knowing so much about them without knowing them in a strong face-to-face situation.

Raw Data Generation: a Event Based Activity Monitoring.

At the heart of the architecture is the collection of detailed activity information of how the learner is doing within the LMS and how the learner is interacting for the learning content. It should be noted that the collection of this detailed activity does in no way represent a compromise of neither the LMS' nor browser's security protocols. All of the information obtained in this section is readily available to any Web-based application. Most applications simply choose to ignore this source of information.

The coarsest level of data retained in support to the current architecture is page level information such as which learning content is view by which student at what time for how long and from what physical location. This data is very similar to that retained by most current LMS systems as well as by GA. The event-based tracking described below is in addition to this page-level tracking.

Building Activity Benchmark

Ascribing meaning to the raw data generated in the previous section is impossible without a benchmark to measure the activity against. For example suppose the activity data indicates that during a portion of the course student online activity has dramatically dipped. From an educational perspective what is the meaning of this finding? It is very difficult to tell. The lack of online activity may have been caused by many reasons: the course is engaged in non-online content or activities or the students are on a break. Student activity only has meaning when coupled with the expectations of the instructor. For example the dip in activity is an area of concern only if the course is at a point where the instructor would expect the students to be heavily engaged with the online content.

Building these activity benchmarks are equivalent to GA's conversion goals. Just as GA's goals become a metric of performance through which success in of the Web site may be measured, the activity

benchmarks provide meaning to the learner activity. These benchmarks allow the instructor to communicate with the system what the expectation of the learner is. This is a key component because it allows measurements for the alignment of learner activity and instructor expectations. For example when an instructor is working on an activity within the course, one would expect that the student traffic patterns on the supporting materials for that activity to dramatically increase. If this increase fails to occur this would be a misalignment of the student activity with the instructor's expectations and would be an area of concern. This alignment can be measured which provides a means of progress tracking the student activity.

The benchmarks should be refined over time as the course curriculum evolves or as the instructors expectations clarify. Misalignments between the benchmark and the student activity can drive a continuous improvement process for the curriculum. If disappointing alignment results are seen repeatedly across terms this may be an indicator of a potential area for curriculum improvement.

Building a User Rating Metric

The architecture outlined here attempts to parallel the construction of this user rating through electronic means. Using the raw student activity data and instructor driven benchmark a user rating score is derived. This score is computed as an affine calculation based on a student's performance on a series of score card items. To be direct, these score card items are NOT elements from the course gradebook. Rather these items are measurable, binary performance activities that may be observed in the activity logs. These score card items should be easily extensible and will vary from environment to environment.

The User Rating developed for the simulation contains over 50 score card items. One such item included in this User Rating metric is the student's consistency in researching current market conditions within the industry before recording their decisions for their simulated company. If a student frequently makes decisions "blind" to the market, it reflects poorly on their management style and their understanding of marketing. The item is set based on how percentage of times the student "blindly" makes their decision; if this percent is above a threshold level the score card item is set to one.

As with the informal, intuitive metric, this formalized user rating is recalculated repeatedly over time. By retaining these values a time series tracking of the student progress is possible. Once a reliable, formalized user rating has been developed for the content, a huge number of uses become apparent: Since the user rating for the learners may be tracked overtime, at risk students may be quickly identified if a dramatic negative change in their user rating. These students can then be automatically referred to an advising function within the university/college.

Based on the students User Rating score intelligent agents may be built that will customize on a mass scale the delivery of content and advise based on the current learner's needs. An example of one such intelligent agent is sited in the Early Stage section below.

If the score card items are categorized into sub-topic areas a more detailed picture of student's strengths and weaknesses may be derived. This may be used to deliver more focused remediation to the student. At a macro, programmatic level, statistical profiles of all students in a program, department or college may be derived as evidence of program outcomes and of potential weaknesses in those programs that should be addressed. This provides an automated way of generating program assessment reports and

continuous improvement feedback loops that are required by many program or college accrediting organizations.

From Analytics to Business Intelligence

Business Intelligence (BI) is defined as “a system for analyzing collected data, with the purpose of providing a better view of an organization's operations to ultimately improve and enhance decision-making, agility and performance.” (Stiffler, 2010). For faculty who teach and use LMSs, the data generated by the LMS can be extensive. For example, four hundred student users of Micromatic generate roughly 200K transactions in one month. The transaction level data is very detailed consisting of a variety of information including IP addresses, login time, log in time, decisions made, etc. Because the data is transactional it is associated with a particular customer, in this case, the student. Thus, the instructor (or the system) has the ability to associate behaviors with traditional assessments such as grade and provide automated prompts to potentially improve student behaviors and hence learning outcomes. The data in LMS's can also provide both the instructor and students with a global view of the “average student” as well as identify outliers such as students who have never logged in to the system or students who have already looked at most of the course materials.

Future Universe of Research

This paper outlines a potential model and use for the transactional data available in learning management systems. Effective use of LMS transactional data can potentially increase student retention, especially when the students are bombarded with large classes in their first few years of college level enrollment. Retaining students is concomitant with retaining a loyal customer-that is one seat that the admissions department does not have to identify a transfer student for replacement, thus saving the college or university significant dollars.

The authors consider architecture outlined in this paper as being very early staged. It is only one possible way the activity monitoring could be accomplished. This architecture will likely evolve overtime. The implementation of the architecture will also grow as product plans come to fruition. The goal of the architecture is to find and solve problems sooner than has been possible before and on a much larger scale. Having access of this information modifies the behavior of both the instructor and the students.

Does this clear human subjects study? The point is it doesn't have to – because it will likely come from the commercial vendors. For LMS vendors that decide to implement robust activity monitoring subsystems into their tools, this subsystem will be a strategic product differentiator.

There are a daunting number of non-technical questions to be explored concerning this research. At this point the societal and ethical impacts of this technology are unclear. Who should have access to this information? What are the privacy and security concerns? What are the implications to the students? What are the implications to advising? What are the implications to the instructor's evaluation and tenure? What are the implications to a program/college's accreditation efforts?

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PROPOSALS FOR MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR OPTICAL CENTERS BASED ON THE CONSUMER

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ABSTRACT

Now at days it is important for the buying decision process to identify the most relevant factors influencing the decision to purchase a product. This translates into the most prominent attributes that seek to draw the consumers attention and encourage the purchase of a product, knowing this information strategies can be created to achieve a greater impact on clients. Optical Centers are companies that need to redefine their marketing strategies due to the opening of new marketing formats presented by large retail chains that offer the same service. The objective is to identify the weight the variables set by the consumer have in the decision making process on the purchase of a product in an optical center. The objective will be achieved through statistical analysis such as regression allowing us to identify the connection with the purchase and subsequently creating a factor analysis to summarize the variables and develop strategies more in line with what the consumer desires. Every company should consider developing strategies congruent to their consumers based on theoretical basis such as the purchase decision process, but establishing empirical factors required by the market to obtain a genuine buying interest.

KEYWORDS: buying decision process, optical centers, marketing strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The eyes provide the sense of sight, it turns out to be one of the most important powers to humans, because it allows you to interact with their environment, recognize the objects that surround him in regard to mobility, shape, size, color and brightness, and access to information in their environment. In the absence of this option in whole or in part, that is, when people are blind or have visual disabilities must resort to alternative means of their own, such as the intensification of the rest of your senses, or technological devices have or scientific support to perceive reality (WHO, 2011). According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2011) estimates that worldwide 45 million blind and another 135 million are visually impaired, 90% of these people are in developing countries, what is unfortunate is that 80% of those cases are preventable

According to the XII General Census of Population and Housing 2000, in Mexico there were almost five people with visual disabilities per 1000 inhabitants in the country, just over 467 000 people, of which 32.2% resided in rural areas. By state is observed that the state with the highest prevalence of visual impairment was Yucatán, with 10.7 people per thousand inhabitants, Tabasco and Campeche followed with 8.9 and 8.6 respectively. In contrast, Baja California (2.3), Tlaxcala (3.4) and Mexico City (3.4) were the states where the prevalence of visual impairment was lower in the country (INEGI, 2010).

The gender difference is minimal overall, women represent 50.6% of the population, but significant changes occur between the different age groups showing the disability and focuses mainly on adult and elderly population, persons under 30 years 17.2% concentrate, people 30 to 59 years 33% and those 60

and older 48.8%, as age increases so does the proportion of people with visual disabilities (INEGI, 2010). For these reasons, the optics are companies that offer services in a space designed for specialized care eye care, with staff ready and able to identify the visual capabilities of patients and offer the best options for bringing your eyesight to the normal, where the main product offered are glasses and contact lenses. In Mexico are traditionally organized into smaller sections, own business units served by the owner and franchises.

In recent years the arrival of two major global competitors Luxottica and Safilo, attracted by the potential for market growth in emerging countries have made major acquisitions of national chains such as market penetration strategy. The scenario is complicated for this industry, as contracted economic market is compounded by the arrival of large global competitors, which offer a vertical integration of distribution channels and cover the entire available market segments.

The idea that the industry was hit hard from the post 2001 crisis and the crisis of influenza, the optical business has faced the crisis with a significant decline in customers visiting the outlets, mainly citing reasons an economic. So this research is to identify within marketing exogenous factors, the variables most strongly affecting the purchase decision process. Based on the fact that these businesses have a customer-centric approach, are given the task of periodic market research to know, among other things, the purchase decision process as a central element of the marketing process.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND BACKGROUND

Traditionally this type of business relies on a sale consultant is the person responsible to guide and explain to the patient in his final decision on ophthalmic lenses and its frame. The training they receive is of vital importance, since this depends on its arguments to present at the counter, so that firms tend to train more consistently to your personal brand support, but meets the concerns based optical only on training advisers to sell more, but forgets that it is important to link business strategy with the strategy of loyalty, if loyalty campaigns are conducted in optics become occasional customers and the objective is that they know the brand identity and begin to have an emotional relationship with it (Reynolds & Olson, 2001). You must get to work closely with customers to establish long term relationships, always focused on their tastes and preferences, changing course.

The client concept has become, before it was taken just as the person who bought the product occasionally now being sought is to link with the brand and build a lasting relationship, where not only buy once but repeatedly, making his attitude towards the brand is sustained. The idea is to add the rational link generated by exchanging the product or service an emotional touch where the customer becomes a friend of the brand or company (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1994).

Companies that want to survive in a competitive environment, are set on the client as they are generated sales, is the most valuable asset in that count, because without them would not exist, therefore it is important to know how the consumers make decisions to buy, use and disposal of the product or service (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel) in order to facilitate this process.

You need to understand that companies are required to have a thorough understanding of who your consumer is important to know how consumers make purchase decisions, as they use the product and finally as discarded goods and services (Lamb, Hair & McDaniel). Several researchers talk about the

steps involved in the process of consumer decision-making that is (Assael, 1999; Alonso, 2004; Pitts & Woodside, 1984; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2001; Sheth, mittal & Newman, 1991):

1. Recognition of the need occurs when consumers face a mismatch between their actual and desired that awakens and activates the process of consumer decision making. The recognition of the need when a consumer is exposed to internal or external stimulus.
2. Searching for information, once they recognize the need or desire, consumers seeking information about the various alternatives available to satisfy them through a search of information that can be internal to the remembered past information stored in external memory or is seeking information that may be internal to the remembered past information stored in external memory or is seeking information in the external environment.
3. Evaluation of alternatives, the consumer is ready to make a decision.
4. Purchase, the consumer must decide whether to buy or not.
5. Post-purchase behavior.

A consumer will use the information stored in memory and other information obtained from external sources to develop a set of criteria. Researchers have shown that exposure to certain signs in their everyday environment may affect your decision criteria and buying.

Factors that influence consumer buying decisions

The process of consumer decision-making does not occur in isolation are affected by factors, cultural, social, individual and psychological, these factors have an effect from the time when the consumer perceives a stimulus to post-purchase behavior (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999).

Cultural influences: cultural factors exert a greater influence and which is the set of values, norms, activities that make consumer behavior (Loudon & DellaBitta, 1995).

Social influences: These factors can reduce the search and evaluation efforts to decrease uncertainty, especially when it increases the perceived risk of the decision, through formal or informal group that influence the buying behavior of an individual or a leader opinion that it is an individual known to influence others or family (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999).

Individual Influences: The purchasing decisions of a person are also influenced by personal characteristics unique to each individual such as gender, age and stage of the cycle of life and personality, self-concept and lifestyle (Alonso, 2004).

Psychological influences. Purchasing decisions of an individual are also influenced by psychological factors: perception, motivation, learning and beliefs and attitudes. These factors are what consumers use to interact with their world. They are tools that consumers use to recognize their feelings, gather and analyze information, formulate thoughts and opinions and take action (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999).

METHODOLOGY

This research seeks to determine the relationship of the dependent variable age of purchase several independent variables that determine factors that may influence the purchase of prescription glasses. The relevance of this study is that they can develop strategies that have a greater impact at the time of

purchase decision, so you must first see if there is a relationship between them and then see the strength of the association so raises the following hypothesis:

H1 Age has a positive significance in the factors that influence the purchase

Table 1: Variables

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables
Age of purchase	Design framework Lens Brand Price Weight of frame Warranty Treatment of mica Materials making up the mica Mica type Lens Accessories Purchase Promotion Eye exam Point of sale Advertising

Table shows the dependent and independent variables

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

There are several independent variables which need to see their influence on the age-dependent variable of purchase. The results show that Pearson variation of age is associated with the price slightly, the weight of the frame and the warranty as shown in table 2.

Table 2: Pearson correlations

	Pearson Correlation	
	Age	
	Correlations	Sig.
Design framework	-.069	.167
Lens Brand	-.054	.224
Price	.127	.037
Weight of frame	.183	.005
Warranty	.212	.001
Treatment of mica	.075	.146
Materials making up the mica	.088	.108
Mica type	.032	.296
Lens Accessories	-.072	.156
Purchase Promotion	-.016	.410
Eye exam	.099	.083
Point of sale	.076	.142
Advertising	-.099	.083

Table shows the Pearson correlation

The Model Summary (table 3) shows that R square is .145, meaning that 14.5% of the variation in the age of purchase may be explained by the independent variables.

The results of the regression model in the ANOVA table shows that the general model is significantly different from 0 ($F = 2402$). The probability level of .005 means that the chances are no greater than .005 that the results of the regression model could yield a population in which R square is actually .00.

Table 3: Model Summary

Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R squared
1	.381	.145	.085

Table shows the R squared a. Predictors: (Constant), Advertising, Design frame, Price, Review of sight, Eyeglass frames, Lenses Accessories, Promotion of purchase, Treatment of mica, Point of sale, Type of mica, Warranty, Materials which are composed of mica.

Table 4: ANOVA

Model	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F - value	Sig.
1 Regression	32.120	13	2.471	2.402	.005
Residual	189.254	184	1.029		
Total	221.374	197			

Table shows the ANOVA a. Predictor Variables: (Constant), Advertising, Design of shell, shell weight, price, eye exams, eyeglass frames, lenses Accessories, Promotion of purchase, treatment of mica, point of sale, type of mica, Warranty, Materials which is composed of mica. b. Dependent Variable: Age

To determine whether the thirteen variables are significant predictor purchase age is observed Coefficients table. The column of Standardized Beta Coefficients variable reveals that the guarantee has a beta coefficient of .307 with a significance level of .001, so the warranty states that grows 1 unit, the age-dependent variable of purchase is .307 units on average. So we know from this regression analysis the variable price, warranty and point of sale are a good predictor of age to purchase and frame design variables, a brand of lenses, treatment of mica, mica type, accessories lenses, purchase promotion, eye exam, and advertising are not.

Table 5: Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Error	Beta	t	
1 (Constant)	1.729	.501		3.451	.001
Design framework	-.056	.056	-.073	-1.008	.315
Lens Brand	-.016	.042	-.030	-.394	.694
Price	.104	.053	.147	1.973	.050
Weight of frame	.073	.046	.126	1.597	.112
Warranty	.178	.054	.307	3.298	.001
Treatment of mica	-.072	.059	-.119	-1.217	.225
Materials making up the mica	.006	.065	.011	.097	.923
Mica type	-.018	.061	-.032	-.295	.768
Lens Accessories	-.062	.040	-.124	-1.558	.121
Purchase Promotion	-.053	.052	-.084	-1.028	.305
Eye exam	-.003	.052	-.004	-0.50	.960
Point of sale	.085	.045	.159	1.877	.062
Advertising	-.101	.049	-.189	-2.067	.040

Table shows the regression coefficients a. Dependent Variable: Age

CONCLUSIÓN

The inference in the interpretation of statistical survey of marketing exogenous variable most influential in the purchase decision was the warranty. Conceptualizing the extended warranty attribute as the defining element at the time of the evaluation of alternatives.

Within the purchasing decision process of such products within the binomial categorized visual health - personal image (fashion), the criteria of place, price, promotion and service are equalized to the extent of not showing a strong and definitive differentiation, generating a effect of "commodity", in the imagination

of the consumer does not make any difference. Therefore, the defining element is the warranty, which causes the generation of a relationship that goes beyond the extended life of the product or repair of any damage, generating a lasting relationship is highly valued by the actors in the process that influences repurchase and recommendation.

It is important to set a limit of the investigation, the results circumstantial, as is inferred that the high competition in the retail business and the economic situation in the region - particularly seasonal and dependent on the tourism sector - the changing of the process indicates purchase decision in this sector, it is recommended, in an effort to monitor any change in consumer behavior, similar research conducted periodically to respond to the most appropriate marketing strategies.

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PRODUCTIVE CHAINS CONFORMATION OF OSTREICULTURE IN THE MUNICIPALITY OF ENSENADA BAJA CALIFORNIA

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ABSTRACT

This article describes a study proposal aimed to highlight the importance and benefits of the establishment of sectoral production chains as a source of growth and strengthening of producers, as well as a driver of regional economic development. Study will be referring specifically to the ostreiculture industry in Ensenada, Baja California. The key is to analyze the degree of progress of existing integration and/or factors alternatively influencing and preventing the formation of these productive chains between oyster farmers in the municipality of Ensenada, it is a topic of great interest due to the particular characteristics of the biological, geographic and economic context in this municipality and the potential it represents. It emphasizes the need to strengthen the groups with common activities that have been identified as promising and dynamic, seeking to strengthen each other, to promote their advancement within the value chain of individual and group. Analyzing clustering models and productive chains existing, this research emphasizes model variables: associativity, differentiation, and research and development as influencing factors for the formation of these clusters or productive chains.

JEL: O13; Q22; R11

KEYWORDS: Ostreiculture, productive chains, clusters.

INTRODUCTION

Fishing and aquaculture are important economic activities and means of growth and development in the municipality of Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico. Sardine and tuna extraction and production currently stands out in the state; however there is a huge potential in aquaculture, so it is essential to explore new production options that can produce a greater level of certainty. Oyster business in the region has great potential for development due to the geo-biological conditions of our state as well as being an important source of employment and foreign exchange generation; in the near future is a viable solution to the of food and nutrition problems in Mexico and the world, so it is vital that participants interact to promote orderly growth and development on this sector.

According to FAO (2008), aquaculture has experienced unprecedented growth over the past 5 decades, from 1 million tons in the decade of the 50's to over 50 million tons in 2008. Currently, aquaculture generates about 50% of fish consumed in the world. It is estimated that primary and secondary sectors are creating jobs for a total of 540 million people in the world, accounting approximately 8% of the population. It is expected that over the next decade (2010-2020) global aquaculture production continues to increase. We highlight the importance and potential in the fishing and aquaculture for Mexico, as the country has over 3 million km² of exploitable surfaces, which puts Mexico at number nine worldwide.

On July 24, 2007 was published LEY GENERAL DE PESCA Y ACUACULTURA SUSTENTABLES (General Law of sustainable Fisheries and Aquaculture), which in Article 17 states: "...the fisheries and

aquaculture are matters of national security are a priority for national development planning and management integrated fisheries and aquaculture;...” Stresses that within the framework of National Development Plan 2007-2013 envisaged actions to further promote the fishing, aquaculture, as they are activities that demand momentum due to their potential and the slow development achieved.

The State Development Plan for Baja California, includes the importance of aquaculture as the implementation of strategic development and improvement of the income of those people engaged in fishing and aquaculture activities, which ensure the sustainable use of resources and the preservation and restoration of marine ecosystems.

Ensenada is currently the most important production, highlighting, among other species, the Japanese oyster culture (*Crassostrea gigas*). It originated initially in the Bay of San Quintin Baja California, in the early seventies, with the development of a series of works made at the time by Oceanological Research Institute (IOI) of Universidad Autonoma de Baja California; see Table 1. <http://www.sepescabc.gob.mx/x/inicio/> Accessed: 06/16/2011.

Table 1: Areas of aquaculture and species

LOCATION	SPECIES
rincon de ballenas	oyster, clam
isla todos santos	marine fish
salsipuedes	blue fin tuna
punta banda	blue fin tuna
ensenada	ornamental fish
san quintin	oysters, clams
ejido erendira	abalone, oyster seed
ojos negros	trout (pilot test)
maneadero	japanese oyster
bahia todos santos	
san quintin	
laguna manuela	kumamoto oyster
estero san jose	

Source: Based on data from State Ministry of Fisheries Main areas of aquaculture and type of crops in the municipality of Ensenada

The municipality of Ensenada has an extension of 1,114.89 km of coastline which account for over 80.8% of the coastal state extension; also owns 74,800 has of coastal lagoons suitable for aquaculture SEPESCA (2011), the main are listed in Table 2.

Table 2; Ensenada bays

Main bays in the municipality of Ensenada	
Resource	Extension / Surface
B. San Francisquito	215 has
B. de Los Angeles	476 has
B. Sn Luis Gonzaga	315 has
B. Todos Santos	24,000 has
B. Isla Todos Santos	15 has
B. Soledad	205 has
B. San Quintín	3,000 has

Total surface 28,226 has Source: Based on data from State Ministry of Fisheries. This table describes the Ensenada's Bays and its surface in hectares.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The research focuses on a positivistic approach, for which different models were compared for consideration (see Table 3), identifying those whose analyzed the variables: associativity, differentiation, and, research and development, which served to propose a model to meet the particular needs of Baja California.

Table 3: Comparative of studied Models

Author / Variable	Associativity	Differentiation	I + D	Emphasis / Model
Porter (2002)		X	X	Design and branding, Technology, product Attributes, consumer Services, network sales.
Mintzguer, Quinn & Bogar on Cenicerros (2008)		X		Low Costs, differentiation
Koonts & Wehrich on Cenicerros (2008)		X		Competitiveness
David on Cenicerros (2008)		X	X	marketing, I+D
Laudon & Laudon on Cenicerros (2008)		X		Market Segmentation
Thompson & Strickland on Cenicerros (2008)		X	X	Design and performance of product and assortment, recyclability and environment protection, on-demand manufacturing of products, improved production methods, quality and appearance.
Vazquez (1998)	X	X	X	Territoriality, resources interaction, unions, social and historical importance, socio-economic transformation; quality, infrastructure and services in mutual support; prioritization of collective activities, networks, information flow, innovation and entrepreneurial dynamism.
Olave (2005)	X		X	Integrated business management, productivity, competitiveness, cultural and social focus, leadership focused on scientific practices.
Medicci (2011)	X		X	Integration of producers, financing, institutional relations, cooperation, economies of scale, R & D, marketing, social and economic welfare.

This Table contains a summary of studied models, which contains the specific dimensions considered on each model.

Definitions

Aquaculture: According to the FAO's yearbook of Aquaculture (2008) is defined as the cultivation of aquatic organisms including fish, molluscs, crustaceans and aquatic plants. The farming activity involves human intervention in the rearing process to enhance production, such as regular stocking, feeding, protection from predators, and others activities. The farming also implies individual or corporate owners exert the population are under cultivation.

Associativity: Vazquez Barquero (1998), associativity are grouping strategies carried out by groups of companies that decide to engage in various activities together, a situation that occurs in an atmosphere of informal networks, relationships and certain production linkages with suppliers, customers and markets, leading to the endogenization development.

Development: This concept is related with economy, and primarily on technology. There is to be sought in developing a systematic application of scientific knowledge, it means, "therefore it is concluded that the cause is necessary for the development of research, however it is not necessary that the research becomes development.

Differentiation: Porter (2002), on his book Competitive Advantage defines differentiation as a competitive advantage that any company possess, trough which it generates added value for customers by creating singularity, it may have originated from any part of the value chain.

Ostreiculture: The cultivation of oysters in a controlled environment.

Research: In regard to researchers, as companies, both agree that is the effort anyone does, personal or collective, to attain new knowledge; in that sense, this process has different levels of relevance, to be distinguished: basic research, and the application-oriented research.

Linkage between research and development (R&D): This connection must necessarily be managed, and that does not occur naturally. The growth of a country is strongly linked to its ability to integrate research and knowledge, posing such as strategic management to generate innovation and development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

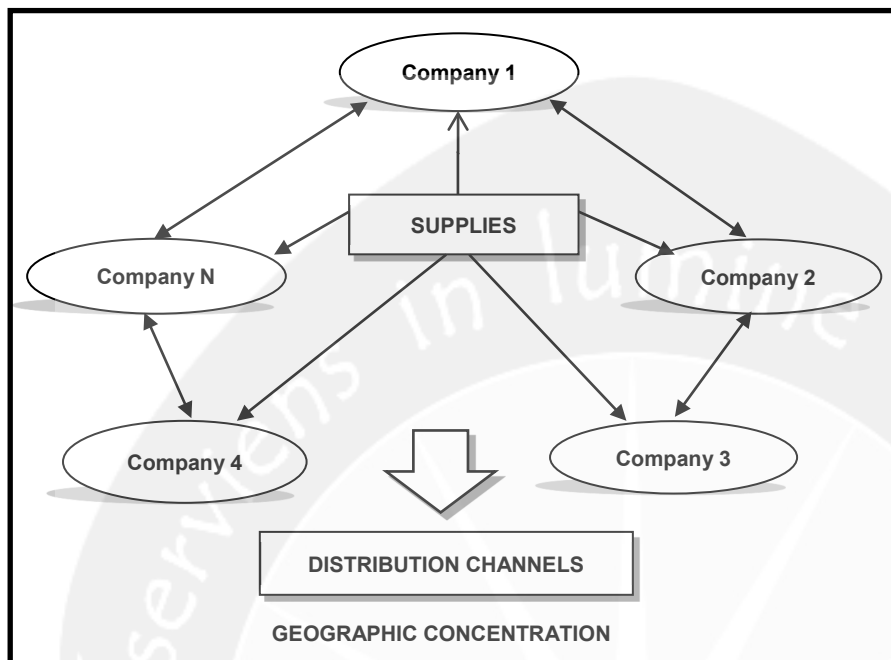
Production Chains: A Proposed Model To Study

According with Anllo, CEPAL (2010) (Economic Commision for Latin America) recognizes the existence of three different figures of business groups: linkages, clusters, networks and global value chains. Regarding the model proposed on this study, we will emphasize in terms of productive chains and clusters.

The Clusters

In the nineties, Porter (1999), revolutionized the concept of clusters and supply chains by introducing his theory of what he called "clusters" or "critical mass", arguing that the economic map of the world is dominated by this type of clusters, which are located in a particular place, with a distinctive or unusual competitive success in certain areas of production (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Outlining of cluster according Porter



Source: Porter (1999) This figure outlines how cluster is defined by Porter, as the sum of supply chains and distribution channels of companies in a sector.

The definition of a cluster according to Porter (1999 p. 199) is: “geographic concentrations of interconnected companies and institutions that act in a particular field. They bring together a wide range of industries and other related entities that are important to compete” in that sense, includes input suppliers or specialized industry critics, extending vertically sometimes to the channel with customers, and horizontally, to manufacturers of complementary products and other companies operating in industries with technological specialties or common inputs. Moreover, these concentrations include government agencies and other institutions such as universities, research centers, groups or business groups that provide training, information, and research and technology support.

In the same matter, Porter (1999) notes that with the opening of markets, and the advancement of information technology and communications (globalization), the physical location of these clusters is becoming less relevant, and what takes on real importance of competitiveness, since the latter was traditionally linked to the cost of inputs, but to be satisfied the acquisition of these, takes precedence over the most productive use of inputs through constant innovation, generating this added value within the value chain of each company. Examples of these concentrations are mentioned: The wines of California, the cluster of entertainment in Hollywood, finance on Wall Street, the Italian leather cluster, the cluster of chemicals in Germany, among many others.

According to CEPAL (2010), the cluster approach the central concept revolves around competition or individual competitive improvements, which have their origin in capturing positive externalities related to the advantages of their geographical location, (Porter calls “club goods”) is shared by traders or activity, but their costs are improved and/or income have such common features that allow them to exploit economies of scale and / or agglomeration. Therefore, these companies are characterized by competing with each other in normal conditions, but they share mutual benefits of various kinds.

Productive Chains

According to McCormick (2006), a chain is a system consisting of interrelated actors and succession of stages of production, processing and marketing of a product or product group in a given environment, and in this sense, is defined as: “the sum of the supply chains and distribution channels of the companies that belong to a sector”. Consistent with what was stated in the “Economic development strategic plan for the municipality of Ensenada” (2004), McCormick (2006) agrees on the need to strengthen those sectors that have been identified as promising and dynamic diagnostic exercises to generate that leap to the stage of consolidation as clusters. Continuing McCormick (2006) noting that the production chains have weak links in their interaction with the territory, as opposed to clusters in these relations are not given support to institutions in the region, or with government agencies involved.

Input-output matrix Productive chains

Fuentes (2009), describes the input-output matrix of Leontief, as a model that quantifies the relationships between the various branches of economic activity, as suppliers or demanders mutual intermediate inputs, which allows you to select a function key sectors of the importance of interdependencies that can be measured through intersectoral linkages. The main premise of these studies is based on that not all economic activities have the same ability to induce effects on others. Some effects are identified by generating “pull” or “push” harder, and through these indicators can establish a possible correlation between such effects and levels of economic growth.

Alcalá et. al. (2009), notes that the importance in the implementation of a product system as a strategy for strengthening the development and competitiveness in a sector (in this case the shrimp in Baja California) lies in the contribution towards the development of a collaborative work culture among producers, primarily in the areas of production, marketing, organization, research and technology transfer, financing and insurance. Consistent with this, the strategic plan for municipal development in Ensenada 2010 includes the application of input-output matrix for the municipality of Ensenada, to identify potential clusters develop, and the forward plan and strategies for implementation.

Approach Model To Study

The model to study the problem posed is focused on identifying business practices such as associativity, differentiation, and, research and development in companies engaged in the ostreiculture in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California (Figure 2), have a direct bearing on the creation or participation of these chains, and their positioning within the value chain of their individual and group activity.

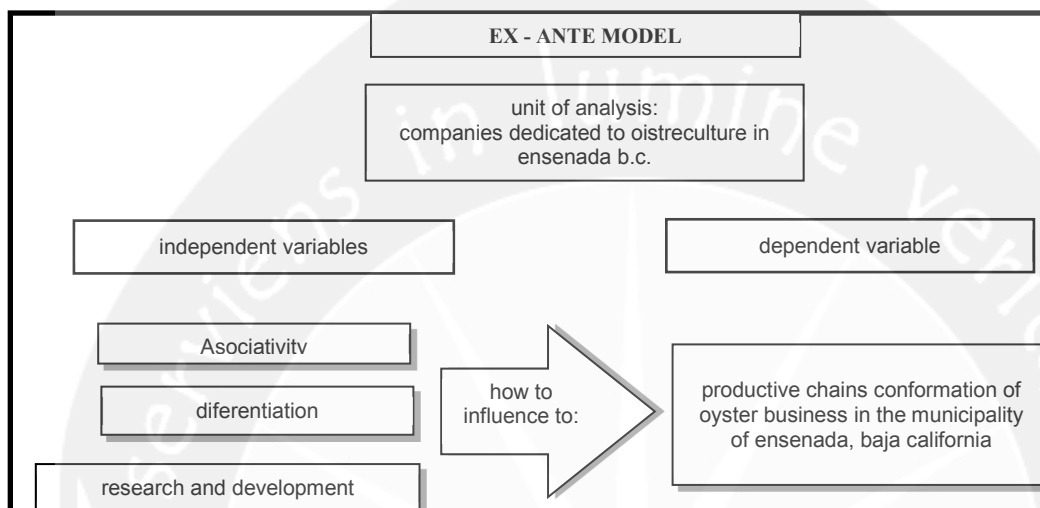
METHODOLOGY

This study will be conducted as applied research, since a model is proposed; is quantitative correlational as the goal is to measure and correlate between the study variables; documental research, as makes use of bibliographic sources to contextualize the situation of oyster industry from a global perspective; due the variables are not manipulated, it is a non-experimental research, as only interpret the results; it is a partial retrospective research, as part of the information already exists and the rest of it will be obtained; and finally it is a descriptive, since this way the parameters are described to study within the population.

Problem Statement

It is unknown what is the relationship or impact of variables: associativity, differentiation and, research and development as an influence factor for productive chains conformation of oistreculture companies in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California.

Figure 2: Ex – ante Model: Productive chains on oistreculture business in the municipality of Ensenada.



Source: Own This figure outlines the proposed Model to study, outlining the relationship between dependent variable and independents variables.

Research Objective

Identify, describe, and correlate, in which forms influence the variables: associativity, differentiation and, research and development, in the conformation of productive chains of oistreculture companies in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California.

Research Question

What is the relationship between associativity, differentiation, and reserach and development, as a factor of influence to participate in productive chains of oyster producers in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California?

Statement / Hypotheses

Ho: The conformation of productive chains has a direct relation with the business practices of associativity, differentiation and, research and development.

H1: The conformation of productive chains does not have a direct relation with the business practices of associativity, differentiation, and research and development.

Limitations

Main limitation for the research performance is the distance to the production sites, due the geographical characteristics of the municipality of Ensenada, which territory covers nearly 80% of the state of Baja

California, the most important production area is located around 250 km south of city of Ensenada, a smaller area less important in terms of production is nearly 500 km to the south.

METHOD

Table 4: Method description

Study universe	Ostreiculture producers in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California.
Collection period	2012-1
Collection data	Survey, interview, focus group
Universe & Sample size	29/29
Sampling type	Stratified
Experimental error / confidence level of	05% / 95%
Source	Oyster producers, government officials, researchers.
Survey Instrument	Likert type

Source: Own This table describes specific information about data and method used to develop the study.

RESULTS

Research Findings

Because of its importance, the area of greatest oyster production in Mexican pacific is concentrated in the Bay of San Quintin in the municipality of Ensenada, but there is great disparity between the size and profile of the producers involved in this activity; some of them show some progress within the value chain, while others make their productive activities with a very primal focus, almost artisanal.

There have been some studies as part of a strategic plan for municipal economic development, specifically in 2004 a study called “PLAN ESTRATEGICO DE DESARROLLO ECONOMICO DEL MUNICIPIO DE ENSENADA” (“ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIC PLAN FOR THE MUNICIPALITY OF ENSENADA”), in which a section was included to boost the Fisheries and Aquaculture Cluster. However, nearly a decade of development, no progress is obvious; due this, it is of great interest for this study to determine the factors that have prevented the formation of clusters or productive chains on this specific activity.

DISCUSSION

Significance Of The Study

This study proposes to identify factors that influence the grouping of producers towards common goals, in order to add value to their products within individual value chain as well as in the value chain group, such that this benefit is passed to an improvement not only from the economic point of view the generation of wealth and jobs, but also in social and cultural development. Therefore, it should be of interest not only for the producers involved, but also for other sectors as government, educational, technological and others direct and indirect participants for a true collective benefit.

Expected Results: Reviewing studies conducted in other regions and countries where productive chains have been performed successfully, this study will provide useful information for ostreiculture companies in the municipality of Ensenada, as well as others with similar activities in the region, interested in get involved in their integration through the framework of productive chains. Also will analyze the problematic that occurs in the formation and integration of productive chains, specifically in ostreiculture companies in the municipality of Ensenada Baja California, proposing relevant actions that encourage and

result in its conformation and development. The integration of ostreiculture companies in the municipality of Ensenada through the form of productive chains, will result in an increase in labor supply and better salary level, as well as improvements in family living standards of employees, so as a result of it, would create better prospects for education and culture leading to a restructuring of social tissue.

Opportunity Areas For Future Studies

Besides the economic importance of performing this study, there is an opportunity for future studies towards the solution of a nutrition problem, due the fact that Mexico occupies first place worldwide in obesity, which can be crashed by promoting the consumption of food from aquaculture source. There is also a great opportunity to develop a similar study in other areas of aquaculture due its wide variety of species and their potential.

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ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING, MARKETING STRATEGIC CHANGE AND PERFORMANCE OF WHOLLY-OWNED AND INTERNATIONAL JOINT VENTURES IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

In an international joint venture (IJV), the extent to which learning and change take place may depend on the ownership structure of the organization. This exploratory study compares the levels of organizational learning and marketing strategic change and their relationships with firm performance between 100% Thai-owned firms, Thai-majority IJVs and Thai-minority IJVs in Thailand. Using data from a sample of 101 firms listed in the Japanese-Thai Chamber of Commerce, we find Thai-majority owned IJVs have the highest level of organizational learning whereas the levels of marketing strategic change are equally low among all three ownership structure types. Moreover, organizational learning and marketing strategic change relationships with marketing performance and financial performance vary between the three groups. Findings from this study provide support on the role of IJV ownership structure on strategy formulation, implementation and firm performance.

KEYWORDS: International joint venture, organizational learning, marketing strategic change, IJV performance

INTRODUCTION

Equity ownership and control is considered an important factor in the successful management of an international joint venture (IJV) and control problems have been cited as one of the main causes of IJV failure (Groot and Merchant, 2000; Nippa, Beechler and Klossek, 2007). Prior research on the link between IJV ownership structure and IJV performance suggests that the relationship may not necessarily be a direct one since some studies have found that foreign equity ownership has a positive impact on IJV performance (Luo, 2002; Meschi and Cheng, 2002), some studies have found no significant relationship (Luo and Tan, 2003), and some have found mixed results (Luo, 2001; Zhang, Jing, Fu, 2008). Consequently, a stream of IJV equity ownership research has been aimed at identifying and examining organizational or strategic factors that may also influence IJV performance (e.g., Park and Ungson, 1997).

Thailand is an emerging economy where major growth in IJV formation was seen during the 1980s, mainly by companies from Japan and other East Asian nations. Such IJVs were mostly in manufacturing sectors by foreign investors motivated by the prospect of future market expectations and economic gains from lower labor costs (Suwannarat, Williams, Smith and Ibrahim, 2010a). Compared to other ASEAN nations, Thailand has long been regarded as providing an attractive investment environment. Thailand's Foreign Business Act BE 2543, initiated in 1999, relaxed restrictions of foreign investment. One-hundred percent foreign ownership is permitted for business operations promoted by the Thailand Board of Investment, as well as those that are wholly-owned by U.S. corporations or U.S. nationals. A designated 'Category C' of businesses may have foreign majority ownership upon approval by the Thai government. The country's strong economic growth and resilience within the past 15 years is an indication of an ideal economic climate for future IJV activities. In the first quarter of 2010, total FDI increased 137 percent

from the same quarter the previous year. Japanese remained the top investors, with an increase of 145 percent from the same quarter in 2009, followed by FDI from Chinese then Singaporean investors. Some studies conducted have described IJVs in Thailand in terms of characteristics (e.g. Suwannarat et al., 2010a, 2010b), marketing performance (e.g. Julian and O'Cass, 2004) and marketing knowledge transfer (Mohamad, Ramayah and Hathaivaseawong, 2010).

Examining the operating characteristics and performance of IJVs and wholly-owned subsidiaries from a comparative perspective has been undertaken in previous studies (e.g. Chowdhury, 1992; Jung, Beamish and Goerzen, 2008; Luo and Chen, 1995), however, the variations in the results suggest that findings of such studies are context-specific. In addition, past studies have been examined from the perspective of the foreign parent firm, rather than from that of the local parent. The main purpose of this exploratory study is to assess and compare the levels of organizational learning and marketing strategic change and their relationships with firm performance between 100% Thai-owned firms and Thai-majority and Thai-minority IJVs with Japanese partners in Thailand. Although the cultural gap between Thailand and Japan is regarded as being smaller compared to what it would be with Western partners, there are notable differences between Thais and Japanese. Such differences in terms of national values, business and social practices, and human resource management systems may pose conflict and challenges in a shared workplace (Swierczek and Onishi, 2002). Thus, this Thai-Japanese context provides an interesting research context and the study contributes to literature on IJVs and in particular, those relevant to operating in an emerging economy. In addition, by examining these stated levels and relationships, the study provides Thai and Japanese parent firms, with valuable insights into strategic factors that influence firm performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL DEFINITIONS

International Joint Venture, Equity, and Control

An IJV is an equity-based arrangement between two or more parent firms from different countries to establish a new independent business entity. Parent firms pool their resources, share consequent earnings, operational control and risks in order to run the IJV on a continuous basis with the aim to achieve specific strategic objectives (Geringer and Hebert, 1989). Parent firms engage in an IJV to facilitate access of new markets, acquire new knowledge, enhance their capabilities, and gain other various resources. Despite such expectations to realize these economic benefits, IJVs can be challenging to manage not only because the parent companies may have different cultural characteristics, but also because there may exist competing or incongruent goals, conflicting management styles, and/or mixed understanding of government/regulatory environment and business practices.

The extent to which partners share and control their IJV can be dictated by each partner's equity share. Based on corporate governance theories, equity share in a joint venture constitutes legal ownership of assets. A parent firm's equity investment gives it a source of bargaining power that ultimately affects the extent to which it has management control over IJV operations (Yan and Gray, 1994). Thus, equity also signifies the level of influence a partner can exercise as well as a measure of commitment and involvement in the IJV (Mjöen and Tallman, 1997). For example, a parent firm that invests a small equity share of an IJV may not be able to or be driven to become actively involved in the IJV management.

The theoretical perspective of transaction cost economics is also relevant to explain how equity share acts as an important antecedent of control (Chen, 2009) and to examine equity structure and entry mode

choice (e.g., Brouthers, 2002; Delios and Henisz, 2000). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that equity ownership plays an important role in the overall control within an IJV (Hill and Hellriegel, 1994). Equity ownership has been found to be associated with control over staffing and strategic management activities (Wong, Luk and Li, 2005), as well as with IJV stability and survival (Dhanaraj and Beamish, 2002), and operating characteristics and performance of foreign subsidiaries (Chowdhury, 1993). Moreover, most of the anecdotal evidence on the relative performance of IJVs appears to suggest that joint-ownership arrangements are more profitable than, or at least equal to, those of wholly-owned subsidiaries.

Organizational Learning in IJVs

Broadly defined, organizational learning is a process undertaken by organizational members to understand and acquire new insights. In an IJV, the differences in partner culture, knowledge, skills and capabilities often serve as an impetus for learning (Inkpen, 2000) and partners have access to one another's skills and competencies. In emerging economies, foreign partners of an IJV typically contribute technology and advanced management and marketing techniques while the local partner contributes market knowledge. Learning that takes place in IJVs that have been formed between firms from developing and those from developed countries is widely regarded as a one-way process, with the firm from the developing country being superior in both technology and management. It is widely assumed that greater learning within an IJV leads to higher performance, yet, a review of the extant literature remains inconclusive with some studies supporting a positive learning-performance relationship (e.g. Lyles and Salk, 1996), some showing no relationship (e.g. Farrell, Oczkowski and Kharabsheh, 2008), and others finding mixed results (Child and Yan, 2003).

An explanation to these inconsistent findings from prior research results stem from different operationalizations of organizational learning and firm performance (Kandemir and Hult, 2002). Sinkula, Baker and Noordewier (1997) conceptualize 'learning orientation' as a process that gives rise to a set of organizational values that influences the propensity of a firm to create and use knowledge. As such, the core organizational values of a firm's learning orientation include commitment to learning, open-mindedness and shared vision. In many IJVs, differences in national culture motivate its members to work continuously to achieve adequate shared meaning and management practices to make the venture sustainable. In our study, this conceptualization by Sinkula and colleagues is appropriate, and therefore, adopted. We expect higher levels of organizational learning to take place in IJVs as opposed to wholly-owned subsidiaries.

Marketing Strategic Change in IJVs

In academic literature, strategy has been defined from various perspectives because strategy formulation and implementation often takes place at different levels within an organization, i.e. corporate level, business level, and functional level. With this in mind, we regard strategic change as a change in the form, quality or state over time in the overall pattern of alignment of an organization with its environment (Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1997). Strategic change can be pursued as a response to an anticipated or existing change in the firm's external environment. The performance and survival of firms depends largely on their 'fit' with their external environment. Thus, for an organization to survive in an environment, it must be capable of adapting and re-aligning itself. This is typically done by initiating changes in the content of its current strategy (i.e. mission and goals, product market scope, competitive positioning, and resource deployment), it also encompasses the changes in relations with the external

environment and in internal organizational structures, processes and systems, brought about to initiate and implement changes in the content of strategy.

Ginsberg (1988) states that when firms add or divest new products and services, they alter their competitive domains and as such, he defines strategic change in terms of changes made to a firm's product and services. Based on this definition, Goodstein and Boeker (1991) conceptualize strategic change as changes in the breadth of products or services that an organization offers. In the marketing literature, marketing strategy has been defined as "an organization's integrated pattern of decisions that specify its crucial choices concerning products, markets, marketing activities and marketing resources in the creation, communication and/or delivery of products that offer value to customers in exchanges with the organization and thereby enables the organization to achieve specific objectives" (Varadarajan, 2010, p. 128). Since these three conceptualizations of strategic change center around the organization's product/service mix, we consider these critical decisions as marketing strategic change, irrespective of which strategic level the decision is made. In the same vein, internationalization of a new venture has been considered a mechanism for strategic change (McDougall and Oviatt, 1996). Yet, little attention has been given to strategic change in IJVs. Hence, this study attempts to fill this void.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sampling frame used for this study was the Japanese-Thai Chamber of Commerce database. This database lists Japanese companies and Thai affiliate companies operating in Thailand. All 577 member firms were contacted by phone to identify an appropriate key informant and to secure participation. A total of 108 firms agreed to participate and their designated key informant was sent a copy of the four-page questionnaire. Seven questionnaires that were returned were omitted from our analysis due to excessive missing values.

The final sample was comprised of key informants from several functional areas including corporate heads (e.g. CEO, Director, SBU Head) (39.6%), marketing/sales (33.7%), R&D/product management (6.9%) and others (e.g. finance, environmental) (12.9%). The key informants were knowledgeable about the cross functional dynamics within the firm, with 58.5% of them having more than five years of experience in the firm and 40.6% having at least five years of experience. A majority of the firms in the sample were small or medium in size (74.3%), with 1,000 or fewer employees. The major industries represented in the sample are construction/property development (22.8%), electric & electronics (16.9%) and automobile (14.9%). In terms of ownership structure, 31.7% of the sample is 100% Thai-owned firms, 42.6% comprise Thai-majority IJV, and the remaining 25.7% constitute Thai-minority IJV.

Measures

IJV equity ownership was measured by the share proportion held by the Japanese parent-firm. Three share proportions were used to categorize ventures in this study: (1) Zero share foreign equity ownership (i.e. 100% Thai-owned firm affiliated as a licensee or alliance partner with a Japanese company), (2) 5 to 49% Japanese equity (i.e. Thai-majority IJV), and (3) greater than 50% Japanese equity (i.e. Thai-minority IJV).

All other constructs were adopted and adapted from existing multi-item scales. Organizational learning (ORGLEARN) was measured using the second-order three-dimensional (i.e. commitment to learning,

shared vision, open-mindedness) learning orientation scale developed by Sinkula et al. (1997) with a seven-point Likert scale. Marketing strategic change (MSTRATCHG) was measured using the six-item scale of Goodstein and Boeker (1991) on a seven-point scale anchored with 1 being 'No change' and 7 being 'Very frequent changes'. Two measures of firm performance were used from the work of Furrer, Alexandre, and Sudharshan (2007). Marketing performance (MKTGPERF) was measured on four items related to consumer loyalty, customer satisfaction, firm reputation, and relative product quality reputation) and financial performance (FINCPERF) was measured with six items concerning market share, cash flow, sales and sales growth, return on investment and net profit. These subjective measures of firm performance were deemed appropriate as past research has found such measures to be highly correlated with objective performance measures due to the difficulty of obtaining objective data from respondents. Both performance scales were measured on a seven-point scale anchored with 1 as "Well below average" and 7 as "Well above average."

Construct Reliability and Validity

The original English version of the questionnaire was translated to Thai and back-translated by two independent bilinguals as suggested by Douglas and Craig (1983). Construct reliability and validity for the four multi-item scales ORGLEARN, MSTRATCH, MKTGPERF and FINCPERF were determined using coefficient alpha. Construct unidimensionality was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Adequate construct reliability and validity had been established and consequently the construct scale items were combined to produce a summed score for each latent variable. Table 1 presents the item factor loadings, construct means, standard deviations, and correlations for these variables.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Multi-item Constructs

Construct	No. of Items	Range of Factor Loadings	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4
1. ORGLEARN	3	.839-.862	5.09	.853	.811			
2. MSTRATCHG	6	.579-.853	2.88	1.147	-.002	.828		
3. MKTGPERF	4	.786-.872	5.32	.867	.415**	.038	.855	
4. FINPERF	6	.797-.911	4.86	1.070	.365**	.206*	.589**	.926

Reliability coefficient is shown in the diagonal. ** Significant at the 0.01 level * Significant at the 0.05 level

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

ANOVA was used to examine and compare the levels of organizational learning and marketing strategic change of the firms in our sample. The mean level of organizational learning for at least one of the three firm groups is statistically different ($F=3.67$, $p=.03$). As shown in table 2, the mean levels of all three other major constructs are equal ($F=0.15$, $p=.86$). In fact, the mean level of marketing strategic change is relatively low between the three groups of firms, based on a scale of 1 to 7.

Table 2: Comparison of Organizational Learning and Marketing Strategic Change

Variable	100% Thai-Owned Mean (Std. Dev.)	Thai-majority IJV Mean (Std. Dev.)	Thai-minority IJV Mean (Std. Dev.)	F-test	p-value
ORGLearn	4.806* (0.917)	5.328 (0.727)	5.051 (0.880)	3.665	0.029
MSTRATCHG	2.818 (1.283)	2.957 (1.116)	2.846 (1.054)	0.153	0.858
MKTGPERF	5.117 (0.914)	5.378 (0.868)	5.462 (0.790)	1.327	0.270
FINCPERF	4.781 (1.220)	4.853 (1.045)	4.962 (0.940)	0.201	0.818

* Mean is statistically different.

Multigroup path analysis using AMOS 7.0 was conducted to examine the relationships between organizational learning and marketing strategic change with marketing performance and firm performance. We compared the fit of the restricted and the unrestricted models. The unrestricted model improved the fit ($\chi^2_{3d.f.} = 2.916, p = .405, GFI = .986, RMR = .076$). The difference of $\chi^2_{10d.f.} = 12.739$ is significant and suggests that at least one path coefficient differs significantly between our three groups. The standardized path coefficients for each firm group are shown in table 3.

Table 3: Standardized Regression Weights

Path	Full Sample (λ , p-value)	100% Thai-Owned (λ , p-value)	Thai-majority IJV (λ , p-value)	Thai-minority IJV (λ , p-value)
ORGLearn → MKTGPERF	.416 (0.000)	.440 (0.004)	.318 (0.029)	.617 (0.000)
ORGLearn → FINPERF	.150 (0.079)	.055 (0.683)	.135 (0.295)	.393 (0.060)
MSTRATCHG → MKTGPERF	.039 (0.666)	.313 (0.038)	-.092 (0.528)	-.197 (0.194)
MSTRATCHG → FINPERF	.186 (0.016)	.005 (0.968)	.286 (0.020)	.165 (0.323)
MKTGPERF → FINPERF	.519 (0.000)	.722 (0.000)	.507 (0.000)	.236 (0.266)

Goodness-of-fit statistics: Unrestricted model: $\chi^2_{3d.f.} = 2.916, p = .405, GFI = .986, RMR = .076$

Restricted model: $\chi^2_{13d.f.} = 15.655, p = .268, GFI = .935, RMR = .099$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this paper, we compared organizational learning and marketing strategic change and their relationships with marketing performance and financial performance between wholly-owned Thai firms, Thai-majority IJVs and Thai-minority IJVs in Thailand. Our study found that higher levels of organizational learning are taking place in Thai-majority IJVs ($x=5.33$) and Thai-minority IJVs ($x=5.05$), and a much lower level is taking place in of 100% Thai-owned firms ($x=4.81$). This suggests that differences, i.e. cultural, managerial, or otherwise, between the Thai and Japanese partners, appear to be motivating factors that foster a higher learning orientation among members in these IJVs. As for 100% Thai-owned firms, their learning orientation may be lower due to their relatively limited resources to invest in nurturing its learning capacity.

This study also found that marketing strategic change in terms of the frequency of changes in the breadth of the firm's products or services is equally low among all ownership groups. These low degrees of marketing strategic change may result from the limited role (e.g. licensee, co-marketing partner, subsidiary unit) that the firm plays in the foreign partner's international strategy (i.e. global versus multidomestic or standardized versus localized). Thus, the extent marketing strategic change that takes place in a firm may not only be contingent upon its role in its parent firms' international strategy, but also on other firm factors such as size and industry (i.e. product-market competition).

The data also provides evidence that the relationships between organizational learning and marketing strategic change with marketing performance and financial performance vary between the three groups of firms in our study. For the 100% Thai-owned group of firms, only marketing performance has a positive relationship with both organizational learning ($\lambda=.44$, $p=.004$) and marketing strategic change ($\lambda=.313$, $p=.04$). Financial performance has only a strong positive relationship with marketing performance ($\lambda=.77$, $p=.00$). It appears that for this group, to achieve enhanced financial outcomes in terms of market share, cash flow, sales and sales growth, return on investment and net profit, it is necessary to make investments in and launch activities for organizational learning and marketing strategic change that are geared towards improving marketing outcomes of consumer loyalty, customer satisfaction, firm reputation, and relative product quality reputation. Thus, this relationship between organizational learning and marketing strategic change with financial performance as potentially mediated by marketing performance should be reasserted in future research.

With respect to the Thai-majority IJV group, the results show that marketing performance has a positive relationship with only organizational learning ($\lambda=.32$, $p=.03$) while financial performance has a positive relationship with marketing strategic change ($\lambda=.29$, $p=.02$) and marketing performance ($\lambda=.51$, $p=.00$). Therefore, for this group of IJVs, greater financial performance may be achieved by fostering a stronger learning orientation that is focused on attaining better marketing performance.

The results of the Thai-minority IJV group indicate that of the two strategic factors included in this exploratory study, only organizational learning has a strong positive relationship with marketing performance ($\lambda=.62$, $p=.02$) and a marginal positive relationship with financial performance ($\lambda=.39$, $p=.06$). Therefore, for these Thai-minority IJVs (i.e. Japanese-majority IJVs), organizational learning is a key strategic pursuit to attain higher levels of performance.

CONTRIBUTIONS

This exploratory study provides an initial effort to study and compare the relationships between specific strategic factors and firm performance between three groups of firms in Thailand with different foreign equity structures. By doing so, we make several contributions to the IJV literature and can provide managers with some practical implications. From a theoretical standpoint, there are two clear implications from the results reported. One is that the relationship between organizational learning, marketing strategic change and firm performance vary between the three groups of firms, thus providing additional support that foreign ownership structure has an influence on IJV's strategic pursuits and attained performance levels. A second implication is that the results are derived from IJV firms operating in an emerging economy and from the standpoint of the 'local' parent firm, a standpoint that has been virtually ignored in international business studies. Further research may examine the influence of IJV ownership structure with other organizational characteristics (e.g. parent contributions, control mechanisms) and other strategic factors (e.g. entrepreneurial orientation) on IJV performance.

From a practical perspective, it is worth noting that implementation of strategic pursuits requires investments in activities such as training and company-wide communications. The findings from this exploratory study imply that organizational learning is taking place in the sample of firms and, compared to marketing strategic change, is a more valuable strategic factor related to firm performance. Moreover, organizational learning may have an indirect influence on the financial gains for Thai dominated firms (i.e. 100% Thai and Thai-majority IJV). Thus, these firms should consider incorporating marketing

performance targets as part of its organizational learning programs and as part of building its commitment to learning, shared vision and open-mindedness.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

While this study offers theoretical and practical implications, the results should be viewed in light of several limitations. First, data were collected through a cross-sectional study, thus the findings are limited the extent to which we were able to examine organizational learning, marketing strategic change, and performance relationships in our chosen context. Second, it should be noted that organizational learning and marketing strategic change can be motivated by factors other than IJV equity structure. As such, future research of organizational learning and strategic change in IJVs should aim to include other critical antecedents. Third, our study is conducted with a sample of Thai parent firms in an alliance (i.e. licensing/comarketing alliance versus IJV) with a Japanese parent firm, thus, the specific context of our study limits the generalization of the results. Therefore, we call for further research to replicate or extend our study in other IJV contexts.

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CUSTOMER PERCEPTIONS OF E-SERVICE QUALITY IN ONLINE APPAREL SHOPPING

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ABSTRACT

The percentage of U.S. consumers shopping and purchasing through the Internet is growing. The consumer has adapted to using the Internet to purchase products and retailers have profited from this new channel. Little is known about how a website provides competitive advantage to a retailer and what makes a website appealing to consumers. In order to address the gap in research that exists regarding why and how consumers identify with online apparel retailers, the purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between e-service quality (e.g., efficiency, fulfillment, and system availability) and consumer-company identification for online information search and purchase behavior. This study makes several contributions to the literature. First, this study tests consumer-company identification to provide implications for Internet retailing. Second, the research provides important insights into consumers' search and purchase intentions in relation to consumer-company identification with, perceived usefulness of, and attitude toward a website. Third, discussion of the relationship between e-service quality attributes and perceived usefulness provides suggestions for online marketing strategy. Fourth, this research connects psychological concepts like identity and organization identification with business strategies and consumer decision-making. Finally, this research confirms the unique value of Internet technology to retailing and emphasizes the importance of online store attributes to search and purchase intention.

KEYWORDS: TAM model, online apparel shopping, identification, e-service quality

PERCEIVED SERVICE QUALITY IN RESTAURANT SERVICES

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate service quality dimensions in restaurant services. The study examines the influence of the service dimensions on customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions within the restaurant context in an island economy. Factor analysis was performed to determine dimensions that are likely to influence customers' restaurant service evaluations. Based on the analyses, three distinct dimensions were identified by the customers, "Food Quality-Reliability", "Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy" and "Tangibles". Multiple regression analyses were then employed to examine the relative importance of the three service dimensions in determining satisfaction judgments and customers' behavioral intentions. The results support the links between service quality dimensions, satisfaction and behavioral intentions respectively. The findings are expected to help the owners of restaurants to address the gaps and improve satisfaction rate of their customers, thereby bringing about repeat business and improving profits.

JEL: M31

KEYWORDS: Service quality, Customer satisfaction, Behavioral intentions, Restaurant

INTRODUCTION

Delivering high quality service is important for the success of organisations so that they can survive and strengthen their competitiveness. The restaurant industry has not been exempted from either increased competition or customer demand for high service quality. Nowadays, customers have a wide range of restaurant services to choose from and service quality conditions indeed influence a restaurant competitive advantage (Bojanic & Rosen, 1994; Soriano, 2002; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Chow *et al.*, 2007). Since service quality is an important factor for restaurants, research related to service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the restaurant industry has been growing. However, most of the research studies were focused on the United States (US), Hong Kong, China, Korea and Europe (Stevens, Knutson & Patton, 1995; Oh, 2000; Kivela, Inbakaran & Reece, 1999, 2000; Soriano, 2002; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Chow *et al.*, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2009) and very few, if any research has been undertaken to measure service quality of restaurants in an island. Therefore, an understanding of the factors that influence service quality ought to be useful in guiding restaurant owners and managers to design and deliver the right offering to the customers. The trend of globalization has fostered the introduction of a number of foreign chain restaurants into the Mauritian market place, a small developing island in the Indian Ocean.

The restaurant industry is one of the fastest growing industries within the island and is likely to continue its development into the future. This growth is also attributed to the development of the tourism sector as well as socio-cultural and economic changes which are influencing the eating habits of local consumers. Consequently there is an increase in the frequency of Mauritians dining outside the home. Changes in local eating behaviour, increased product knowledge and competition have forced the restaurants to improve their product offerings as well as their level of service. Therefore, it is deemed important to

explore this industry in terms of service delivery as well as food quality. The aim of this study is to identify the key service quality dimensions that affect customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions in restaurant services in an island.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The fundamental factors that contribute to customer satisfaction in restaurants include food quality (hygiene, balance, and healthiness), service quality, physical provision (layout, furnishing, and cleanliness), atmosphere (feeling and comfort), and service received (speed, friendliness, and care) during the dining experience (Jones, 1983; Johns & Pine, 2002), which in turn determines customers behavioral intentions toward the restaurants. Therefore it is important to identify the factors that affect dining experiences.

Service Quality

The service literature has demonstrated that customers are becoming increasingly sensitive to service elements and the overall quality of service offered by an organization (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988). Various researchers have developed alternative concepts for service quality, like the Nordics (Grönroos, 1984, 1988; Lehtinen & Lehtinen, 1991) and the American schools of thought (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988). The work of Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) has led to the identification of a service quality measurement tool, SERVQUAL. It is one of the most widely used instruments as it aims to help service managers diagnose and improve the quality of services under their control. The model on which SERVQUAL is based proposes that customers evaluate the quality of a service across five distinct dimensions as follows: Reliability – ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately; Responsiveness – willingness to help customers and provide prompt service; Assurance – knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence; Empathy – caring, individualized attention the firm provides to its customers; Tangibles – appearance of physical facilities, equipment, appearance of personnel, and communication materials. The SERVQUAL scales comprises of 22 questions measuring expectations and 22 questions measuring perceptions. Customers evaluate the quality of services provided by organisations based on the discrepancy among expectations and perceptions (Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988).

Although the SERVQUAL instrument has been widely used in various settings (Fick & Ritchie, 1991; Saleh & Ryan, 1992; Jabnoun & Al-Tamimi, 2003; Tan & Kek, 2004; Arasli *et al.*, 2008), it has been subjected to a number of criticisms regarding its operationalisation of expectations, the reliability and validity of the gap score formulation and the difficulty in replicating its dimensions (Carman, 1990; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Teas, 1993; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Sureshchandar, Rajendran & Kamalanabhan, 2001). Babakus & Boller (1992) suggest that the dimensionality of service quality may vary depending on the type of service sector under investigation. Similarly, Becker *et al.* (1999) contend that the five-dimensional model does not adequately identify the characteristics most critical to successful service delivery in the hospitality setting. Cronin & Taylor (1994) argue that there is no real evidence to support the concept of performance minus expectations gap as a basis for measuring service quality. In addition, the use of expectation and performance statements may be too time consuming to administer (Carman, 1990; Babakus & Boller, 1992). It has also been argued that the performance-only measure (SERVPERF) explains more of the variance in an overall measure of service quality than the SERVQUAL instrument (Bolton & Drew, 1991; Cronin & Taylor, 1994; Yüksel & Rimmington, 1998). SERVPERF maintains the original 22 items of SERVQUAL but measures perceptions of performance

only instead of measuring both expectations and performance and has been empirically validated in banking, pest control, dry cleaning, fast food, advertising and dental service (Cronin & Taylor, 1992, 1994; Quester & Romaniuk, 1997).

Customer Satisfaction And Behavioral Intentions

Customer satisfaction has been of great interest in services marketing because satisfaction links purchase/consumption to post-purchase phenomena such as attitude change, repeat purchase, positive word-of-mouth, and loyalty (Oliver, 1994; Fornell *et al.*, 1996; Oliver, 1997). Customer satisfaction is defined as a judgment made on the basis of a specific service encounter (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Several major questions have emerged in the literature such as the relationship between service quality and satisfaction (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988; Cronin & Taylor, 1992) and the relationship between satisfaction and future intentions of customers (McDougall & Levesque, 2000). Thus satisfaction judgments are seen as moderating the quality attitude and purchase intention relationship (Taylor & Baker, 1994; Mattila, 2000), indicating the need to investigate satisfaction and perceived service quality as two separate constructs. Behavioral intentions are one of the important goals in the service marketing community as it is a key component for an organization's long-term viability or sustainability. According to Zeithaml *et al.* (1996), favorable behavioral intentions are associated with a service provider's ability to get its customers to say positive things about them, recommend them to other customers, remain loyal to them, spend more with the company and pay price premiums. Previous studies have used one or more of these five proposed constructs to examine the outcomes of quality (Oh, 1999; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kim *et al.*, 2008; Han *et al.*, 2009) and satisfaction (Spreng & Mackoy, 1996).

FACTORS INFLUENCING RESTAURANT SERVICES

According to Susskind and Chan (2000), three components contribute to overall customer satisfaction with the restaurant: good food, good service and a pleasant setting. Kalra (2001) explains that dining out has become an integral part of customers' lifestyle, thus experienced customers have raised their expectations with regard to quality, good service, well-cooked food and no dirty interiors, while seeking a better value for their money. Several researchers have attempted to test the SERVQUAL framework in measuring customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry. Bojanic & Rosen (1994) used the SERVQUAL instrument in a chain restaurant with a diverse clientele in Columbia, South Carolina and a varied menu that included international items. Six dimensions were used as "Empathy" was divided into two dimensions: knowing the customer and access to services.

The results identified dimensions similar to those in Parasuraman *et al.*'s (1988) SERVQUAL instrument, "Knowing the customer", "Reliability", and "Assurance" were the most significant in predicting overall restaurant quality; the other three dimensions were not important predictors of overall quality. Lee & Hing (1995) assessed the usefulness and applicability of the SERVQUAL instrument in the restaurant industry to measure and compare patrons' perceived service quality at a French and a Chinese restaurant in Australia. The results revealed that the customers' highest expectations of service quality involved "Assurance" and "Reliability", while their lowest expectations were related to "Tangibles". Oubre & Brown (2009) examined the relationship between customer, wait staff and manager perceptions in fine dining restaurants and "Reliability" was found to be the most important dimension, followed by "Tangibles", "Assurance", "Responsiveness", and "Empathy". In an effort to adapt SERVQUAL to the restaurant industry, Stevens *et al.* (1995) developed the DINESERV instrument. The final version of DINESERV consisted of 29 items that captured the five dimensions of SERVQUAL. Kim *et al.* (2003)

conducted a study to validate five dimensions of the DINESERV instrument in Korean casual dining restaurants and explored any possible differences in perceived service quality of those restaurants.

Other studies on customer expectations and service quality perceptions in the restaurant industry have revealed certain important attributes, such as low price, food quality (food taste and nutrition properties), value for money, service, location, brand name, and image (Pettijohn *et al.*, 1997; Johns & Howard, 1998). Sulek & Hensley (2004) investigated the relative importance of food, physical setting, and service in a full-service restaurant and food quality was found to be the most important factor influencing satisfaction and the only factor predicting behavioral intention. Namkung & Jang (2007) evaluated the relationships of individual attributes that constitute food quality (e.g. food presentation, menu variety, healthy options, taste, food freshness and temperature) with customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. The findings revealed that food presentation, taste and temperature were significantly related to customer satisfaction whereas food presentation, taste and healthy options (instead of temperature) were significant predictors of behavioral intention.

The tangibles represent the restaurant's physical attributes, which are usually noticed first by customers when they enter the restaurant. Yüksel & Yüksel (2002) examined tourist satisfaction with restaurant services and their study revealed that "service environment" such as seating arrangements, music decoration, is the critical determinant in shaping customers' behavior. A recent study undertaken by Chow *et al.* (2007) investigating restaurant services in the Chinese context reveals that interaction with staff and the physical environment are the more important than the outcome quality in predicting service quality for restaurant customers. Similarly, Ryu & Jang (2007) explored the combined effect of atmospheric variables on behavioral intentions in upscale restaurants. Their findings revealed that ambience (e.g. music, aroma and temperature) and employee appearance had the most important influence on customers' emotional responses, which in turn affected customers' post-dining behavioral intentions. In their investigation, Han & Ryu (2009) findings suggest that a restaurant firm should carefully design the physical environment to improve the customer's perceived reasonableness of the price. The authors further indicated that creative use of physical design in a restaurant operation would be essential in enhancing specific marketing objectives such as positive customer perception of quality, positive evaluation of experience, and positive attitudes.

Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction And Behavioral Intentions

In the restaurant industry, service quality has been found to be important in influencing both customer satisfaction and return intention (Qu, 1997; Pettijohn *et al.*, 1997; Oh, 2000; Ladhari *et al.*, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2009). While there is no guarantee that a satisfied customer will be a repeat customer, it is most likely that a dissatisfied customer will not return (Soriano, 2002). Therefore customer satisfaction is imperative for service organizations because of the positive correlation it has with future attitudes, intentions and behaviors of customers (Taylor & Baker, 1994; Mattila, 2000). Even though behavioral intentions and customer satisfaction are not the same, they are related because the outcome of satisfaction may reinforce a customer's decision to use a particular brand of service on a given occasion (Oliver, 1980; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). According to Zeithaml *et al.* (1996), behavioral intentions can be measured by repurchase intentions, word-of-mouth, loyalty, complaining behavior and price sensitivity.

Studies have also shown that when customers perceive poor service quality and when dissatisfaction is felt, the customers are likely to complain about the service and engage in negative word-of-mouth (Richins, 1983; Singh, 1990). Thus customer satisfaction is often used to predict the likelihood of

customers returning to a service organization. Previous studies have shown that customer satisfaction is important to food service managers because it leads to repeat patronage, brand loyalty, and new customers through word-of-mouth promotion (Oh, 2000; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002). According to Gupta *et al.* (2007), the link between customer satisfaction and repeat buying is an important contributor to a restaurant's profits. Hence studies investigating these links have been numerous and the literature reveals evidence of strong relationships between customer satisfaction with various restaurant attributes and repeat-purchase intentions (Stevens *et al.*, 1995; Pettijohn *et al.*, 1997; Kivela *et al.*, 1999; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Söderlund & Öhman, 2005; Cheng, 2005). Other studies have established the relationships between service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions, namely intention to return and to recommend. Qu (1997) found that food quality in Chinese restaurants was the most important determinants of customer's decision to return, followed by cleanliness, value, price and convenience, which ranked second, third, fourth and fifth, respectively. Namkung & Jang (2008) also investigated how food quality is perceived in relation to satisfaction and behavioral intentions in mid-to upscale restaurants. Their study showed that overall food quality significantly affected customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions and also revealed that the relationship between food quality and customer behavioral intentions was mediated by satisfaction. Ladhari *et al.* (2008) investigated determinants of dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioral intentions, and concluded that perceived service quality influenced customer satisfaction through both positive and negative emotions.

Based on the literature review, this study investigated customers' perceptions of restaurants in an island economy terms of food related attributes, service-related attributes and atmosphere-related attributes, and identified the key attributes affecting customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Hence, the following hypotheses have been developed:

H₁: A positive relationship exists between perceived service quality dimensions and satisfaction.

H₂: Customer satisfaction and perceived service quality positively influence intention to revisit.

H₃: Customer satisfaction and perceived service quality positively influence intention to recommend.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Based on a thorough literature review, a self-administered questionnaire was developed. The survey instrument composed of three sections measuring service quality perceptions, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions, and demographic variables. The first section measured customers' perceptions of restaurant service quality. This section adopted statements from the SERVPERF model (Cronin & Taylor, 1992) and on previous research findings in the food service sector (Stevens *et al.*, 1995; Kivela *et al.*, 1999; Raajpoot, 2002). Some modifications were made to the SERVPERF items in order to suit the context of restaurant with added items related to food quality. These added items were thought to be important to customers' dining experience, namely availability of fresh food, well-presented food and taste of food. The modified SERVPERF instrument thus consisted of 6 dimensions and 25 statements instead of 22 statements. The 25 service quality statements were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" to "5 = strongly agree".

The second section of the survey instrument assessed customers' overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Overall customer satisfaction is measured using two items: Overall, how satisfied are you with the restaurant? (from "1 = very dissatisfied" to "5 = very satisfied") and I am happy about my decision to

use this restaurant services (from “1 = strongly disagree” to 5 = strongly agree”). This study focused on revisit intentions and willingness to recommend as specific forms of behavioral intentions. Two items, which were taken from Zeithaml *et al.* (1996), were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). In the third section, respondents’ socio-demographic characteristics, such as age and gender, were gathered. Using convenience sampling technique, customers willing to participate in the survey were approached after they had finished their dinner and were waiting to pay the bill in three restaurants in Port-Louis, the capital of the island. The restaurants characterised in this study comprised of a dining experience which provides a wide range of items from appetizers to deserts with a themed setting. The restaurants further provide professional service, distinctive presentations, elegant décor, exceptional food, and generates the average check of above US\$15 per person. The survey was carried out over a 7-day period throughout four weeks. A total of 350 questionnaires were given to the customers in the restaurants, requesting them to evaluate their dining experience by filling in the survey. Of these, 318 questionnaires were returned and in all, 296 questionnaires were found usable for the study, which represents a 85% response rate from the original sample of 350.

SPSS 16.0 for windows was employed in order to access the particular results required for the scale measurement. Descriptive analysis such as means, standard deviation and frequencies are calculated. Reliability of the scale is tested and dimensionality of the scale is confirmed through an exploratory factor analysis. Multiple regression analyses were employed to measure the influence of the service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

RESULTS

The results of descriptive analysis for demographic information indicated that among the analyzed samples ($n = 296$), 52% of the respondents were female, with 48% being male. In terms of age group, the ages of the respondents ranged from 20- above 60 years old, with the majority of respondents falling between the age group of “30-39” (45%), followed by the age group “40-49” (23%), “20-29” (14.5%), “> 60” (13.5%) and “50-59” (3.7%). About 78% of the respondents were working people, followed by 13% were students and 9% were retired. On the frequency of their patronage to the restaurant at which they were surveyed, 2.5% ate at the restaurant at least once in 15 days, 84.6% ate at the restaurant at least once per month and only 12.9% visited the restaurant for the first time.

Reliability And Dimensionality Of The Scale

A factor analysis using varimax rotation was employed on the 25 items to explore the dimensionality in the data set. The Bartlett test of sphericity was significant (Chi-square = 1201.772, $p < 0.000$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was computed to quantify the degree of intercorrelations among the variables, and the results indicate an index of 0.788. A factor loading cut-off of 0.5 for retaining items in the factor analysis is used and only factors with an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1 were retained (Hair *et al.*, 1995). After analyzing the data, 18 items were reduced under three factors, which explained 67.7% of the total variance. The average communality of the variables was above 0.5, which indicates that the variance of the original values was captured fairly well by three factors (Table 1). The results failed to identify Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) five service quality dimensions. “Tangibles” (1 to 4) was the only SERVQUAL dimension that remained unchanged in this confirmatory analysis. The “Food Quality” and “Reliability” items loaded onto the same dimension and items that represented SERVQUAL’s “Responsiveness”, “Assurance” and “Empathy” dimensions were grouped

together as one dimension. This indicates that the customers view “Food Quality and Reliability” as one dimension and “Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy” as a single dimension and not three separate ones. The items for each subscale were subjected to reliability analysis and the alpha coefficient for the total scale was 0.77 and 0.66, 0.62 and 0.6 respectively for the dimensions “Tangibles”, “Food Quality-Reliability” and “Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy”.

According to Nunnally (1994) reliability coefficients greater than or equal to 0.50 are considered sufficient for exploratory studies. Given the increasing importance of the restaurant market, restaurant operators need to know how customers perceive restaurant service quality. In this study, a modified SERVPERF instrument was used to investigate customers’ perceptions of restaurant service quality and the results revealed three dimensions. Parasuraman *et al.* (1991) found a large interrelationship among SERVQUAL’s five dimensions, especially “responsiveness, assurance, and empathy, implying that one factor is the antecedent for another. So for customers, Responsiveness might be an antecedent of Assurance and Empathy suggesting that staff in the restaurants need to provide prompt service to customers (Responsiveness) for staff knowledge to be appreciated (Assurance) and thus demonstrating that they care for their customers (Empathy).

Table 1: Results of Factor Analysis

Factors and Items	F1	F2	F3	Communality
Tangibles				
Comfort and cleanliness of the dining area	0.73			0.638
Visual attractiveness of the building and dining areas	0.60			0.677
Neat and well groomed staff	0.62			0.551
Attractive and readable menu	0.65			0.506
Food Quality				
The food are fresh and well presented		0.72		0.669
Taste of food		0.73		0.622
The restaurant offers a variety of menu items		0.70		0.557
Reliability				
Sincere interest in correcting anything that is wrong		0.67		0.790
Provide accurate bills to customers		0.53		0.623
Serve customers in the time promised		0.66		0.667
Serve customer’s food exactly as it was ordered		0.63		0.684
Responsiveness				
Provide prompt and quick service			0.61	0.605
Give extra effort to handle customer’s special requests			0.77	0.735
Assurance				
Consistently courteous with customers			0.81	0.724
Have the knowledge to answer customers’ questions such as menu items, their ingredients, and methods of preparations			0.70	0.563
Make customers feel safe with the service and food			0.64	0.667
Empathy				
Have customer’s best interests at heart			0.79	0.664
Give customers personal attention			0.61	0.629
Understand customer’s specific needs and wants			0.77	0.638
Total variance explained				
% of variance explained	30.4	19.5	17.8	67.7
Eigenvalue	6.7	4.49	1.34	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO-MSA): 0.788; Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity = 1201.772; $p < 0.01$				

Table 1 displays the factor loadings, eigenvalues, Cronbach’s alpha and descriptive statistics for the items under evaluation.

The Restaurant dimensions

Table 2 shows the mean scores and t-tests for the three restaurant dimensions found in the study. This result indicates that customers are generally unhappy with the overall service quality and all the dimensions of the instrument. The findings show that among the 3 factors, customers are most satisfied

with “Tangibles” while they are less satisfied with “Food Quality-Reliability” and “Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy dimensions.

Table 2: Mean scores and t-test results for the restaurant dimensions

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value
Tangibles	3.66	0.77	81.51
Food Quality-Reliability	3.32	0.75	76.03
Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy	3.29	0.65	87.47
Overall service	3.09	1.21	44.02

note: significant at $p < 1\%$ table 2 shows the overall mean scores for the restaurant service quality

REGRESSION ANALYSES

Based on the new factors derived from the analysis, multiple regression analyses were used to determine the relative importance of service quality characteristics in predicting overall customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions. In identifying those significant variables accounting for customers' satisfaction, it is found that three service quality dimensions have a significant influence on satisfaction. The adjusted R^2 of this model is 0.57, which indicates that 57% of the variation in customer satisfaction was explained by the three dimensions. The significant F-ratio ($F = 85.68$, $p = 0.001$) indicates that the results of the regression model could hardly have occurred by chance. Thus, the goodness-of-fit of the model is satisfactory. Only two of the three dimensions (food quality-reliability and responsiveness-assurance-empathy) significantly and positively influenced satisfaction among the restaurant customers. Based on the beta coefficient of each independent variable, it is possible to assess the impact of each variable on the dependent variable, satisfaction. According to Table 3, the variable “food quality-reliability” was the most important determinant of customers' satisfaction; it had the highest standardized coefficient value, 0.39, and the highest t-value, 6.85, followed by Responsiveness-assurance-empathy with $\beta = 0.19$. Thus H_1 is partially supported.

Table 3: Predicting Customer Satisfaction

Dimensions	b-value	Beta	t-value
Tangibles	0.11	0.12	2.33
Food Quality-Reliability	0.52	0.39	6.85*
Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy	0.26	0.19	3.34*
$R^2 = 0.57$; $F = 85.68$, $p = 0.001$; * $p < 0.01$			

Table 3 shows the regression results measuring the dependent variable “customer satisfaction” on the restaurant services

Separate regression analysis was conducted to investigate the influence of the service quality dimensions and overall satisfaction on revisit intention of the restaurant customers and willingness to recommend the restaurant to others. Table 4 provides the results of the regression analysis with intention to revisit as the dependent variable. Approximately 30% of the revisit intention depends on satisfaction and food quality-reliability. Tangibles and responsiveness-assurance-empathy were not statistically significant in predicting revisit intention. Food quality – reliability was found to be more important and exerted a greater influence on intention to revisit than on satisfaction. Thus, H_2 is partially supported.

For intention to recommend, service quality and satisfaction explained 48% of the variability with the exception of responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy which was not statistically significant. Thus, satisfaction, tangibles and food quality-reliability dimensions were significantly and positively related to intention to recommend. The dimension “Food Quality-Reliability” was once more the most critical

dimension in predicting customer behavioral intentions because it had the largest beta values and is consistent with the previous finding when customer satisfaction was used as criterion variable. Therefore, H3 is partially supported.

Table 4: Predicting Intention to Return

Dimensions	b-value	Beta	t-value
Satisfaction	0.332	0.176	2.645*
Tangibles	0.114	0.075	1.271
Food Quality-Reliability	0.271	0.267	4.453**
Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy	-0.038	-0.021	-0.341
R ² = 0.30; F = 43.77, p = 00.000; * p < 0.01; ** p < 0.05			

Table 4 shows the regression results measuring the dependent variable "intention to return" on restaurant services

Table 5: Predicting Intention to Recommend

Dimensions	b-value	Beta	t-value
Satisfaction	0.376	0.152	2.388*
Tangibles	0.285	0.176	3.097**
Food Quality-Reliability	0.253	0.281	4.883**
Responsiveness-Assurance-Empathy	0.076	0.039	0.652
R ² = 0.48; F = 68.74, p = 0.000; * p < 0.01; ** p < 0.05			

Table 5 shows the regression results measuring the dependent variable "intention to recommend" on restaurant services

Customer satisfaction had a positive influence on behavioral intentions. This finding suggests that satisfied customers will result in customers dining at the restaurant again in the future and recommending the restaurant to others.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study used a modified SERVPERF instrument to investigate customers' perceptions of restaurant service quality and three dimensions for the customers' restaurant market were found. Among Parasuraman *et al.*'s (1988) five dimensions, only "Tangibles" remained in the new model; "Food quality" and "Reliability" were merged into a second dimension, and "Responsiveness", "Assurance" and "Empathy" were grouped into a third dimension. It seems that customers perceive "Food quality and reliability", which are related to the speed and accuracy of service, as one dimension and "Responsiveness, assurance and empathy", which concern how individuals' needs are perceived, as one dimension. The results of this study further suggest that the "Food quality-reliability" dimension was the strongest predictor of customer satisfaction as well as repeat purchase intention and willingness to recommend. These aspects of quality are judged to be more important in the minds of the Mauritian customers, and thus will be the key determinants of customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. This result partially is consistent with the previous findings of Pettijohn *et al.* (1997), Sulek & Hensley (2004) and Kim *et al.* (2009) that food quality dimension positively influences satisfaction and behavioral intentions. When analyzing customer satisfaction with likelihood of repeat patronage and intention to recommend, the results showed that customer satisfaction is significantly related to both. The findings are in line with the previous results of Ranaweera & Prabhu (2003).

The success of restaurant businesses relies on providing superior service quality, value, and customer satisfaction, which in turn enhances customer behavioral intentions. The customer's post-dining decision whether to return or not to return to the restaurant is the moment of final truth for the restaurant manager.

It is important for restaurant operators to pay more attention to providing friendly services that makes customers feel valued and cared for. Improving service quality will not only strengthen customer loyalty, but also improve the restaurant's reputation, and result in more sales and greater revenue in the long term.

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AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF COMPANY SURVIVAL/RECOVERY AFTER CORPORATE ACCOUNTING MALFEASANCE

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ABSTRACT

This study examines corporate survival/recovery after corporate accounting malfeasance from an exploratory and empirical perspective utilizing 100 companies known to have committed corporate malfeasance from a previous study and the related matching non-malfeasance companies to whom they were compared in that study to see if the survival/recovery for the malfeasance companies fared any different than the non-malfeasance companies. This study will examine the current status of the companies relative to where they were during the time of the announce malfeasance from a bankruptcy, merger, market value (stock price increase or decrease) or accounting value (book value) change perspective, including whether there have been subsequent announced malfeasance for any of the companies in the previous study.

The research contributes to contemporary accounting literature by providing survival/recovery information for companies with announced malfeasance.

AN INVESTIGATION OF USERS' CONTINUOUS USE INTENTION OF E-LEARNING SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

While there have been broad examinations into the customer psychology and resulting individual's behavior, its implications for e-learning system usage were still disappointingly understood. Identifying with consumers' intentions to keep using the e-learning systems, however, has become a priority for practical executives as more and more enterprises have invested in this rapidly growing market. Past studies suggested that individuals who were likely to be more innovative in accepting new technologies tend to use the e-learning systems more often. However, these findings may be biased as they have solely examined single trait of innovativeness and its impact on individual users only. The current study has offered a different perspective by proposing three propositions base on a theoretical framework to demonstrate the diverse impacts of individuals' mental traits of innovativeness and involvement on their decision to utilize the e-learning systems. Base on the discussions, more-involved individuals who may not be highly interested in adopting new systems may in fact utilize the e-learning system more frequently than those who are highly innovative in accepting new systems. By pinpointing the mental traits of heavy users of the e-learning system, this study helps executives to redesign their marketing tactics of e-learning systems.

KEYWORD: innovativeness, involvement, e-learning system

RESIDUAL INCOME VS. DISCOUNTED CASH FLOW VALUATION MODELS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Valuation plays a central role in the financing, investing and operating decisions of companies and many methods are employed to approximate the true value of a company. Although these techniques are based on similar theory, they may generate different results in application. This study incorporates a case study approach to compare the outcomes of two different methods: residual income (RI) and discounted cash flow (DCF) valuation models. The aim of this study is to contribute to the understanding of why these two valuation techniques, although similar in theory, generate different results when applied to real life companies. There are a number of studies that compare these two methods theoretically. Some studies claim the superiority of one method over the other and some argue that these two methods should yield the same results when applied properly. In this study, the RI and DCF models are applied to nine Turkish companies and the results are compared. We have obtained the data for the study with site visits to the companies and with the help of the managements of the companies.

JEL: G32

KEYWORDS: Valuation, Residual Income Model, Discounted Cash Flow Model, Accounting Based Valuation, Case Study, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Valuation has been an important topic of finance research for a long time. The estimation of the true value of a business firm challenged academicians as well as practitioners, company owners, managers, and consulting firms in the past and it will most likely continue to be a challenging issue in the future. Companies need their equities valued for various reasons such as borrowing, initial public offering, and merging or being acquired. Valuation is of growing importance especially in emerging countries, such as Turkey, which is a country with a growing economy and with a lot of attraction for foreign investments.

The valuation models can be classified into three categories, which can be associated with the income, market, and cost approaches, respectively: discounted cash flow valuation, relative valuation, and contingent claim valuation. There is also a fourth category usually added to these three categories, accounting based valuation (Bertoncel, 2006). Each approach embodies different models and these models often produce significantly different values (Damodaran, 2002). The most widely used model among these is the discounted cash flow valuation model.

The aim of the discounted cash flow models is to approximate intrinsic value and the main principle of the models is to find the present value of the future expected cash flows on an asset. To find the present value of an asset the models require the knowledge of the life of the asset, expected annual cash flows over the life of the asset, and an appropriate discount rate as inputs. Based on empirical evidence, these models can be found to work best when the cash flows produced by an asset is positive (Damodaran, 2002). Relative valuation depends on finding similar assets that are priced in a market, determining a

standardized price through multiples, and controlling for the differences between the asset being valued and the similar assets (Damodaran, 2005). Contingent claim valuation is based on option pricing, which regards the asset subject to valuation as a real option and uses option pricing techniques to find the value of it. This model is found to be most useful for the companies in trouble or companies with intensive research and development but with no cash inflows. Accounting based valuation focuses on asset based valuation, and the emphasis is on book value (Damodaran, 2005).

The two methods that are compared in this study are the discounted cash flow valuation model and the residual income model, which is a model of a hybrid approach including insights from both the income approach and the cost approach. The residual income model includes in the value of a company not only the discounted future abnormal earnings but also the book value of the company as of the valuation day. These two models are the most examined and compared models to one another. The strength of the discounted cash flow models lies in its corporate finance roots, emphasizing cash flows. Moreover, practical books on valuation assert that cash flows dominate accounting earnings and, therefore, the discounted cash flow valuation model is preferred over accounting based models (AAA FASC, 2001). However, there is also evidence that support the accuracy of the residual income model.

Ohlson (1995) develops a residual income model where he provides a framework of how market value is related to three accounting data: earnings, book value, and dividends. The model developed in his paper relies on the clean surplus relationship: The change in the book value equals earnings minus dividends net of capital contributions. The first paper to mention this relation was Preinreich (1938) where the author states “Capital value equals book value plus the excess profits.” Lundholm (1995) claims that this notion was largely ignored in the literature since then and its revival is a major contribution to financial accounting literature.

The objective of this paper is to study the reasons behind the different results obtained by two different valuation models by applying the discounted cash flow and residual income models to real life companies. In the next section, we review the empirical literature on the discounted cash flow and residual income methods. The data and methodology of the paper are explained in the section that follows. We present our research results in the section titled “empirical findings.” The last section concludes the paper.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature is rich in papers examining the accuracy of the residual income model and questioning the superiority of the discounted cash flow model over the residual income model. One of the earliest empirical studies on accounting based valuation models is by Bernard (1995). He estimates the intrinsic value for a large sample of firms during the 1978-1993 period to demonstrate the validity of the model over short horizons. The study states that the model explains, on average, 68 per cent of the cross-sectional variation in share prices. The author prefers the model for its accuracy and for its reliance on earnings and book value predictions over relatively short time periods as compared with the longer time periods needed in the discounted cash flow models (AAA FASC, 2001). Another study by Lee et al. (1999) estimates the intrinsic value of the Dow Jones Industrial Average over the period from 1963 to 1996 using the residual income model. The estimates of intrinsic value in the study predict both the future value of the index and the future stock returns to the index. Based on the results of the study, the authors support the use of the residual income model over other valuation models.

One of the papers that support the superiority of accounting earnings over cash flows is a study by Penman and Sougiannis (1998). The authors claim that accrual accounting overcomes a shortcoming of the discounted cash flow models. That shortcoming is that the discounted cash flow models subtract capital investments from operating cash flows to estimate free cash flows, and for some companies this may cause negative free cash flows for many years. Accounting-based valuation models do not fall prone to this shortcoming because they place these investments on the statement of financial position and match the cost of these investments against inflows generated from them through depreciation allocations. However, Lundholm and O'Keefe (2001) state that these two models are derived from the same underlying assumption and the differences in their outcomes imply the difficulty of applying the same input assumptions to different models and conclude that neither of the models is superior to the other.) In response to this paper Penman and Sougiannis (1998) state that "the empirical papers dismissed by Lundholm and O'Keefe provide evindece that GAAP accrual accounting has advantages over cash accounting" and "...the partitioning in Penman and Sougiannis (1998) identifies cases where GAAP accounting performs relatively better (and worse)."

Another advantage of the residual income model, and accounting based valuation models in general, is that the discounted cash flow valuation models require burdensome efforts to convert accounting measures into cash flows whereas different accounting choices on conservatism, expensing or capitalizing research and development costs, and different depreciation methods, do not affect the computation of value as long as the clean surplus relationship applies (AAA FASC, 2001).

Penman and Sougiannis (1998) compare the dividend discount, discounted cash flow, and residual income models using actual realizations of dividends, free cash flows, and earnings. They report that the residual income model yields smaller valuation errors, as measured against current stock prices, than either of the other two models.

Francis et al. (2000) state that the greater accuracy of the residual income model can be due to the sufficiency of book value of equity as a measure of intrinsic value and also because the predictability and precision of abnormal earnings are greater. In their paper, the authors compare the accuracy of the dividend discount model, the residual income model, and the discounted cash flow valuation model and find that the residual income model explains about 71 per cent of the cross-sectional variation in stock prices. According to the tests the residual income model significantly outperforms the dividend discount and the discounted cash flow valuation models.

There are other studies in the literature that claim that the residual income model is not superior in explanatory power over other models. Dechow et al. (1999) test the residual income model on a large sample of firms using analysts' earnings forecasts. They show that a simple valuation model, which capitalizes analysts' short-term earnings forecasts in perpetuity, provides greater explanatory power for current stock prices than does the residual income model. The authors do not advocate the superiority of earnings capitalization approach to other valuation models, but they only state that this simple benchmark model outperforms the residual income model in explaining current stock prices.

Most of the studies conducted use large samples of firms and provide average results across firms or through time. Kaplan and Ruback (1995) examine the accuracy of the models at the firm level. In their study, the authors compare the accuracy of the discounted cash flow model with the method of multiples in valuing 51 highly leveraged transactions during the 1983-1989 period and conclude that the discounted

cash flow valuations based on management forecasts of cash flows are within 10 per cent of the realized transaction value and superior to the multiples approach.

Accounting academicians mostly prefer residual income methodology because of its direct relation to earnings and book values that are central concepts in accrual accounting whereas discounted cash flow valuation has its roots in finance theory (AAA FASC, 2001).

The studies mentioned above, and many others, claim either the superiority of the residual income model over the other valuation models such as the dividend discount model, and the discounted cash flow model, or vice versa, in explaining stock prices and stock returns. The issue is still controversial. Most studies that claim that the residual income model is a better alternative than the other valuation models use sample firms with multiyear security analysts' forecasts of both earnings and dividends. Most studies use current stock price as the benchmark to evaluate the explanatory power of the valuation models assuming that stock prices reflect intrinsic value (AAA FASC, 2001).

The goal of this study is to contribute to the understanding of the differing outcomes observed under the residual income and discounted cash flow valuation models by applying them to nine Turkish companies.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In order to compare the discounted cash flow and residual income models on an empirical basis, nine Turkish companies from different sectors are valued using the two models. Some descriptive information for the companies is provided in Table 1. Each valuation process included an industry analysis and a general examination of the company. Information about the operating procedures of the companies is obtained through site visits and meetings with company officials. The forecasts regarding future sales and working capital requirements, used in the valuation process, are discussed with the managements of the companies. Information about future capital investment projects, capital structure and dividend policies are the most realistic estimations made by the managers. The companies were provided with a valuation report at the end of the process. The details about the valuation process are held confidential since the companies did not grant permission for their being published.

Table 1: Descriptive Information about the Nine Companies Included in the Study.

Company	Shareholders' Equity as of Last Year (million USD)	Total Sales Revenue for the Last Year (million USD)
Textile Retailer	0.25	16.17
Hygienec Products Manufacturer	6.04	5.57
Textile Manufacturer	15.19	13.30
Energy Manufacturer	254.88	54.42
Metal Products Manufacturer	25.60	61.19
Metal Products Wholesaler	7.89	23.81
Construction Material Assembler	0.68	3.73
Construction Project Designer	0.16	0.72
Chemical Products Retailer	2.84	1.90

Table 2 presents the discount rates used under the discounted cash flow and residual income models. Since the discounted cash flow model uses free cash flows to firm, the appropriate discount rate is the firm's weighted average cost of capital. Since the residual income model uses net income to calculate excess returns, the appropriate discount rate is the firm's cost of equity.

Table 2: Cost of Equity and Weighted Average Cost of Capital Statistics for the Nine Companies Included in the Study.

Company	Cost of Equity	Weighted Average Cost of Capital
Textile Retailer	16%	15.00%
Hygienec Products Manufacturer	9%	9.00%
Textile Manufacturer	15%	15.00%
Energy Manufacturer	12.6%	11.00%
Metal Products Manufacturer	13.14%	11.99%
Metal Products Wholesaler	13.16%	12.00%
Construction Material Assembler	15.74%	15.74%
Construction Project Designer	15.60%	14.3%
Chemical Products Retailer	15.00%	11.00%

The Discounted Cash Flow Model

The assumption on which the discounted cash flow models are based is that the reason behind the purchase of an asset is the anticipation of collecting cash inflows from that asset in the future. Thus, in discounted cash flow valuation, the value of an asset is determined by discounting the future expected cash flows to that asset at an appropriate discount rate that reflects the riskiness involved in these cash flows (Damadoran, 2005). The discounted cash flow model can be applied in different ways. The model applied in this study values the company as a whole by discounting the free cash flows of the company using the weighted average cost of capital as the discount rate and then subtracting the value of non-equity stake from the value of the company to reach the value of equity. The value of the company can be expressed as the sum of the expected cash flows from year one to infinity discounted at the weighted average cost of capital employed in the company.

The expected free cash flow to a firm in a given year is calculated by using the following formula:

Free cash flow to firm = After-tax operating income – (Capital expenditures – Depreciation) – Change in non-cash working capital.

For each of the nine companies a forecast period is selected, after consulting with the company managers, and detailed cash flow forecasts are made for that period. After the forecast period, a steady growth is assumed to perpetuity. The discount rate used is the weighted average cost of capital. The cost of equity component of the discount rate is calculated using the market model.

The Residual Income Model

Ohlson (1995) develops a residual income model. The model relies on capital budgeting techniques and the net present value rule. The model assumes that a project has value only if it has a net present value meaning that the return on capital invested must exceed the cost of capital invested. Excess return models, in general, use this principle and they state the value of a company in two components: the book value of the capital invested and the present value of the excess returns on the capital invested. The model used in this study can be stated as follows:

Value of Equity = Book Value of Equity + Sum of the expected residual incomes in perpetuity discounted at the cost of equity capital employed in the company

Residual income is expressed as the net income minus the capital charge for each year. Discounting the residual incomes with the cost of equity and adding it to the book value of current equity gives the value of equity according to the residual income model. The book value of equity for each of the years in forecast period is estimated depending on the clean surplus relationship; that is, book value of equity changes depend on the net income of the period and the dividends distributed during a period.

As is the case for the discounted cash flow methodology, the forecasts in the residual income model are divided between a forecast period and a terminal value, where the terminal value is calculated based on last years residual income growing at a constant rate in perpetuity.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Table 3 summarizes the empirical results of the valuation models, the differences between the model outcomes, and the percentage difference. Of the nine company valuations, eight are higher with the discounted cash flow (DCF) valuation method. Only one company in the sample has a higher valuation with the residual income method than with the discounted cash flow method. The percentage differences between the findings with the two valuation methods appear to be quite large.

Table 3: The Valuation Results with the Discounted Cash Flow and Residual Income Models.

Company	DCF Valuation (million of \$)	RIM Valuation (million of \$)	Difference (million of \$)	Difference as a % of DCF Valuation
Textile Retail Company	8.62	12.64	-4.02	-46,67%
Hygienic Products Manufacturer	45.98	23.56	22.41	48,75%
Textile Manufacturer	30.46	13.22	17.24	56,60%
Energy Manufacturer	1.15	471.84	0.75	65,00%
Metal Products Manufacturer	87.36	52.87	34.48	39,47%
Metal Products Wholesaler	26.44	21.26	5.17	19,57%
Construction Material Assembler	18.39	15.52	2.87	15,63%
Construction Project Designer	6.32	4.60	1.72	27,27%
Chemical Products Retailer	5.57	5.46	0.11	2,06%

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Comparing the valuation models has been a controversial issue in the literature. The residual income method is generally preferred by academicians in the accounting field, whereas the discounted cash flow method is the method of choice in the finance field. Empirical studies have reached conflicting results and failed to prove the superiority of one method over the other.

In this study, the residual income and discounting cash flow methods are applied to nine Turkish companies and the results are compared. Unlike most previous empirical studies on the issue that use large samples, this study uses a case study approach with data from nine Turkish companies with the forecasts of future operations and cash flows being generated with the help of the managements of the companies.

We find that the residual income model results in lower company valuation compared with the discounted cash flow model. This result may be due to certain specific characteristics of Turkish companies. For

example, due to positive expectations as a result of the political stability and the geopolitical advantages of the country, Turkish companies have made substantial fixed asset investment in recent years. Therefore, the depreciation expense is quite high for most companies. The high depreciation expense decreases the net income (an input in the residual income method) and it increases the cash flow (the main input in the discounted cash flow method).

Partly because of limited competition among firms, the cost of equity is quite high in Turkey. Since the cost of equity is used as the discount rate in the residual income method, it results in low valuation figures. Since equity capital is only one of the capital components, it only has a partial effect on the weighted average cost of capital, which is used as the discount rate in the discounted cash flow method.

In emerging economies, it is a common practice for employers to employ relatives in the company with eligible expenses that would reduce the company's residual income and would result in a relatively low valuation with the residual income method. These expenses may not affect the company's cash flows. Therefore, we believe that the discounted cash flow method may give a better valuation result compared with the residual income method in emerging economies.

This study should be regarded as a preliminary study with data from an emerging economy. The companies were not randomly chosen and only the companies that agreed to be included in the study were chosen. As a result, the research sample includes only nine companies. Therefore, the results cannot provide statistically meaningful evidence. Yet the aim of the study is to help understand why the two models would yield different results by spending a substantial amount of time with each of the companies to get a thorough understanding. Further studies might be conducted on emerging economies by concentrating on sectors and by using larger samples.

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UNDERSTANDING FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SOUTH AFRICAN CONSUMERS TO USE ONLINE SHOPPING

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ABSTRACT

The diffusion of information and the increased complexity of consumers have created a need for marketing organisations to embrace advanced business methods that allow for flexibility and convenience on the part of the consumer. This research explores the factors that influence online shopping behaviour among South African consumers; a new phenomenon in this market. Firms operating in this segment promote and sell their products and services via websites. The online stores are a visible representation of the “digital age” yet despite this, neither the stores nor the relevant consumers enjoy adequate conceptual and empirical analysis. Data were collected from June 2010 through January 2011 from three hundred and forty-three South African consumers (n=343) who purchased groceries from Woolworth (135); Pick n Pay (112) and Edgars (96) through internet shopping. The study found that shopping online appears to be the ultimate in streamlining grocery shopping. Convenience and saving time are the primary motivation for buying groceries online. The limitations of the study are discussed and directions for future research are proposed.

A STUDY ON THE INFLUENCES OF KOREAN EARLY ADOPTERS' PROPENSITY AND LIFESTYLE FOR IT PRODUCTS' PURCHASE DECISION

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates early adopter. Lifestyle at IT Product for Purchase determination retention. The role of lifestyle related to purchase determination retention is analyzed. Criteria and measures for lifestyle are selected based on the literature review and circumstance of IT product. A questionnaire is developed to survey early adopter and lifestyle after discussion and revisions with experts.

KEYWORDS : Early adopter, IT products, Purchase propensity, Lifestyle, Purchasing decisions

INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

One of the most popular words in on & off line would be early adopters. These early adopters have high adaptability for the new technology and have as much of knowledge as the specialists for the products and are shown as the aggressive purchasers who even participate in the project of products of a company (Turnbull & Meenaghan, 2001). Nevertheless the interest for the early adopters is getting increased; there is no systematic study for the characteristics of the early adopters until now. It means that though there are the studies for the expansion according to the specified new media, there is no study that analyzes the early adopters as the social/ cultural phenomena point of view. Korean early adopters are different from the opinion leaders who follow the novelties only based on their financial power. They are the value consumers and the people who seek for the hobbies and interests enthusiastically to stand on the same level of the influencing people. Also they are the coordinates that show the trend of the whole industries, society and culture over the consumption of specified field (Kim, Gu, 2003).

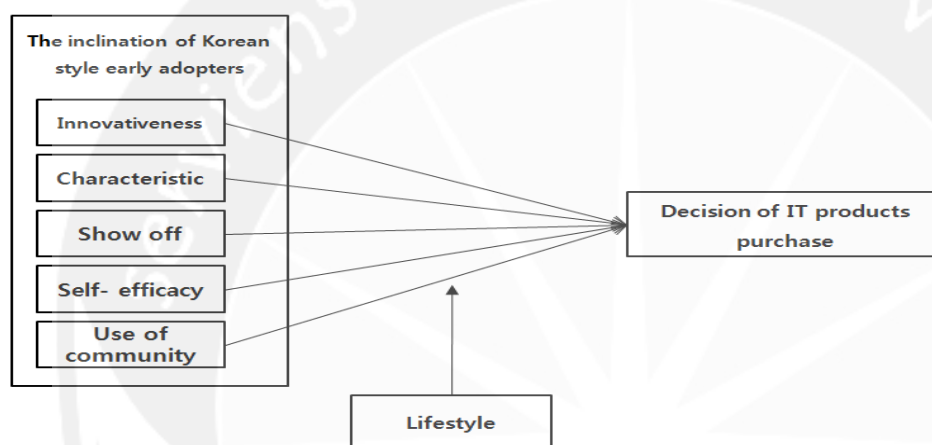
Therefore, the studies focusing on the role of the early adopters in the market is getting out of the simple analysis that accepts the individual medium, but on their life style and values (King & Summers, 1970; Turnbull & Meenaghan, 2001; Choo, 2004). The purpose of this study is to extract the factors as precedent study and empirical analysis by analyzing the inclinations of early adopters who influence the purchasers that buy the products after reviewing the products review or user's review, and to define the purchasing pattern of the early adopters scientifically and systematically by analyzing the decision factors of purchase empirically. The lifestyle can be regarded as an important concept related to the customer activities. The study for the lifestyle provides the following important information. Firstly, lifestyle becomes the standard for the effective market subdivisions and it explains the customer's activities intensively, and it could be a help to predict the social tendency by explaining the difference of customer's choice of commodity, information and brand effectively. Secondly, lifestyle is a symbolic and differentiated behavior style that appears on the general human activities and it is being decided by the personal consumption and has a role of factor to decide the consumption. Therefore, the study for the lifestyle is important as it is easier to approach to the consumer's thought and behavior than the other studies and can attain the clear data.

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

In order to verify the factors that the inclination and lifestyle of Korean style early adopters (innovators and early adopters) affect on the decision of purchase of IT products, in this study, the model was designed based on the theoretical background and precedent study.

Since it is verified that most of the precedent studies affect directly and statistically on the practical purchasing activity, we established the study model as shown on the <Fig. 1> based on the Hypothesis that the inclination and lifestyle of Korean style early adopters (innovators and early adopters) will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Fig. 1: Study model



Hypothesis 1: The higher inclinations of the Korean style early adopters have, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 1-1. The higher innovativeness the early adopters have, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 1-2. The better characteristics the early adopters have, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 1-3. The higher show-off inclination the early adopters have, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 1-4. The higher self- efficacy inclination the early adopters have, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 1-5. The more early adopters use community, the more they affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 2: Lifestyle will have the roll of adjusting variables for the inclination of Korean style early adopters and the decision of purchase.

Hypothesis 2-1. The higher lifestyle the early adopters have, innovativeness will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 2-2. The higher lifestyle the early adopters have, characteristic will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 2-3. The higher lifestyle the early adopters have, show-off will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 2-4. The higher lifestyle the early adopters have, self- efficacy will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Hypothesis 2-4. The higher lifestyle the early adopters have, the use of community will affect on the decision of IT products purchase positively.

Specimen Design And Data Collection

For the case of variables of the model that was used in this study, they were selected based on the records of studies for the local and foreign early adopters and lifestyle. Therefore, we extracted the inclinations of Korean style early adopters by surveying the them from the local site as a subject of investigation and then extracted the factors related to the inclinations and lifestyles of existing early adopters through the precedent study and then performed the survey. The questionnaires that were structuralized like this were distributed to the sites that the local early adopters are acting. The statistical analysis was done by using *SPSS 12.0*. The survey for the decision of IT products purchase of the Korean style early adopters was performed for 13 days from the 2nd of Nov. 2008 and the subject of the survey were 500 early adopters acting in Cool & Joy, Early Adopter, Headphone Club, With iPot and Minibian. Total returned questionnaires were 353 and we used 303 questionnaires after deleting the unfaithful one for the analysis.

Analyzing The Validity And Credibility

In order to verify the validity of the questionnaires that were used in this study, the factorial analysis was performed and suggested in the Table 1.

Table 1: The Inclinations Factor Analysis of Korean Style Early Adopters

Study Variables		Cronbach's α	Number of items
The inclination of early adopters	Self-efficacy	0.922	10
	Characteristic	0.81	6
	Innovativeness inclination	0.795	4
	Considering points when purchasing	0.732	5
	Use of community	0.785	3
	Show-off inclination	0.643	4

As the result of deduction with the over 1.0 factor of eigenvalue after VeriMax rotation of the whole inclination questionnaires of the Korean style early adopters, the inclination of the Korean style early adopters were reduced to 6 components and the accumulation variance reached to 60% which means it has a high grade of explanation. The credibility verification is a process that shows the degree of internal consistency between the questionnaires of measuring tools and the Cronbach's α coefficient was

calculated. Though the credibility of measuring tool is secured when the value is over 0.7 in general standard, but 0.6 also can be used as the minimum allowing value if they are the newly developed questionnaires or they include them (Nunnally, 1978). As a result of this study, all of the measured value were in between 0.643~0.922 and since all of them are over 0.6, the credibility could be accepted. As a result of measurement of credibility of factor analysis of moderating variable, the Cronbach's α is also over 0.6 in questionnaire item which means there is no credibility problem at all.

Table 2: The Factor Analysis of Lifestyle

Study Variables	Cronbach's α	Number of items
Lifestyle	0.612	6

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1 is the one for the inclination of Korean style early adopters and decision of purchase and in order to analyze the influence of the early adopters' inclination on the decision of IT product purchase, the multiple regression analysis between the inclinations of early adopters and decision of purchase was performed. As a result of analysis, it is significant statistically at 0.05 of significant level. If we review the significant level of individual inclination, the inclination of early adopters who affect the significant influence on the decision of purchase is the innovative inclination, inclination of show-off, inclination of self-efficacy and use of community on the orderly base and the inclinations of early adopters doesn't affect the significant influence when the significant level is 0.1.

Table 3: Statistics for Hypothesis 1

Model	R	R ²	Revised R ²	Standard error of measured value
1	.526(a)	.267	.252	1.02277

Table 4: Variance Analysis of Variance for Hypothesis 1

Model		Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean square	F	Significance probability
1	Linear regression analysis	107.497	6	17.916	17.127	.000
	Residuals	296.032	283	1.046		
	Sum	4.3.529	289			

In order to verify the hypothesis for the lifestyle and IT product purchase, we should verify if the decision of purchase of product can be explained by the correlation of lifestyle and the inclinations of the Korean style early adopters. We would like to use the hierarchical regression analysis which is being used to verify the major effect between variables and correlation. The hierarchical regression analysis is a method to verify the relative effect of individual variables or to measure the influence between the variables.

Table 5: Regression Analysis for Hypothesis 1

Model	Composition	Non-standard coefficient		Standardized coefficient	t	Significance probability
		β	Standard	β		
	(Constant)	1.648	.577		2.856	.005
	Purchasing	.056	.073	.040	.762	.447
	Self-efficacy	-.266	.094	-.210	-2.835	.005
1	Characteristics	.017	.070	.015	.249	.803
	Innovative inclination	.399	.058	.459	6.899	.000
	Use of community	.106	.045	.135	2.324	.021
	Show-off inclination	.193	.056	.189	3.475	.001

Table 6: The Result of The Hierarchical Regression Analysis (1)

2 nd stage (adjustment)	R	R ²	revised	Changed amount of statistics			
				R ² changed	F changed	Degrees of freedom	P
			R ²	amount	amount	freedom	
Considering points when purchase	.392	.154	.148	.136	45.988	1	.000
Self-efficacy	.399	.160	.154	.130	44.52	1	.000
Characteristic	.399	.151	.145	.035	45.672	1	.000
Innovative inclination	.489	.239	.234	0.046	17.273	1	.000
Use of community	.427	.183	.177	.124	43.722	1	.000
Inclination of show-off	.417	.182	.176	.079	27.725	1	.000

Table 7: The Result of The Hierarchical Regression Analysis (2)

3 rd stage (adjustment)	R	R ²	revised	Changed amount of statistics			
				R ² changed	F changed	Degrees of freedom	P
			R ²	amount	amount	freedom	
Considering points when purchase X Lifestyle	.392	.154	.145	.000	.035	1	.851
Self-efficacy X Lifestyle	.407	.166	.157	.006	2.087	1	.150
Characteristic X Lifestyle	.405	.164	.155	.013	4.296	1	.039
Innovative inclination X Lifestyle	.544	.295	.292	.000	.054	1	.000
Use of community X Lifestyle	.428	.183	.175	.000	.000	1	.991
Inclination of show-off X Lifestyle	.445	.235	.234	.000	4.012	1	.034

As we can see in Table 7, the biggest factor of lifestyle that affects on the decision of purchase is innovative inclination of early adopters and the next is show-off and then the characteristic. Therefore, we

could see that the lifestyle affects on the relationship between the inclination of early adopters and purchasing factors.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This is the study to see whether the lifestyle affects on the purchase of IT products as an adjusting variables through the inclinations of the Korean style early adopters. Not likely the other existing studies for the decision of purchase, this is the study that analyzes the influence of the inclinations of the early adopters and lifestyle on the decision of purchase. As a result of this study, we could see that the innovative inclination is the biggest influence that affects on the decision of purchase and the next is the inclination of show-off, self-efficacy, and then use of community. The matters to be considered and the characteristics don't affect on the purchase of IT products. The influences that are shown by the lifestyle which took the roll of adjusting variables are innovative inclination, inclination of show-off and characteristic on the orderly base. Namely, we could see that the Korean style early adopters are using the experiences for the new innovation by purchasing the product practically after they get the information. Therefore, we need to understand the industrial/ economical value of these people and in order to use them properly; the political and strategic measures are required. This study has the limit as the precedent studies for the empirical analysis are insufficient. We experienced difficulties in extracting the factors as we could hardly find the precedent studies for the local early adopters. We wish many more studies for the local early adopters to be proceeded in the future.

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CREATING JOINT VENTURE PROJECTS BETWEEN SME'S AND UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE BAJA CALIFORNIA IN TIJUANA, MEXICO

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ABSTRACT

Joint venture between universities and SME's is obtaining a great deal of importance in education and learning strategies to achieve economic growth in countries that are in continuing seeking of modernization and economic development. In the case of Accounting and Management Faculty (AMF) at Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (UABC), in early years beginning in 2005, several joint venture programs have been implemented to help strengthen the relationship among several SME's and AMF. This paper refers to one called "Linking program with school credits" (LPSC) that have being applied to three of the four bachelor degree programs in AMF. The LPSC develop and implemented by AMF is part of a government program named "Development Program for SME's". This program is taking place in several productive sectors of the Tijuana region. At this time this program offer to strengthen the knowledge of students; especially those who haven't have work experience yet. Also is optional in the curricula and offers the acquisition of several school credits among other benefits to the student, like give them social service and professional practice mandatory activities of their bachelor degree program. LPSC has several success cases, and therefore it has a growing number of students and SME's taking part of it. The main purpose of this effort is to give consulting and advisory activities to SME's that requires it in any part of their main operation activities. From marketing to strategic planning, from information systems to international commerce, this SME's receive the aid of this students guided by a faculty member and present their findings and their work by the end of the semester in front of a committee conformed by several professors and SME's manager, and they evaluate the impact of the project and the level of knowledge that has been develop in each particular case. This paper describes this activity and present information about the impact that this project has in students and in SME's in the region of Tijuana.

THE VIRTUOUS CIRCLE OF COOPERATION

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ABSTRACT

This article discusses the study of the process of intercompany cooperation (CI) in SME's in the metalworking industry in the central region of the state of Coahuila in México, specifically provides interesting results about the benefits gained by cooperating enterprises and their relationship with the cooperation activities they carry out, obtaining empirical evidence of how a virtuous circle of cooperation is generated and created in base of those relationships. In this study it was established, based on statistically significant associations, that cooperation to produce is associated with benefits of cooperation to produce, to market and to manage; and finally, cooperation to market, it is t to administere, is associated with benefits of cooperation to market and to manage.

JEL: L14

KEYWORDS: *cooperation activities, benefits of cooperation, SME's, metalworking industry.*

INTRODUCTION

In the city of Monclova, the main town in the central region of the State of Coahuila, Mexico, lies the largest steel mill in the country, Altos Hornos de Mexico, SA de CV (AHMSA). This large steel company, is the locomotive of development of the region, which are articulated small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in the metalworking industry, as in the production chain are linked both forward and backward in the steelmaking process. This linking of small businesses with AHMSA in the region gave rise to a cluster of SMEs in the metalworking industry, where some of them cooperate with each other, as a competitive strategy.

The intercompany cooperation (CI) is defined by Araíza and Velarde (2008) as the interaction of independent SMEs with a specific purpose, enabling them to share resources to mutually beneficial, and posed it as a dynamic process that consists of five stages: i) needs that drive companies to cooperate, ii) search and selection of partner you are going to cooperate, iii) the structure of the cooperation agreement, iv) activities of intercompany cooperation and v) the cooperation results, and highlight, like Fernandez and Vigil (2007) the need to make studies of the dynamic that occur in a conglomerate.

In response to this need and intended to clarify how things happen in the context of Mexican companies, this study aims to contribute to generating knowledge about intercompany cooperation (CI) in Mexico, specifically in this article, we examine the relationship of activities of collaboration (step iv of the dynamic process of IC) with the benefits obtained to cooperation between small companies (step v the dynamic process of the CI). The information presented is organized according to the following: once it presents the literature review conducted on this subject, then shows the methodology used in the study and finally presents the results and conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research on the study of intercompany cooperation (IC), is based on transaction cost theory, to explain the existence of cooperation agreements and the theory of resources and capabilities to analyze, possessed and required resources in companies that hold relationships of CI, as well as valuation and appropriation of resources committed to the agreement.

Cooperation emerges as a strategic alternative, with the aim of companies improve their competitive position (Osborn y Hagedoorn, 1997; Boscherini *et al.*, 1998), allowing access to greater resources without make a fusion (Glaister y Buckley, 1996), with the purpose of responding to the market and get a common benefit. The cooperation has been studied and typified by many authors, in this study we used the typology of the CI to Araiza *et al.*, (2010) and Araiza and Velarde (2011) constructed and confirmed empirically, which is based on the classification schemes of the types of intercompany cooperation of Lopez and Lugones (1998), Ecribá *et al.* (2003) and Madero and Quijano (2006). The types considered in this typology are four and are based on business needs that determine the objective of cooperation: It cooperation to produce, cooperation for market, cooperation to innovate and cooperation to administer (see Table 1).

Likewise, in the study of the cooperation between companies, also there has appeared empirical evidence of the benefits that the companies obtain on having cooperated like that provided by Gómez (2005); Díaz *et al.* (2005); Vera-Cruz *et al.* (2002); (Simonin, 1997); Powell y Koput (1996) y Domínguez (2002). In this study, based on the empirical evidence obtained by the diverse authors earlier mentioned on the benefits of the cooperation between company and following its typology of intercompany cooperation Araiza *et al.* (2010) and Araiza and Velarde (2011), realized the adaptation to do the extensive above mentioned typology to the benefits gained by cooperating enterprises in accordance with what it appears in the Table 1.

Table 1: Types of Intercompany Cooperation and Benefits of the Cooperation

Types of cooperation	Benefits of the cooperation
Cooperation to produce. - like ties of collaboration that are established for the economies of scale securing, to decrease costs and to improve the quality and productivity of the SME's.	Benefits of the cooperation to produce: major production, increase in the quality of the products, decrease of costs of production and complementation of production processes.
Cooperation to innovate - like the ties of collaboration that are established between the SME's to decrease risks, costs and time principally associates to propitiate and to develop its innovative potential.	Benefits of the cooperation to innovate: product improvement and development of new products and processes, incorporation of new technologies, decrease of costs and time in the development and technological innovation and risk diminution on the investment in the development and technological innovation.
Cooperation to market. -like the ties of collaboration that are established between the SME's for the search and access to markets; diffusion, promotion and distribution of its products; economies of scale securing to gain access to markets and reduction of costs.	Benefits of the cooperation for market: major diffusion, promotion and publicity of its products, increase in the sales , I access to new markets, to maintaining our clients and decrease of the costs related to the sale of its products.
Cooperation to administer. - like the ties of collaboration that are established between the SME's to develop the business undertaking and to have practical knowledge of management and access to information about fiscal instruments of credit and financing and incentive as well as to carry the workpeople training out.	Benefits of the cooperation to administer: I increase in the yield on the investment, increase in the cash flow, improve in financing steps, improve in systems of administration, access to governmental supports and to fiscal stimulus, it improves in the training of its workpeople and development of know collaborative.

This table shows the typology of intercompany cooperation defined by Araiza *et al.* (2010) and Araiza and Velarde (2011) and the adaptation to do the extensive above mentioned typology to the benefits gained by cooperating enterprises with base in which the present study was carried out..

Derivative of the bibliographical review carried out for the present study raises the following hypothesis:

Ha: Association exists between the intercompany cooperation with the benefits that obtain for collaborating the SME's of the metalworking industry of the region center of the State of Coahuila.

METHODOLOGY

The methodological strategy, it was based on a sequential study of two phases with mixed method, in the first phase a qualitative exploration was realized about the types of IC and the benefits of the cooperation, and in the second one, the surveys were realized interviewing the businessmen of 50 companies that shaped the sample for expediency of a population of 153 companies. The obtained quantitative information, they were processed across the statistical bundle SPSS to measure, based on the grade of importance granted by the businessmen (from 1 to 5, of minor to major), the types of IC that appear and the obtained to benefits when cooperated, later to determine if association exists between them. Finally, there were carried out the conclusions and recommendations of the study and the future investigation lines were defined.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Of 50 companies polled in this study, only 78 % of them admit to have realized some type of cooperation, by what the results of this section will be determined in base in the information obtained of 39 companies that collaborate.

The used statistician was X^2 and the respective cross tab was prepared with base in the indicators of intercompany cooperation and benefits that are obtained for collaborating; for this, three ranks was assigned at the level of importance granted by the businessmen, in accordance with the following values: low importance (from 1 to 2.49), medium-sized importance (from 2.5 to 3.49) and high importance (from 3.5 to 5). The found value of X^2 .639 n (37) is statistics significant at a level of confidence of 99 %, therefore it is possible to affirm that an association of .639 exists between the intercompany cooperation and the benefits the companies obtain for cooperating.

The hypothesis is confirmed: Association exists between the intercompany cooperation with the benefits that obtain for collaborating the SME's of the metalworking industry of the region center of the State of Coahuila.

The above mentioned relation happens in accordance with the following thing: the companies that assign one to him high importance to the intercompany cooperation, also assign a high importance to him to the benefits obtained by cooperation and of the companies are assign a low importance to him to the intercompany cooperation, also they assign a low importance to him to the benefits obtained for cooperating.

Later it proceeded to calculate in a specific way, if some association exists between each of the types of intercompany cooperation, with the different types of benefits of the cooperation, the results obtained allow to establish the following associations:

- i) each of the types of cooperation that is realized, is associated with benefits of the same type.
- ii) the cooperation to produce, only is associated with the benefits of the cooperation to produce.
- iii) the cooperation to innovate, only is associated with the benefits of the cooperation to innovate.

- iv) all types of cooperation, are associated with the benefits of cooperation to market and benefits of cooperation to administer.

CONCLUSION

This study was conducted in small and medium enterprises in the metalworking industry of the region center of the State of Coahuila in Mexico, therefore regional in range so the conclusions are limited to the population of companies in the sector study. In this study was established, based on statistically significant associations, that cooperation to produce is associated with benefits of cooperation to produce, to market and to manage; cooperation to innovate is associated with benefits of cooperation to innovate, to market and to manage; and finally, cooperation to market, just as cooperation to administer, is associated with benefits of cooperation to market and to manage.

The multiple associations between all the types of cooperation and its benefits towards the benefits of the cooperation for market and benefits of the cooperation to administer that the companies obtain on having collaborated, that represents to the intercompany cooperation, shaped by all the types of cooperation and its benefits, can turn into a virtuous circle, which leads the companies to obtaining benefits, therefore, must be propitiated and cultivated like a strategy on the part of the entrepreneur.

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TRANSPARENCY REPORT AS RED FLAG FOR QUALITY CONTROL OF THE AUDIT FIRMS – THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA EXPERIENCES

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ABSTRACT

The complete implementation of the Audit Law from 2005, amongst all imposed an obligation to the audit firms for presentation of transparency reports. In the period 2007-2010 the audit firms overcome the barrier and commenced to disclose information regarding their own performance, which for a long time were treated as confidential. The continuity of four years might seem too short for one to create the great image of the audit profession conditions in the Republic of Macedonia. But, at the end, the issue about by whom, how and why was this information used is still open. According to Article 7 of the Statute of the Institute of Certified Auditors of the Republic of Macedonia (ICARM), the ICARM is competent to conduct the quality control. In 2009, ICARM for the first time carried out quality control of the audit firms. Did and in what extent the ICARM used the data from transparency reports in process of selecting the audit firms subject to the quality control? Is it possible to relate the transparency in the audit firms' performance and the quality of services they offer to their clients? In this paper, we are going to try to give an answer to the previously posed questions.

KEY WORDS: transparency report, quality control.

INTRODUCTION

The Republic of Macedonia confirmed its aspirations for membership in the European family, by signing the Stabilization and Association Agreement (SAA) with the EU and its member states. One of the key prerequisites for gaining the status of candidate country and for obtaining negotiations date was the harmonization of domestic legislation with the *Acquis Communautaire*. The audit profession was not an exception from those requirements. Seven years after the first Audit Law was adopted in 1997, in 2005 was adopted the new Audit Law. This new Law brought in substantial changes into the profession. Amongst all, the new Audit Law for the first time imposed the obligation to the audit firms for presentation of transparency reports. The presentation of such reports was to disclose the most delicate and the most mysterious data about the firms' performance. What regards the minimum of information required to be disclosed with the transparency reports, it is totally compatible to the Revised Eighth Company Law Directive. In the period 2007-2010, the audit firms regularly presented the transparency reports, thus formally fulfilling the obligation imposed by the Law. But, however besides the continuity of four years still remains the dilemma whether and to what extent the audit firms perceived these requirements as a nightmare that could have negative effect over their reality in the disclosure of information? No less important was the dilemma to whom the data from the reports served and what was the benefit of disclosing them? Besides these dilemmas, the amendments of the Audit Law in December 2010 enlarged the list of information, which the audit firms are obliged to disclose in the transparency reports. With these additional information finally was overcome the little gap between Article 40 of the Eighth Directive and the Audit Law.

Abreast with the transparency, the new Law a special accent, as well, put on the quality control of the audit firms' performance. Namely, the audit firms' performance is to be put under a magnifier of the ICARM for the purpose of assuring the users of audit services that when conducting the audit engagement completely are respected the legislative and the professional regulation. The Quality Control Commission carried out its first quality controls in 2009 and the findings in form of Activities Report were submitted to the members of the ICARM.

Further in this paper, we will analyse detail the information from the transparency reports, thus trying to identify the information that might present red flags for activating the quality control of the ICARM. Our attention, as well, will be focused on the Quality Control Commission findings from performed controls at audit firms, in order to discover if the light motive in selection of potential auditees are the information disclosed in the transparency reports.

TRANSPARENCY IN THE AUDIT FIRMS' PERFORMANCE OBSERVED THROUGH THE PRISM OF TRANSPARENCY REPORTS

The term transparency was unknown to the domestic auditors until 2005, when the new Audit Law of 2005 for the first time introduced the obligation of the audit firms or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor to publish in at least one mass media or on their websites, within three months of the end of each financial year, the annual transparency report. Transparency report shall provide for a permanent insight in monitoring the rules of the game in the competition on the market by the members of this profession. The report shall include a wide range of information providing clear picture of the type and the volume of activities carried out by the audit firm during the year, and the turnover thus realized. More precisely, pursuant to Article 26 of the Audit Law, annual transparency report shall include the following information: (1) description of the legal structure and ownership; (2) description of the professional network and the legal and structural arrangements in the network they belong to; (3) description of the governance structure of the audit firm or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor; (4) description of the internal quality control system of the audit firm or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor and a statement by the administrative or the management body on the effectiveness of its functioning; (5) list of entities being audited during the preceding year; (6) statement on the policy followed by the audit firm or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor concerning the continuing education of the statutory auditors and (7) financial information on the total turnover realized on the basis of audit and on the basis of other fees, broken down by four categories of audit services, additional services for quality assurance, tax advisory service and other non-audit services. (Audit Law, Official gazette of the RM, no. 79. p. 99, 21 September 2005). The authorized person at the audit firm, i.e. the statutory auditor – sole proprietor, shall sign transparency reports as the case may be.

If Article 26 Transparency Report in the Law is compared with Article 40 Transparency report in the Revised Eighth Company Law Directive, one can conclude that there is high level of harmonization regarding the issue on compulsory information to be presented in the transparency report. However, regarding the information requirements to be part of the transparency report, Revised Eighth Company Law Directive is more rigorous, in particular the following points: (e) an indication of when the last quality assurance review referred to in Article 29 took place, (g) a statement concerning the audit firm's independence practices which also confirms that an internal review of independence compliance has been conducted and (j) information concerning the basis for the partners remuneration. (Directive 2006/43/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 May 2006 on statutory audit of annual accounts and consolidated accounts). The appeared differences were overcome with the last amendments of the Audit

Law in December 2010 and the enlargement of the list of data required to be consisted in the transparency reports. Namely, according to Article 35 the audit firms in separate segments of their transparency reports shall disclose data related to: the date of the last quality control over the auditor, statement of independent operations of the audit firm which confirms that there are an internal procedures for independency compliance assessment and that they are implemented in practice; as well as the information regarding the basis for determination of the certified auditor's fee (Audit Law, Official gazette of the RM, no. 158/2010).

Audit Law entered into force in the course of 2005, imposing the obligation for the audit firms to submit the annual transparency report in 2007 covering their operations in 2006. Unfortunately, during 2007, most of the audit firms did not submit annual transparency reports. Having in mind the fact that in 2007 ICARM was engaged in building its architecture and it worked on constitutive acts, while the Council for Advancement and Oversight of the Audit put efforts to assist ICARM in commencing the functioning, not adhering to Article 26 of the Law remained suppressed, and the offenders were unsanctioned. First transparency reports were published in the course of 2008, and they covered the operations of audit firms in 2007. Number of submitted reports can lead to the conclusion that situation evidently improved in 2008 and, 17 out of 24 audit firms published their annual transparency reports, while the remaining 7 audit firms did not adhere to this legal requirement. In parallel to adhering to the legal requirements, in 2009, transparency reports are published, covering the operations in 2008. In 2009, 21 out of the 24 audit firms published the transparency report within the deadline stipulated by Law. For the first time in 2010, all the 24 audit firms responded to the obligation to present the transparency reports. In 2011, the number of audit firms has increased to 28, out of with four are newly established. This is the reason why 24 audit firms have submitted transparency reports; two audit firms in their reports have emphasized the fact that they are newly established and that they cannot disclose all the data required by the Law, and the remaining two newly established audit firms did not submit a report.

Submitted transparency reports will be observed in more details in this paper. First part of transparency reports gives a review on the legal structure and ownership of all audit firms, ICARM members, which submitted transparency reports in period 2007-2010. Pursuant to Article 24 of the Audit Law, an audit firm established as company and statutory auditor – sole proprietor, having obtained working license therefore, can perform audit, as a service. Audit firm is issued working license to perform audit operations if it fulfills the following requirements: (1) having employed at least two statutory auditors, (2) majority voting shares in the audit firm owned by the statutory auditors and (3) possession of insurance policy of general responsibility in the amount determent by the ICARM (Audit Law, Official gazette of the RM, no. 158, December 2010). Based on the presented legal structure and ownership in the transparency reports, one can conclude that all audit firms meet the legal requirement to obtain working license in the field of auditing. Besides this, there are no significant differences in the presentation of data by the audit firms in the three subsequent years. The only change has been noted in the legal structure and ownership at PriceWaterhouseCoopers. Namely, in 2008 there has been a change in the ownership of this audit firm, so that from Limited liability company established by one person, it was converted into limited liability company established by two persons who possess 51% and PriceWaterhouseCoopers LLC Skopje, owning 49% of the company.

Second segment of transparency reports shows which professional network the audit firm belongs to, the legal and the structural arrangements therefore. There are differences in the extent of the information given about the network arrangements, with in some cases very little information on the structure of central Boards or committees and their functions. As shown in transparency reports, the segment

explaining the professional network which the audit firms belong to and the legal and the structural arrangement there from, the Big Four provide more detailed explanations, while the local audit firms just stress the fact that they act locally on the territory of the Republic of Macedonia. If we compare the information from the transparency reports for the four subsequent years pertaining to this segment, we may conclude that the majority of the audit firms use almost identical formulations. Special attention should be given to two major changes. The first change occurred in 2008 when the local audit firm Infos D became part of the professional network of the Bakker Tilly International. The second change took place one year later, in 2009, when the local audit firm Macedonian Audit Center joined Moore Stephens. Besides this, inevitable is the impression that the majority of the local audit firms empathizes the inclusion into the professional network with the membership in the ICARM. According to the Audit law, members of the ICARM are all statutory auditors and audit firms that conduct audit in the Republic of Macedonia. As a difference to the local audit firms, the Big Four in more details describe the membership in the professional network, as well as the activities they perform within the frames of the network.

Next segment give an overview of the internal quality control system of the audit firm and a statement by the administrative or the management body on the effectiveness of its functioning. This is a key element within the reports. Comparison of information from the segment pertaining to transparency reports, focused on internal quality control system of the audit firm, and the statement by the administrative or the management body on the effectiveness of its functioning, point out to a heterogeneous approach in reporting. The Big Four, as well as the audit firms that are part of the international networks, describe in more details the internal quality control system by orderly positioning the key players in the established control system. Unlike them, there is clear perception at part of the local audit firms of what the internal control system is, but due to their lower personnel potential, it is more simplified. Therefore, the reports state that established and adopted policies and procedures on quality control system are fully harmonized with the international auditing standards. Unfortunately, there are audit firms that are not familiar with the concept of setting and functioning of internal quality control system. Such impression is acquired from reading the explanations on the manner of acting and functioning of the quality control system. However, despite such trends, these audit firms have concluded, at the end of the report, presenting this segment, that the system is well established and functioning efficiently. In the reports of 2010 there is evident progress regarding the fulfillment of the requirements for issuing a statement of effective functioning of this system by the audit firm's competent authority. In comparison to the previous three years when this kind of statement was not part of the reports, some audit firms in their reports of 2010 particularly emphasized the statement of effective functioning of the quality control systems by a competent authority. This conclusion unfortunately is not referred to PriceWaterhouseCoopers, which in its last reports does not even have a paragraph with a statement of effective functioning of its quality control systems by a competent authority. Such developments may be accepted as logical ones, should one take into account the fact that ICARM is in the initial stage of introducing the system of quality control in audit firms. The first quality controls conducted by the ICARM activated the alarm in part of the audit firms. Lessons learnt from the control were as well, reflected in the part of the report related to the quality control. Consequently, quite real are the expectations that this part of the transparency report will contain more information. Again, we consider that the fuller presentation provides the better model. Whilst the minimalist approach arguably meets the legal requirement, in our view it falls well short of meeting the spirit of transparency reporting. What regards the internal quality control system, we should emphasize the fact that the statements of the audit firms have not evolved in the period of four years. In their transparency reports from 2010, the major part of the audit firms simply just transferred the same formulations from previous years. This segment of the transparency reports should be given more

attention and it is realistic in future to expect from the audit firms to change this approach of quality control reporting.

Another quite important segment in the transparency report is the list of auditees at which audit firms performed audit arrangements. Due to the heterogeneous composition of auditees (part of them are large-, and the other part are medium-sized enterprises), Table 1 presents the number of auditees in period 2007-2010 at which the audit firm performed an audit. Audit firms apply different approach when demystifying the clients at which audit arrangements were implemented. Most of them provide detailed list of all auditees. Small portion of the audit firms use descriptive approach to indicate the auditees by summarizing them in certain categories (companies, non-profitable organizations, etc.). Only one audit firm in 2008 has presented no list of auditees in the report. However, despite such approach, this segment in the report points out to a positive trend in disclosing information related to client's identity, which was considered as business secret in the past and were not subject to public debate. Regardless of the fact that Independent Auditor Reports were subject to publishing pursuant to the first Audit Law from 1998, it is exceptionally difficult to relate the audit firms with the specific clients. Hence, how small audit firms, having limited personnel resources, manage to perform audits at large number of clients has always been an open issue. Finally, numerous users of audit reports can learn from this segment of the transparency report about the distribution of potential clients to be audited (pursuant to the Company Law, they are the large- and the medium-sized enterprises) between the audit firms and how much one participates in the division of the pie. This information are also a good signal for ICARM to activate its control mechanisms, should it detect discrepancy between the available personnel potential and the volume of realized arrangements at certain audit firms. The comparison of data from the last four years shows relative move. At the majority of audit firms, including the Big Four, did not incur significant changes in the last three years. Continuous increase in the number of auditees is evident in Grant Thornton, Moore Stephens and some of the local firms. Small is the number of audit firms, which significantly decreased the number of clients. Regardless of the transparency level of information disclosure about the auditees, these data cannot provide an answer to the question whether greater number of auditees means a greater inclusion in the audit services market. The answer to this question depends on the size of the auditee, as well as on the fee for the conducted audit. We can get the full image by linking these data not only to the human resources in the audit firms, but also to the turnover realized from the offered audit services. The division of the audit services market and the battle for new auditees is frequently related to the offer of lower audit fees than the ones offered by the competitors. Unfortunately, the lower fees are compromising the quality of service. Taking into account what was previously discussed, we consider this segment of transparency reports as a red flag for the ICARM quality control.

Table 1. Number of auditees in the preceding year

	Name of audit firm	Number of auditees in the preceding year			
		2007	2008	2009	2010
1.	Ernst&Young Statutory Auditors, Skopje	17	25	29	28
2.	PricewaterhouseCoopers LLC Skopje	23	28	31	31
3.	KPMG MACEDONIA LLC Skopje	46	43	41	48
4.	Deloitte LLC Skopje	28	33	30	24
5.	Grant Thornton LLC Skopje	22	30	43	47 companies, 5 projects
6.	Moore Stephens/ Macedonian Audit Center, Skopje	47	57	60	59
7.	Dimitrov Audit, Skopje	24	33	56	48
8.	B&Lj, Boro and Ljupco, LLC Skopje	41	41	47	55
9.	Trio-Consulting LLC Gevgelija	69	50 companies, 1 association of citizens and 5 projects*	56	65
10.	Rafajlovski Audit LLC Skopje	2 construction companies, 22 production, trading and services companies and 1 brokerage house	2 construction companies, 30 production, trading and services companies and 1 brokerage house	36	1 construction company, 35 production, trading and services companies and 1 brokerage house
11.	Censum LLC Skopje	no data in the report	no data in the report	37	42
12.	Pelagoniska Audit Firm LLC Prilep	36	41	31	34
13.	Kojzakliev-Pavleska AD Skopje	6	6	11	16 companies, 5 projects*
14.	Kni-Prokom Prilep	15 companies and 2 public enterprises	15 companies, 5 public enterprises and 2 projects*	26	33
15.	Baker Tilly Macedonia LLC Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	24 companies and 25 projects*	24	22 companies, 10 projects*
16.	Primeko Audit LLC Skopje	30 companies and non-profitable organizations	30 companies and non-profitable organizations	17	23
17.	Revizions LLC Skopje	5 non-profitable organizations and 1 public enterprise	10	12	11 companies, 4 projects*
18.	Audit IAS Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	12	14	25
19.	Efect Plus Audit Firm, Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	12	20	9 companies, 11 projects*
20.	Audit and Consulting firm - ERC - Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	29	34	34
21.	ProAudit Audit Firm, Kumanovo	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	31	33	37
22.	European Audit Center, Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	23	37
23.	Elit, Dance LLC Skopje	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	12	17
24.	Logist, LLS Kumanovo	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	This audit firm did not publish a transparency report	17	9

* Projects financed by financial institution and foreign donors.

Source: Transparency reports of the auditing firms, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010.

The next segment of the transparency reports presents the statements on the policy followed by the audit firms or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor concerning the continuing education of the statutory auditors. Analysis of the presented information related to the CPD of statutory auditors in the Republic of Macedonia leads to the conclusion that, if compared to the other segments in the report, they are the least consistent. The requirement for CPD was introduced for the first time in the Republic of Macedonia with the Audit Law in 2005. In particular, pursuant to Article 21 of the Law, each statutory auditor is obliged to attend at least 40-hour training annually within the continuing professional development to upgrade the knowledge in the field of accounting and auditing, organized by ICARM. Taking into account the fact that ICARM commenced realizing the program on CPD in March 2009, information presented in the transparency report at most of the audit firms regarding the monitoring of training of statutory auditors within ICARM in the course of 2008 can be taken with a pinch of salt. The lack of an organized approach in conduction of CPD in 2008 is the main reason why the data presented in the transparency reports from

2007 are not take into consideration. They just emphasize the need for 40 hours CPD, prescribed by the Law. Part of the audit firms, such as the Big Four, referred to education that is implemented at the level of the network, which they belong to. Similarly, part of the local audit firms indicated that they organized training for their employees, and they strived to update their knowledge by involving the employees in seminars and post-graduate studies in the field of accounting and auditing. This information was not subject to verification by ICARM or the Council for Advancement and Oversight of the Audit. The experiences from the training conducted by the ICARM in 2009 show that only 51% of the total number of auditors has completed their obligation for CPD. The others did not manage fully and there are even statutory auditors who did not accomplished even 10% of the required hours of training. The reasons for such a condition partly lay in the bad dynamics of the organized CPD events. ICARM, within the REPARIS project in accordance with the time available of the foreign experts, organized in total 17 CPD events, the major part of which were in the time of the most intensive field work of the auditors. Besides this, all the events took place in Skopje, which created a problem for the auditors from other cities to attend all the events. Surely, one of the key reasons was as well the rigid requirement of the Law for accomplishing the required 40 hours in the course of one year, which was not feasible for the professionals engaged abroad. Taking into consideration the rigidity of the existing CPD requirement, with the amendments of the Audit Law in 2010, in Article 28 is adopted a more flexible criterion. Namely, the certified auditor shall attend a training of at least 120 hours for the period of three years, i.e. to attend a training of at least 30 hours within the frames of CPD. Besides this, more flexible is the approach of accepting the type of CPD event, which in contrary to the previous solution (the event to be organised only by the ICARM), now offers an alternative for the auditor to attend trainings organised by ICARM or by other relevant institution accredited abroad. What is meant under relevant institution accredited abroad and why is not taken into consideration any other domestic relevant institution, remains an open issue to which the ICARM should provide a concrete answer as soon as possible. Proper determination of rules defining the type of CPD event that will be accepted as appropriate is of substantial significance for the certified auditors, since not attending trainings or the lack of evidence that an adequate training was attended may lead to withdrawal of the license for certified auditors.

According to Article 35, the audit firms are obliged in their transparency reports to disclose even the most sensitive information related to the structure of the realized turnovers. The financial information related to the total audit related turnover and other allowances shall be broken down in four categories: (1) annual and consolidated accounts audit services, (2) other assurance services, (3) tax advisory services and (4) other non-audit related services. Considering the fact that according to the presented transparency reports the structure of realized turnover is dominated by audit related turnover, in Table 2 is given an overview of the audit firms shares in the audit services market in 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010. Data from transparency reports speak of dominant share of the Big Four, together with Grant Thornton, of 71% in 2010, 73% in 2009, 70% in 2008 and 68% in 2007 in the total turnover in the Republic of Macedonia realized based on audit. More detailed analysis of the data points to the fact that in 2007 the dominant share had PriceWaterhouseCoopers with 30% of the total audit-related turnover. Share of KPMG MACEDONIA in the structure of realized turnover is evident in 2008, accounting for 21% compared to the other firms in the group of the Big Four. In the course of 2009, PriceWaterhouseCoopers again dominates in the audit services market accounting for 21% from the total turnover. Similar is the situation in 2010 as well, when PriceWaterhouseCoopers and KPMG MACEDONIA have the highest share of the audit services market. The slice of the audit services cake the domestic audit firms have is minor in the last four years. Special attention should be paid to the fact that the audit services market, measured by the total turnover realized in the last four years, is in continuous growth, from 4,076,359 in 2007 to 5,173,630 in 2010. Maybe the period of four years is too short for one to draw a valid conclusion. However, if we go

into details into the numbers, we may observe slight but significant fluctuations at certain audit firms. The reasons for such fluctuations should be further investigated in a lot more details, which is outside the scope of this paper. Such trend is partially a result of the requirement in the Banking Law as of June 2007 for rotation of audit firms each five years. More specifically, Banking Law does not allow the same audit firm to carry out audit at the same client, i.e. bank, continuously longer than five years. Due to this, arrangements of the Big Four in the financial sector were changed, resulting in losing large clients at part of these firms, and as a result, their turnover dropped on this basis. If we link the data related to the turnover fluctuations with those related to the number of auditees at which the audit firms have conducted audits in the four analyzing years, we may note that at certain firms which number of auditees has decreased, the audit-related turnover has increased. The reason for such a situation remains an open issue. One of the reasons may be the size of the auditee and the fee the audit firms has charged for the service performed. But, certainly the answer to this and other similar issues, in future, should be provided by the quality control of the functioning of the audit firms. By all means, through the turnovers realized from audit and other services one may recognize the red flag for urgent reaction by the quality control.

Besides the previously discussed, the 2010 amendments require the audit firms to state the date of the last quality control over the auditor. The data for 2010 are shown in Table 3. More detailed analysis of the presented data leaves a first impression that there is no consistent approach in disclosing the date when and by whom the last quality control over the auditor was carried out. In spite of the categorical requirement by the Law to state the date of the last quality control performed over the auditor in a separate paragraph of the transparency reports; this is not a case for three audit firms (two domestic audit firms and PriceWaterhouseCoopers). Namely, their reports lack a separate paragraph related to whether the quality control over the auditor was carried out, and in case it was, who did it. Eight audit firms, five of which domestic (local), two of the Big Four (Ernst&Young and KPMG MACEDONIA) and Baker Tilly in their reports stated that they have not been subject to a quality control during the last year. The remaining 13 audit firms have been subject to the quality control that was conducted in 2010 by competent persons from ICARM. From the selected firms subject to the quality control, it can be noticed that only one is from the Big Four (Deloitte LLC Skopje), whereas the other ones are local audit firms. What is the motive for the greater suspicion in the quality of the auditor from local firms vis a vis the Big Four will be concluded from the report and the findings of the Quality Control Commission, on which we will focus in the following part of this paper. Talking about the quality control over the auditor (which is relatively new in the Republic of Macedonia and still operates with limited human resources within ICARM), special attention should be given to the fact that the majority of the audit firms were included in the assessment carried out in 2010. Proceeding with the same dynamics in the following years, the picture for the observations related to the quality of auditors' work in the audit firms operating in the Republic of Macedonia, will be more complete.

Table 2 Structural share of audit firms in other turnover realized on the basis of audit services

	Audit firm	Audit-related turnover in EURO				Percentage			
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2007	2008	2009	2010
1	<i>Ernst&Young Statutory Auditors, Skopje</i>	305,447	508,176	525,353	634,168	7%	10%	10%	12%
2	<i>PricewaterhouseCoopers DOOEL Skopje</i>	1,239,900	669,426	1,092,485	966,396	30%	14%	21%	19%
3	<i>KPMG MACEDONIA DOO Skopje</i>	510,155	1,025,069	938,703	943,541	13%	21%	18%	18%
4	<i>Deloitte DOOEL Skopje</i>	699,936	927,079	653,610	555,970	17%	19%	13%	11%
5	<i>Grant Thornton DOO Skopje</i>	244,663	329,368	563,090	545,582	6%	7%	11%	11%
6	<i>Moore Stephens, Skopje</i>	224,880	195,655	199,512	202,687	6%	4%	4%	4%
7	<i>Dimitrov Audit</i>	242,654	300,946	230,016	262,667	6%	6%	4%	5%
8	<i>B&Lj, Boro and Ljupco, DOO Skopje</i>	151,512	130,407	141,707	161,837	4%	3%	3%	3%
9	<i>Trio-Consulting DOO Gevgelija</i>	140,605	162,445	93,257	96,787	3%	3%	2%	2%
10	<i>Rafajlovski Audit DOO Skopje</i>	72,325	98,553	121,122	96,585	2%	2%	2%	2%
11	<i>Censum DOOEL Skopje</i>	38,968	79,947	90,039	88,464	1%	2%	2%	2%
12	<i>Pelagoniska Audit Firm DOOEL Prilep</i>	65,267	83,712	87,365	77,458	2%	2%	2%	1%
13	<i>Kojzakliev-Pavleska AD Skopje</i>	8,488	8,488	14,895	33,760	0%	0%	0%	1%
14	<i>Kni-Prokom Prilep</i>	29,333	53,854	67,447	48,846	1%	1%	1%	1%
15	<i>Baker Tilly Macedonia</i>	43,841	73,951	84,081	73,675	1%	2%	2%	1%
16	<i>Primeko Audit DOOEL Skopje</i>	56,496	55,064	35,737	39,807	1%	1%	1%	1%
17	<i>Revizions DOO Skopje</i>	1,889	12,190	17,328	28,298	0%	0%	0%	1%
18	<i>Audit IAS</i>	0	14,341	27,496	35,041	0%	0%	1%	1%
19	<i>Efect Plus Audit Firm</i>	0	28,151	42,901	43,367	0%	1%	1%	1%
20	<i>Audit and Consulting firm - ERC - Skopje</i>	0	87,479	65,035	87,479	0%	2%	1%	2%
21	<i>ProAudit Audit Firm, Kumanovo</i>	0	48,423	42,829	55,041	0%	1%	1%	1%
22	<i>European Audit Center, Skopje</i>	0	0	45,146	47,187	0%	0%	1%	1%
23	<i>Elit, Dance DOOEL Skopje</i>	0	27,740	25,203	33,382	0%	1%	0%	1%
24	<i>Logist, DOO Kumanovo</i>	0	0	0	15,607	0%	0%	0%	0%
Total		4,076,359	4,920,463	5,204,359	5,173,630	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Transparency reports of the auditing firms, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010.

Table 3 Date when the last quality control over the auditor was performed

1.	Ernst&Young Statutory Auditors, Skopje	So far, no quality control over the auditor has been conducted, in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law.
2.	PricewaterhouseCoopers LLC Skopje	There is no paragraph for stating whether and when the quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
3.	KPMG MACEDONIA LLC Skopje	In 2010 no quality control over the auditor has been conducted, in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law.
4.	Deloitte LLC Skopje	The last quality control in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law was carried out in November 2010.
5.	Grant Thornton LLC Skopje	In accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law, competent representatives from ICARM conducted quality control in November 2010.
6.	Moore Stephens/ Macedonian Audit Center, Skopje	General quality control was carried out in October 2010 by ICARM. The internal control system was tested and 5 audit engagements performed in 2009, were reviewed.
7.	Dimitrov Audit, Skopje	The last quality control in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law was carried out in February 2010.
8.	B&Lj, Boro and Ljupco, LLC Skopje	There is no paragraph for stating whether and when the quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
9.	Trio-Consulting LLC Gevgelija	The last quality control was carried out by ICARM in October 2010 for the year ending 31.12.2009.
10.	Rafajlovski Audit LLC Skopje	There is no paragraph for stating whether and when the quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
11.	Censum LLC Skopje	ICARM conducted quality control in November and December 2010.
12.	Pelagoniska Audit Firm LLC Prilep	In accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law, ICARM conducted quality control in December 2010.
13.	Kojzakliev-Pavleska AD Skopje	In 2010 no quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
14.	Kni-Prokom Prilep	In 2010 no quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
15.	Baker Tilly Macedonia LLC Skopje	The last quality control over the auditor and the separate audit engagements was conducted in May 2008 by a competent person from Baker Tilly International од Лондон.
16.	Primeko Audit LLC Skopje	ICARM conducted quality control over the auditor in November 2010.
17.	Revizions LLC Skopje	The last quality control in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law was carried out in January 2010.
18.	Audit IAS Skopje	In accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law, ICARM conducted quality control in September 2010.
19.	Efect Plus Audit Firm, Skopje	No quality control has been conducted, in accordance with Article 20 of the Audit Law.
20.	Audit and Consulting firm - ERC - Skopje	There is no paragraph for stating whether and when the quality control over the auditor has been conducted.
21.	ProAudit Audit Firm, Kumanovo	General quality control was carried out in January 2011 by a competent person from ICARM.
22.	European Audit Center, Skopje	The last quality control over the auditor was carried out in November 2010 by ICARM.
23.	Elit, Dance LLC Skopje	The last quality control was carried out in October 2010.
24.	Logist, LLS Kumanovo	There is no paragraph for stating whether and when the quality control over the auditor has been conducted.

Source: Transparency reports of audit companies presented in 2010.

Interesting, as well, is the segment from the transparency report in which competent persons give a statement of audit firm's independent work, thus confirming that internal procedures for independency compliance assessment are in place and that they have been applied. The reports are homogenous in the part of the statement where almost all audit firms in an identical manner confirm the existence and the application of internal procedures for independency compliance assessment. In the other hand, only a part of audit firms (the Big Four and the local's part of professional networks) more thoroughly describe their approach in independency compliance assessment in aspect of audit team members and in aspect of auditors employed in the audit firm. Most frequently this is done by applying procedures for independency assessment which are performed through an annual compliance assessment and independency statements by all the employees in the company, as well as independency statements by the members of the audit team. Taking into account the fact that the auditor's and the audit firm's independence of the client is crucial for quality and impartial performance of the engagement, the quality control in future should pay more attention to this segment of the report. Republic of Macedonia is a small country and thus the independency maintenance presents a serious challenge for the audit firms, especially when fighting for a greater number of clients in the audit services market.

Finally, a new segment in the transparency reports as well is disclosure of the information regarding the basis for determining the auditor's fee. Regarding this segment, again it is interesting that PriceWaterhouseCoopers along with other three local audit firms in their transparency reports have not included a paragraph of explanation of the basis for determining the auditor's fee. The other audit firms

have different approaches. Some give more general criteria such as the complexity of engagement, hierarchical level in the company, the duration of engagement and etc. Unlike these, others, explain that the certifies auditors' fees are determined on two basis: (1) all certified auditors receive a fix salary during the year in accordance with their labour agreement, (2) the certified auditors that in the same time are capital partners in the company, receive a dividend as well, according to the share each partner has in the company's capital. Whether this is such in the reality of life, is to be confirmed by the ICARM quality control. The Audit Law requires compulsory publication of transparency report, but unfortunately it does not include any provisions regarding the consequences of not submitting or of disclosure of data not corresponding to the real ones. Therefore, the ICARM quality control should be especially attentive in detection of data not corresponding to the real ones and in their thorough check.

QUALITY CONTROL OF AUDIT FIRMS' PERFORMANCE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA – FINDINGS FROM THE CONTROL CONDUCTED IN 2009

According to the provisions of the Audit Law of 21 September 2005, ICARM was competent for implementation of ISA and IFAC Code of Ethics. The control shall be conducted based on an annual programme of the ICARM. Amending the Article 19 of the Audit Law in 2010, more precisely were defined the quality control requirements of the audit services. Namely, within the spectrum of competences of ICARM specifically is emphasized the responsibility for conduction of quality control of the certified auditors, audit firms and statutory auditor – sole proprietor on the performed statutory audits at least once in six years, and check of the certified auditors, audit firms and statutory auditor – sole proprietor which perform audits on legal entities of public interest, at least once in three years (Audit Law, Official gazette of the RM, no. 158, December 2010).

The quality control system is very important for ensuring high quality audit services. The high quality of the audit related services contributes to an increased reliability of the issued financial information, thus the audit means greater value and safeguard for the shareholders, investors, creditors and other users of the financial reports. It is because of this, that within the architecture of the ICARM specifically significant post is dedicated to the Quality Control Commission. According to Article 30 of the Statute of ICARM, the Commission is consisted of five members with a mandate of three years and possibility for reelection. Three members of the Commission shall be certified auditors employed in audit firms and/ or statutory auditor – sole proprietor.

The Quality Control Commission is responsible: (1) to propose the Rulebook for the method and procedure for quality control of the audit firms and statutory auditor – sole proprietor; (2) for development and promotion of quality control standards in the audit firms, that shall impose establishment of policies and procedures for conduction of audits; (3) for development and promotion of quality control programme which shall be used for assessment of whether the audit firms have established appropriate policies and procedures for control and whether they comply with them; (4) to submit reports for the quality controls performed to the Ethics Commission; and (5) other issues related to the quality control of the audit services. (Statute of ICARM, ICARM 2005)

The quality control system realized by ICARM has the following objectives: (a) evaluation of the compliance with all regulations, as well as with the requirements of the deontology and ethics and all professional standards; (b) improvement of the quality of audit work and Institute members, and thus, strengthening the social status of audit activities and auditors and increasing the social legitimacy of the audit; (c) Improvement of the reliability of the Macedonian financial market. (Quality Control Report,

ICARM 2010)

In October 2009, the Quality Control Commission for the first time adopted the Annual plan for quality control for 2009. Through means of grant by the World Bank, from the French Institute were selected consultants to help the ICARM in establishment of quality control system. The Quality Control Commission adopted two questionnaires, Preliminary Data Questionnaire (PDQ) and Annual Activities Report (AAR), and the Managerial Board of the ICARM approved both.

- PDQ refers to the organization of the audit firm or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor and to the tools for conduction of audits in accordance with all the regulations, as well as with requirements of the deontology and ethics and all the professional standards
- AAR represents an annual summary of the charger hours, as well as of the audit allowances for each engagement of the audit firm or the statutory auditor – sole proprietor and of the basic financial information of the auditee (total assets, revenues...)

The questionnaires were distributed to all audit firms. As it was already mentioned, the number of audit firms in the Republic of Macedonia is 24, and the number of statutory auditors – sole proprietors is seven, i.e. in total 31 with 67 certified auditors. Since each auditor should be subject to the quality control at least in three years, each year should be controlled approximately 10 audit firms.

Considering the fact that in 2009 for the first time was conducted quality control, its objectives were the following: (1) control of audit firms and certified auditors; (2) identification of areas of improvement of the quality of auditors' work and of the training needs; (3) testing and adaptation of the control process to the implementation of the control in practice and (5) training to the quality controller. Taking into account the above stated objectives as well as the time available for the control, the Quality Control Commission decided that regarding the workload, the year of 2009 would be an exception. Namely, instead of 10, were selected four audit firms. In each of them was reviewed the internal control and instead of three were selected two engagements, including at least one public interest entity, where appropriate. The selection of audit firms subject to control was based on the answers given in the questionnaires, applying the following criteria:

- 2 average audit firms (from 13 to 30 engagements);
- 1 small audit firm or independent auditors (less than 13 engagements);
- 1 company pertaining to a network

PDQ answers that were considered as good or acceptable. (Quality Control Report, ICARM 2010)

The criteria applied in the selection of potential companies subject to quality control lead to an observation that the Commission has not taken into account the information from the published transparency reports, which for an average competent reader may represent a red flag for activation of the control mechanisms of the profession. In Report of 2009 (adopted by the ICARM members in 2010), the Commission puts a special accent on the results of the performed controls broken down in two groups: (1) diagnosis of the organization and the internal control system of audit firms and (2) conclusion from examination of the selected engagements. In the first part, diagnosis of the organization and the internal control system of audit firms, the Commission focuses on several key segments, for which provides general conclusions. In the table 4, broken down in segments, are presented the results from the controls conducted.

Table 4 Diagnosis of the organization and of the internal control system of the audit companies

Audit activity organization in the company according to the professional standards requirements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The audit activity is described either in a form of manual, working guidelines, rulebook for organizational structure or other document where briefly are described the audit process steps. The way the audit activity is described meets the professional standards. One company uses audit software for performance of the audit procedures in accordance with the professional requirements. The way the audit activity is actually organized and performed, depends on the organizational structure of the company, as well. The companies where the audit team is comprised of two certified auditors perform the audit engagements jointly as a team. The deficiency in such case is the provision of independent review.
Human resources dedicated to the audit activity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The certified auditors attend the training organized by ICARM for continuous professional development. The companies are aware of the training requirements for the staff of all levels. But not everywhere can be found records per employee for their improvements in different ways within the company and out of it. In the majority of companies there is no formal system for performance evaluation and assessment. In some companies, their results and the employees merits are summarized in an informal way. In companies, except for one company, there is no system for recording the time spent by audit engagement and engaged auditors. Companies until now did not have a practice to use the work of experts. In some companies there is a written policy for selection and use of experts. In one case there is documented consultation by external commercial organization.
Risk assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The documentation of the independency of companies and employees by the means of questionnaires and other forms of independency statements does not represent a usual practice in the companies. A review and compliance of audit clients and accountancy or other services clients was performed in cases where the company or its members are engaged as well in provision of services other than audit of financial statements. Such a review did not indicate any incompatibility or independency problem. The companies have not formalized the protection measures in case of facing specific risks, for example evaluation of conflict of interest and if needed, undertaking adequate protection measures. The engagement review came across a case where the total fees generated by the client represent a significant percentage of the total fees of the company. Without an evidence of the time spent and existence of relevant time rates of each person being included in performance of professional services, it may be difficult to support the basic assumption that the organization and the auditor behavior as well as the services provided to the client are properly planned, controlled and managed. Risk assessment procedures are not documented, and the data are collected tardy. The companies rarely identify risk factors related to the clients' activity.
Audit engagement performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The main substantive audit procedures are carried out. The operational effectiveness of the controls is not tested. In a small number of cases walk through tests are applied. The selection and application of audit procedures is rarely supported by risks identification and assessment. The selected sample is rarely documented. The support of the process with standard working process is weak. In some cases, the quality control during the conduction of audit engagement is weakened due to lack of reviewer's independency. The documentation of the work done is weak.

Source.: Quality Control Report, Quality Control Commission, ICARM 2010.

Analogously to the first part, in the second part Conclusions from examination of the selected engagements, the Commission segments its conclusion by separate areas of audit engagements, as shown in the table 5.

Table 5 Conclusions from the reviews of the selected engagements

Application of the audit company procedures on the selected engagements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The audit company procedures are applied but with the same weaknesses as indicated in the previous part
Assessment of the proper performance of the engagement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appropriation between the human resources and the engagements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The companies where the audit team is composed of two certified auditors perform the audit engagements jointly as a team. The remaining audit companies appoint an engagement team composed of certified auditor(s) and other staff (assistants, senior auditors etc) regarding the experience with the client or the industry. Audit approach <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The audit approach is not documented and is not identification and risk based approach. The main substantive procedures are carried out. The review indicated to situations when the substantive procedures are not finally completed in order to obtain evidence for the selected sample. The internal controls effectiveness is not tested, nonetheless for certain engagements walk through tests are performed as a regular procedure. Quality of work <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The quality of work only partially fulfills the professional standards requirements. There is a lack of documented conclusions for the selection and the extent of the tests, the audit work performed and auditors' judgments. All the audits of listed entities must have documented quality control review. Documentation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the majority of cases it is weak and insufficient for the risks, extent of procedures and work done, as well as for the conclusion arising from the audit work. Reports <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The audit reports follow the standard form. In one case it was pointed out that the audit report is missing a reference to the qualification given by the previous auditor.

Source.: Quality Control Report, Quality Control Commission, ICARM 2010.

For the purpose of improving the observations and overcoming the weaknesses, the Commission gives the following recommendations:

- The policies and procedures to be adopted by the audit firm must be completed and followed and must determine the volume and type of documentation which will provide evidence of the functioning of each element of the quality control system in accordance with the ISQC1 requirements;
- In its working documents, the audit firm should record information regarding the audit planning, the nature, timeframe and extent of audit procedures, the results from the audit procedures and the conclusions drawn from the audit evidence obtained;
- The audit firm should improve the organization of its working documents, so that it will provide an understanding of the work performed and of the basis on which the main conclusions have been drawn;
- The members of the audit team must attend trainings related to risks and to the audit procedures as a response to the assessed risks. (Quality Control Report, ICARM 2010)

From the Commission Report on quality controls performed in 2009 may be noticed the lack of sanctions for the audit firms and certified/ statutory auditors where certain weaknesses were found. This approach is due to the attitude of the Commission that the first controls should be educative and should bring about positive vibrations in the audit firms for adjustment of their work to the requirements of the legal and professional regulation. The sanctions are left for the time to come, in case of repetition of the weaknesses or rejection to implement the given recommendations.

TRANSPARENCY REPORTS VIS A VIS QUALITY CONTROL

If we try to draw a parallel between the transparency reports and the Quality Control Report, we may conclude that the transparency and the quality control within the audit profession in the Republic of Macedonia are functioning as two separate universes. Since the beginning, the obligation for preparation and publications of transparency reports by the audit firms presented a bureaucracy nightmare. For the first, they were required to demystify what was previously considered confidential information. There was a fear about how the public will perceive the presented information and who will be their potential readers and for what purposes they will use them. However, the barrier that existed in the first year following the adoption of the Audit Law was soon overcome and the transparency reports became reality. The nightmare of writing the report was as well overcome in a relatively short period. The audit firms, with few exceptions, accepted the form and the sequence of elements of transparency reports envisaged by the Audit Law. Besides this, after four years of their publication still remains open the question whether and to what extent can be trusted the information disclosed in them. This dilemma especially arises from the fact that there are no legally envisaged sanctions for those audit firms that will disclose inaccurate information. Our detailed analysis of the transparency reports published in the period 2007-2010 demonstrates that the length of the report is dependent on the seriousness of the audit firms approach. There are one-page reports, but there are as well reports consisted of ten pages. In some of the reports, the information is disclosed in details broken down in segments, whereas in others there is only one paragraph leaving a room for the reader to use his/ her imagination and conclude what it is concretely about. Unfortunately, there are reports in which whether by accident or design are omitted certain segments making them incomplete and hardly comparable to the other. In significant part of the reports, the financial information for the turnover realized on the four bases is not disclosed in accordance with the Audit Law requirements. Taking into consideration the previously discussed issues, we directed our view to the quality control and to the necessity for it to check this information and point a finger at those audit firms, which by irregular and inaccurate presentation of information in the transparency reports manipulate the potential readers.

The analysis of the Quality Control Report, presented by the Quality Control Commission points out to a methodological approach when selecting the potential audit firms subject to a quality control, based on the usage of questionnaires. The red flags that the reader of transparency reports may identify by reading and analyzing them attentively do not present an activating alarm for the Quality Control Commission. The number of conducted controls brings a hope that the ICARM through the Quality Control Commission starts the battle with the audit firms that do not respect the profession rules and is prepared to sanction and eliminate the auditors who behave in a contrary to the ISA and the Code of Ethics. The domestic audit profession was not exposed to greater tectonic disruptions arising from the corporate scandals such as Enron, Parmalat, Worldcom etc. However, this does not mean that in the previous years the auditors were immaculate. The approach of the Quality Control Commission in the first year to pass over the bad people in the profession and the disclose the findings as generalized conclusion, should present a serious signal to the audit firms and to the auditors that the recurrence of the shortcomings will not remain unsanctioned. A contrary, the tolerance of the shortcomings, especially not sanctioning their recurrence leaves wide open the door for affirmation of non-professionalism and confidence destruction of the auditors operations in the public. One report, regardless how detailed it is, cannot create the big image of the level of performance quality of auditors and audit firms in the Republic of Macedonia. It is left for the time to show whether the Quality Control Commission will identify the red flags from the transparency reports in order to activate its control mechanisms and to prevent occurrence of corporate scandals, for which a part of the responsibility will be addressed to the audit profession. This is particularly important since the public confidence the audit firms are trying to gain in the last years can be easily lost if they whether by accident or intentionally “forget” the requirements of the quality standards when conducting the audit engagements.

CONCLUSION

The transparency requirement has no meaning by itself, unless the data presented in transparency reports are subject to a more detailed observation by relevant professional authorities. It is because of these reasons that through a comparative overview of data, disclosed in the transparency reports in the Republic of Macedonia in the last four years, we tried to point out to certain missing segments, to data not corresponding to the reality, to unprofessional approach of the audit firms when disclosing the data, as well as to open suspicions of the reality of presented data. Within the architecture of domestic audit profession the sole responsible body for quality control performance of the audit firms and certified auditors is the Quality Control Commission at ICARM. There is a serious challenge in front of it. One year after its active quality control performance it is unreal for one to expect spectacular findings. But, what is surprising for sure is the marginalization of the transparency reports data when selecting the potential quality control subjects. The usage of questionnaires as a methodological approach may be a useful tool in the selection of the potential quality control subjects. But the continuous presentation of the transparency reports in the last four years and comparison of data among the audit firms as well as within the firm itself shows a lot of inconsequence's and inconsistencies that deserve greater attention by the Quality Control Commission. The public that comes into contact with the transparency reports must not and should not be subject to manipulation by the audit firms. Such attempts must and should be prevented by the Quality Control Commission. This is the only way for the audit profession to keep the confidence in the public and the users of audit reports will perceive the transparency reports as a result of quality done job.

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CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECT OF MERGERS AND ACQUISITIONS ON CORPORATE GROWTH AND PROFITABILITY

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ABSTRACT

It is a widely held view that a strategic solution to financial distress in corporate organizations is mergers and acquisitions. This is at best a presumption, which has not been verified through a research study. Corporate organizations facing difficulties have in recent times often followed or are compelled by regulators to follow the path of extensive reconstruction through mergers and acquisitions, apparently as the only option to liquidation. This paper fills the gap by investigating the effects of mergers and acquisitions on the efficiency, growth and profitability of corporate organizations in the post consolidated environment of the Nigerian banking industry. The methodology used is a survey of companies incorporated in Nigeria under the Companies and Allied Matters Act [1990], which have undergone a merger or an acquisition process. The elements of the survey were selected randomly. A total of ten incorporated banks were selected using simple random sampling technique. The collected data were analyzed using key financial ratios. The result found evidence to support that mergers and acquisitions are not a prima facie solution to the problem of financial distress in corporate organizations. This is more so when they are regulatory imposed than business environment driven. The study further revealed that while mergers and acquisitions can drive growth and profitability in some organizations, operating efficiency suffers at least in the short-term in the post merger and acquisition corporate entity. It was also found that mergers and acquisitions provided only a temporary solution to financial distress and no solution at all to operating indiscipline.

KEYWORDS: Merger, Acquisition, Financial Crises, Incorporated Organization, Reconstruction, Corporate Growth, Profitability.

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Business Organizations are established to achieve certain corporate objectives. Among these objectives is corporate growth and increase in profitability. Growth is one major yardstick by which the success of a business firm is measured. Business organizations operate in dynamic environments which includes financial constraints as a result of economic down-turn. The resultant effect of the recent world economic meltdown is the huge financial crisis among corporate organizations. One of the strategies that are open to these organizations for survival is Merger, Acquisition or Consolidation.

Companies have been combining in various configurations since the early days of business. Nevertheless, joining two companies is a complex process because it involves every aspect of merging companies. Merger has been defined as the combination of two or more separate firms into a single firm. The firm that results from the process could take any of the following identities: Acquirer identity or a complete new identity. Pandey, (2000) opined that Mergers, Amalgamations and Takeovers are important features of corporate structural changes.

Statement of the Problem

The economic situation in Nigeria is currently turbulent which results in most organizations facing one problem or the other. The problems are more pronounced in the banking industry. The problems faced ranged from loss of market share by many struggling banks, liquidity crisis leading to inability to pay depositors, operating losses and continuing erosion of capital base. The problems also include low turnover, low profit, low dividend payout, declining growth rate to high operating cost. It got to a pick in July 2004 when the then Governor of Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Charles Soludo described the Nigerian Banks as 'fragile'. He disclosed that Nigerian Banks "as at the end of march 2004, the CBN's ratings classified 62 banks as sound/satisfactory, 14 as marginal and 11 as unsound while 2 of the banks did not render any return during the period". The Central Bank also reported that 45 banks or more than one-half of banks in operations recorded loan-deposit ratios of 100 per cent and above and 21 banks failed to meet the minimum liquidity ratio. A more fundamental restructuring policy was clearly needed for the banking industry. Based on the foregoing problems, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) came up with major policy reform that required Banks licensed in Nigeria to increase their paid up capital to a minimum of N25 billion (Twenty five billion Naira) on or before 31st December 2005. These problems together with the CBN policy lead to serious financial crisis. It was alleged that the only solution available to these organizations to get out of the financial crisis is Merger and Acquisition.

Many studies have been conducted on Mergers and Acquisitions but such study was not conducted to examine the effect of Mergers and Acquisitions on growth, corporate profitability and particularly, whether it is the best solution to get organizations out of financial crisis. This study will attempt to fill the gap by examining Mergers and Acquisitions in this area between 2004 and 2008.

Research Question

- Is Merger and Acquisition the best solution to bail organization out of financial crises?
- What is the effect of post Merger and Acquisition on the general performance of the organization?
- Is there any effect of Merger and Acquisition on share holders of the organization?
- Is there any effect of Merger and Acquisition on management of the organization?
- What is the effect of Merger and Acquisition on corporate profitability?

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

- To examine the reasons for merger and the aftermath of merger.

- Evaluate the financial status during pre and post mergers of the organizations under study with the principal aim of determining the effect of merger on corporate growth and corporate profitability.

Literature Review

The International Encyclopedia of social science, vol. 9 & 10 reveals that most countries have no good record of Merger and Acquisition development. However, it was on record that the first incidence occurred between 1890 and 1904 in the United State of America. The second incidence was in 1920 at the end of the First World War. The third incidence occurred at the latter part of the Second World War (between 1939 and 1945) during which large number of manufacturing and mining firms totaling about 2400 merged. In Nigeria, Merger and Acquisition remain few and unpopular. The earliest known merger and acquisition that occurred in Nigeria was in 1926 between West African Soap Company Ltd and Van Der Berg Ltd (producers of margarine)- Shamsudeen (1997). Since then there have been increased discussion and awareness on Merger and Acquisition in Nigeria. The decade 1995 and 2005 was traumatic for banking industries in Nigeria which led to distress and general overhauling the industry. In 2004, the regulating body prescribed a minimum shareholders' fund of 25billion Naira for licensed Banks operating in Nigerian. This financial crisis led to Mergers, Acquisition or Consolidation in the industry. The result of this policy was that out of the 89 banks that were then in operation, 75 of them representing 80% merged into 25 banks while the remaining 14 representing 20% that could not finalize the merging process went into liquidation.

Meaning Of Mergers, Acquisitions And Consolidation

Mergers: A merger is defined as “any amalgamation of the undertaking or any part of the undertakings or interest of two or more companies or the undertakings or part of the undertakings of one or more companies and one or more bodies corporate” (CAMA 1990 : S.590). Brian Coyle (2000:2) describes mergers as the coming together of two companies of roughly equal size, pooling their resources into a single business. The stockholders or owners of both pre-merger companies have a share in the ownership of the merged business...According to Weston and Copeland (1989), Merger means any transaction that forms one economic unit from two or more previous ones. It occurs when a corporation and or more incorporated or unincorporated businesses are brought together into one accounting entity. The single entity now carries on the activities of the previously separated independent enterprises. One or more companies may also merge with an existing company or they may merge to form a new company. Merger is also referred to as amalgamation.

Acquisition: Acquisition also referred to as ‘take-over’ means the process of combining two or more companies and in which one acquires the assets and liabilities of the other in exchange for cash or shares, goods and or debentures. Section 590 of Companies and Allied Matters Act, 1990 refers to acquisition as “take-over”. It went ahead to define take-over as “the acquisition by one company of sufficient share in another company to give the acquiring company control over that other company”. The purchase consideration for an acquisition is paid by largely or entirely in cash. Harold Fritz (1993), described acquisition to mean all the processes, terms, conditions and fulfillment adopted to purchase a small firm by a big and well established unit. Acquisitions of companies can be either full or partial. In a full acquisition, the acquirer buys all the stock capital of the purchase company. In partial acquisition, the acquirer obtains a controlling interest, normally above 50% but below 100% Pandey (1997: 885) said

that in acquisition, the target company becomes either a division or a subsidiary of the acquiring company.

The study titled “Effect of Mergers on corporate Performance in India” conducted by Vardhana Pawaskar (2001) studied the impact of mergers on corporate performance. It compared the pre and post merger operating performance of the corporations involved in merger between 1992 and 1995 to identify their financial characteristics. The study identified the profile of the profits. The regression analysis explained there was no increase in the post merger profits. The study of a sample of firms, restructured through mergers, showed that the merging firms were at the lower end in terms of growth, tax and liquidity of the industry. The merged firms performed better than industry in terms of profitability.

Mansur. A. Mulla (2003) contributing in his case study titled “Forecasting the viability and Operational Efficiency”, assessed the financial performance of a textile company by using ratio analysis. The study found that the financial health was never in the healthy zone during the entire study period and ratio analysis highlighted that managerial incompetence accounted for most of the problems. It also suggested toning up effectiveness of all facets of management and put the companion a profitable footing.

Various studies have shown that most mergers and acquisitions result in failure, yet the concept remain popular, Virani, (2009) opined in his study that “Corporate mergers and acquisitions continue to be popular despite the reported high incidence of its failure rate ..., during the last two decades thanks to globalization, liberalization technological developments and (an) intensely competitive business environment”. The reasons for the few successes and the many failures remain obscure (Stahl, Mendenhall and Weber, 2005)

Review Regulatory Framework For Consummation Of Mergers And Acquisitions In Nigeria

The statute which provides the legal framework within which mergers and acquisitions can be carried out in Nigeria is summarized below:

- The Investment and Securities Act (ISA) No. 45 of 1999.
- The Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA) 1990 (as amended)
- The banks and other financial institutions Act (BOFIA) No. 25 of 1991
- The insurance Act 2003
- Companies Income Tax Act cap. 60 of 1990 (As Amended)
- The Rules and Regulations issued by the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), pursuant to sections 258 and 262 of the ISA (the ISA rules)

Research Design And Methodology

The research design adopted for this study is the survey method. Secondary data were collected from financial statements, reports and Accounts of the 10 sampled Banks. The collected data were analyzed

using financial ratio namely: Profitability Ratio, Liquidity Ratio, Capital adequacy etc Personal Interview was conducted. A total of 20 Chief Executives and Managers of the Sampled Banks were interviewed.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Impact of Mergers & Acquisitions on Corporate Growth: Mergers and acquisitions stimulated strong growth in the banking sector and the growth indicators in earnings and size of the balance sheet recorded in the first two years of post consolidation are unmatched anytime in the history of Nigerian banking. Triple digit growth in asset size, revenue and profit was recorded in the selected banks.

Table 4.1 : The summary of the Impact of consolidation on some bank's statistics in Nigerian banking industry

	Pre –Consolidation Years			Post Consolidation Years	
	2000	2002	2004	2006	2007
No. of Banks	89	89	89	25	25
No. of Bank Branches	2306	3132	3386	3468	4579
Total Assets' Base of Banks (N' Billion)	1,707	2,767	3,392	6,738	10,431
Capital and Reserves (N' Billion)	395	822	1,050	957	n/a
Av. Cap. And Reserve per Bank (N' Billion)	443	923	1,180	3,828	n/a
Liquidity Ratio (%)	58	49	42	53	n/a
Loan-to-Deposit Ratio (%)	46	78	85	98	n/a

Source Central Bank of Nigeria's Statement of Accounts and Annual Reports, cited from Journal of Banking, The Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria.

The above table shows the number of banks reduced from 89 to 25 while the number of bank branches increased from 3,382 in 2004 to 4,579 in 2007. This implies that consolidation has led to increase in the spread of banks in Nigeria as given by the number of bank branches. The table further shows that total assets base of bank increased from 3,392 billion Naira in 2004 to 10,431 billion Naira in 2007 while total capital reserves reduced from 1,050 billion naira to 957 billion naira between 2004 and 2006. Though there was a decrease in capital and reserve, the average capital and reserve per bank increased from N11.8 billion to 38.28 billion during the same period. The liquidity ration increased from 42% in 2004 to 2006 though still below the 2000 figure of 58% and finally, the loan-to-deposit ratio shows an increase from 85%, in 2004 to 98% in 2006. Impact of Consolidation on Individual banks studied

Table 4.2 : First Bank of Nigeria Plc N' m

Year	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2004	51,318	11,618	384,211
2005	57,255	13,050	470,839
2006	67,440	17,383	616,824
2007	90,323	18,383	884,804
2008	155,725	36,679	1,528,234

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years

The operating capacity of each of the banks was significantly increased through a combination of mergers and acquisitions and new equity capital build up. This increased the revenue and profit capacities of the banks significantly in two years of post consolidation. Table 4 above showed the impact of consolidation in First Bank of Nigeria Nig. Plc. First Bank is one of the largest banks in the country lifted the size of the balance sheet almost one and half times, (i.e. about 147.8%) from N616,824 million in March 2006 to N1,528,234 million in March 2008. Gross earnings of the bank swelled from N67,440 million to

N155,725 million during the same period, a leap of 130.9%. The bank's net profit also advanced by 111.0% from N17,383 million in 2006 to N36,679 million in March 2008.

Table 4.3: United Bank for Africa Plc. N' m

Year	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2004	24,510	4,525	212,024
2005	26,089	4,921	250,783
2006	90,447	11,550	884,137
2007	109,457	21,540	1,191,063
2008	169,506	41,239	1,673,333

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years

United Bank for Africa is another large bank in Nigeria. Its total assets were N884, 137 million in September 2006 which was raised by 89.3% to N1, 673,333 million in September 2008. Gross earnings advanced by 87.4% from N90, 447 million to N169, 506 million during the same period. Net profit of the bank jumped by 257% from N11, 550 million to N41, 239 million during the same period.

Table 4.4: Intercontinental Bank Plc. N' m

Year	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2003	21,204	3,112	96,858
2005*	32,795	5,703	203,647
2006	41,517	7,217	369,232
2007	87,920	15,121	704,783
2008	174,615	33,994	1,392,210

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years *Change of accounting year

Table 4.4 showed the statistics on Intercontinental Bank Nig. Plc. It is also one of the largest banks in the post consolidated environment. It grew its balance sheet size by 277.1% from N369, 232 in February 2006 to N1, 392,210 million in February 2008. Its revenue base rose from N41, 517 million to N174,615 million over the period an increase of 320.6%. Net profit of the bank also surged upwards from N7,217 million to N33,994 million, a 371% advance.

Table 4.5: Oceanic Bank International [Nig.] Plc. N' m

Year to Sept	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2004	12,624	3,288	86,884
2005	24,488	5,897	217,803
2006	44,685	9,559	372,035
2007	74,937	17,532	1,038,437
2008	188,218	9,609	1,246,182

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years

Oceanic Bank, also one of the leading banks in the Nigerian banking industry, raised its asset base from N372,035 million in September 2006 to N1,246,218 million in September 2008. Gross income rose by 321.2% from N44, 685 million to N188, 218 million over the period. Net profit grew from N9, 559 million in September 2006 to N17, 532 million in September 2007 before dropping in 2008 as a result of the impact of financial crisis.

Table 4.6: Access Bank Nigeria Plc. N' m

Year to March	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2004	5,515	638	31,342
2005	7,495	502	66,918
2006	13,359	732	174,554
2007	27,881	6,083	328,615
2008	57,999	15,881	1,045,568

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years

Access Bank is one of the medium Banks that operate in Nigeria. Growth in operating figures was even more spectacular in the medium and small banks. Access Bank, for instance, which was a bank of N174, 554 million asset bases in March 2006 closed with a balance sheet size of N1, 045,568 million in March 2008. Its revenue base swelled from N13, 359 million to N57,999 million over the period. The bank's net profit multiplied from N732 million to N15, 881 million in two years to 2008.

Table 4.7: Fidelity Bank Plc. N' m

Year to June	Gross Earnings	Net Profit	Total Assets
2004	5,471	914	27,552
2005	6,159	1,237	34,953
2006	11,931	3,177	121,089
2007	24,859	4,437	218,332
2008	42,660	13,150	535,479

Source: Annual Report & Accounts – Various Years

Fidelity Bank, which was among the smallest banks in the post consolidated operations, registered some of the highest growth indices. Its asset base rose from N121, 089 million in June 2006 to N535,479 million in June 2008, a growth of 342.2%. The bank raised gross earnings by 257.6% from N11, 931 million to N42,660 and net profit by 313.9% from N3,177 million to N13,150 million during the period.

The growth in revenue and balance sheet figures reflected in all main income lines and asset classes respectively. High growth in operating figures was industry wide and happened even in the few banks that did not apply mergers and acquisitions to meet the Central Bank's requirement. The growth driver in those other banks was fresh equity injections. However banks that applied mergers/acquisitions and new equity capital injections generally grew much faster. Therefore, it is safe to infer that there is significant growth in most of the banks after consolidation. Impact of Mergers & Acquisitions on Bank Profitability

Table 4.8: Banking Industry Performance Ratios [%]

Indicator	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Net Profit Margin	15.0	18.3	20.3	22.4	25.0
Return on Total Assets	2.6	2.2	2.3	3.4	2.5
Return on Equity	20.3	16.4	12.6	15.5	14.9
Net Interest Margin	51.9	59.8	63.5	62.8	65.4
Interest Income/Loans & Advances	24.8	19.0	19.1	15.8	14.5
Interest Cost/Total Deposits	8.1	5.8	4.5	3.8	3.9
Operating Cost Margin	47.7	45.9	47.5	44.3	40.4

Source: Nigeria Banking & Economy, 2007 & 2010

The observed high growth in profit numbers among the post consolidated banks was analyzed further by examining profitability ratios. We found that the banks maintained a trend of improving profitability

ratios in the first two years of their consolidation. The ability to convert revenue into profit was consistently improved between 2006 and 2008. Industry average net profit margin improved from 20.3% in 2006 to 25% in 2008. The improvement was traced to economy of scale benefits that enabled the banks to streamline costs generally.

Rates of return failed to match the high growth in profit as a result of huge equity capital injections in 2005 and 2007. However rates of return were slightly better in 2008 for the industry than recorded in 2006. The ability of the banks to improve rates of return even marginally despite huge public offers that extended into a second round was indeed a feat on the part of the banks.

Net interest margin improved among the banks analyzed, indicating a good ability to grow interest income ahead of interest expenses. The consolidation process swept off the marginal banks that used to borrow at penal rates of interest, compelling depositors to accept the low interest structure of the large banks. Also, during the consolidation period, investors withdrew huge funds from the rest of the economy to invest in the banking industry. The injection of the huge funds raised the liquidity of banks significantly, which reduced interest rates on deposit liabilities generally. The boom in the economy in the post consolidated environment enabled banks to expand their lending operations rapidly, which saw rapid growth in interest income as well.

Excessive liquidity in the hands of banks in the post mergers and acquisition trading made banks compete actively on the asset side of the balance sheet. This led to rapid expansion of the loan portfolio, which was the main driver of the high growth in the size of the balance sheet. The significantly increased lending capacity of banks and the easier availability of credit even at micro finance level resulted in a general decline in interest income earned from loans and advances. The banking industry average interest income from loans and advances declined in the post merger and acquisition environment from 19.1% in 2006 to 15.8% in 2007 and further down to 14.5% in 2008.

The decline in interest income from loans and advances was more than compensated by the massive increase in the credit portfolio volumes. There was also a corresponding decline in interest expenses due to the high level of liquidity in the system. The average interest rate paid on the naira of deposit liabilities by banks declined from 4.5% in 2006 to 3.8% in 2007 and inched up at 3.9% in 2008. The decline in interest cost was slightly more than the decline in interest income, which resulted in the slight improvement in net interest margin during the period.

Mergers and acquisitions also provided an opportunity for banks to rationalize operating cost by applying the economy of scale benefits. While the operating capacities of the merged banks expanded, the cost of financing the operations grew at a significantly reduced pace. Banks grew revenues faster than costs, which again explains the general improvement in profit margins. Industry average pre-tax profit generated per employee grew significantly from N4.7 million in 2006 to N8.2 million in 2008.

The average operating cost margin for the banking industry declined from 47.5% in 2006 to 44.3% in 2007 and further to 40.4% in 2008, the lowest average industry operating cost margin in many years. This means, banks utilized lower cost to drive bigger operating capacities. In other words the cost of generating the naira of revenue declined in the post merger and acquisition operations. Impact of Mergers & Acquisitions on Operating Efficiency

Table 4.9: Banking Industry Loan Performance Ratios [%]

Indicator	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
% of Classified Loans	15.7	12.7	14.8	11.2	4.5
Loan Loss Reserve/Classified Loans	85.3	82.5	82.5	92.8	108.0

Source: *Nigeria Banking & Economy, 2007 & 2010*

The impact of mergers and acquisitions on the operating efficiency of banks seems to follow a random pattern rather than any identifiable general trend. This outcome seems to reflect the unusual circumstance in which the mergers and acquisition strategy was applied. The policy was applied mainly for regulatory compliance rather than market or business environment driven. There was also an officially dictated time of 18 months within which the merger and acquisition process must be completed.

Meeting regulatory compliance appears to have been a more important consideration in choosing merger partners than improving internal efficiency. Hence banks differed widely in their efforts to integrate the merged entities into the main operating system. It was comparatively much easier for the large banks that acquired smaller banks to achieve operating stability in the post consolidated environment than the smaller banks that either merged or amalgamated. One or two banks that had similar operating structures before the acquisition found it easier to achieve an integrated operating system than the rest.

The worst affected banks could not issue audited financial statements for two to three years after consolidation. These comprise mainly the amalgamated banks that set out to build one bank out of several merger entities with different operating systems and corporate cultural backgrounds. There were others that were held down by weak partners and therefore could not find their feet long after the conclusion of the merger or acquisition. In the course of the delay in achieving an integrated operating structure, operating efficiency suffered severely. The effort to meet high returns promises made to investors in the process of high equity capital raising programmes did not permit a cautious approach needed to strengthen internal efficiency. Many banks doubled large-sized loan portfolios within one financial year; other assets tripled in some cases and investment assets surged almost without limit.

The initial indications were that banks were growing both credit volume with quality at the same time. The industry average percentage of classified loans declined from 14.8% in 2006 to 11.2% in 2007, dropping to 4.5% in 2008. This outcome contradicted the normal expectation for rapid portfolio expansion to lead to deterioration in credit quality. Apparently, signals of an underlying credit quality problem were ignored until the economy faltered under the global financial crisis.

The improvement in credit quality ratios amid the most aggressive risk portfolio expansion in history is not considered an indication of efficiency in the post merger and acquisition entities. It is seen rather as an evidence of reduced efficiency in institutions that began to expand business volume without first achieving operating stability. Banks competed to grow their loan portfolios aggressively without having in place effective machinery for recovery of bad assets. This means that mergers and acquisition did not result in the creation of effective risk management model in banks.

During the financial crisis that followed it was observed that only two banks that applied caution in growing business volume were least affected by the problem of huge credit losses that hit the banking industry adversely. The poor risk management quality is traceable to regulatory disposition that governed the consolidation process. The main objective of the regulatory authorities is to build large banking institutions that would become visible in the global market place. The Central Bank created some

incentives such as external reserve management opportunity for banks to build the size of their balance sheets. Consequently, a number of banks did first and second round large equity raising programmes after concluding mergers and acquisitions. It is apparent that in the competitive size building endeavour, operating efficiency suffered greatly.

This position is further corroborated by the finding of Nigeria Banking & Economy 2009 – a banking industry report that the observed improvement in credit quality of the banking industry was not a reflection of progress in recovering bad assets. It showed that the improvement is an outcome of a more rapid growth of the gross loan portfolio than non-performing loans. That situation placed many banks in precarious positions when a large proportion of hitherto good accounts were swept into the bad debts portfolios in 2009. A number of banks faced challenges of becoming big almost over night. They faced the hurdle of how to manage size and defend quality at the same time. Nigeria Banking & Economy had in 2006 noted that being big and efficient are not known to go together and saw the need for banks to develop firm strategies to deal with the challenges of becoming large institutions.

According to the report, “most banks are driven headlong by the objective of building the size of the balance sheet in order to create or enhance visibility in the international market... but how to deal with the challenges of managing size hasn’t received equal attention”. It warned that banks that fail to build operating structures that match efficiency with volume growth will face a decline in operating efficiency and service delivery quality.

Summery of Findings

- Mergers and acquisitions served the objective of regulators to cure the banking system of financial distress only on a temporary basis. The analysis found that the expectation that building large banks through mergers and acquisition would provide a permanent solution to financial crises in the banking industry has not been realized. Mergers and Acquisition in the Banking industry only provide temporary solution to financial distress in the industry. Two years after the conclusion of mergers and acquisitions, financial distress returned to the banking sector. Even in the immediate post merger environment, four of the banks could not find their feet and remained virtually distressed, warranting regulatory intervention in their affairs.
- It was further revealed that the Central Bank’s policy of consolidation under which mergers and acquisitions were applied has some fallout that made the industry vulnerable.
 - ✓ The first is the straight jacket policy of banking consolidation that prevented banks from specializing in various aspects of the financial services market. The policy thus eliminated opportunities for niche operations and closed the room for a diversified banking services market in the country.

Consequently, all the banks focused essentially on the same economic sectors, the same market segments and customers offering the same products. This made banking services excessively concentrated to the extent that major customers featured in all the banks. In a particular case, one customer featured in facilities from various banks to the tune of over N88 billion. When he got into trouble, all the banks got into trouble with him. The situation made the business of banking highly vulnerable to the vicissitudes of the economic cycle.

- ✓ The second fallout of banking consolidation is that the policy was directly set out to build the banking sector rather than the economy. Resources were withdrawn from the rest of the economy to build the banking sector. Hence the real sector stagnated while the financial sector boomed. There were therefore no ready channels for the huge resources in the hands of banks to get into productive activities. This led to excessive concentration of banks in the money and capital markets. Such concentration positioned the industry for a monumental collapse in the wake of the global financial crisis.
- ✓ About 70% of those interviewed agreed that the effect of merger and acquisition on shareholders is that the shareholdings will be diluted and dividend ratio will also be affected. Also management style and structure will also change.
- ✓ A risk management audit conducted by the Central Bank in 2009 revealed serious health problems in many banks, which necessitated a N620 billion bail-out of the worst affected banks in September 2009. Massive credit losses were recorded by all the banks in operation, which wiped off reserves and sank equity capital of a number of banks into negative, as shown in the table 12 below.

Table 4.10 Capital Deficiencies in Rescued/Weak Banks – December 2009

Bank	Equity Capital N/b
Intercontinental Bank	- 380.0
AfriBank	-258.1
Union Bank	-238.3
Bank PHB	-194.6
FinBank	-125.9
Oceanic	-115.9
Wema Bank	-45
Unity Bank	0.7

Source: Datatrust

The table shows the extent loss to which the individual banks have thrown the equity capital share capital. All the banks except the Unity bank are having negative capital as at December 2009. The import of this is that the financial distress, which the regulators sought to cure through mergers and acquisitions, has returned into the banking system even at a bigger dimension. In the present dispensation, the distressed banks are much bigger than the small, marginal banks that either merged or were closed and they pose a far bigger threat of systemic crisis.

The analysis also revealed that the serious health problems of banks have also been traced to the existence of a high level of indiscipline and fraudulent activities on the part of top level management of banks. A number of former management executives of banks were deposed by the Central Bank and are presently facing trial for massive fraudulent deals. The amounts involved are several multiples of the figures for which any previous bank official has ever been charged.

The expectation of the Central Bank was that big banks will be less inclined to indulge in undisciplined behavior, fraud or flouting of regulatory rules. The actual position as revealed by this project is that the bigger the bank, the bigger the size of fraudulent deals, the level of financial recklessness and capacity to play contrary to the rules of the game.

Recommendations

The following are the major recommendations of this study.

- The banks should significantly improve their corporate governance so as to ensure successful and sustainable banking operation that ensure good internal control.
- In the case of financial crises, the Nigerian banking regulators should ensure the economic environment to decide the merger and acquisition process rather than the regulatory imposed process.
- The key personnel that will be at the helm of affairs of these banks should be carefully screened, professionally qualified and must be men of integrity.
- The companies, which underwent merger activity, must keep sufficient current assets to set off their current liabilities.
- The stake holders of merging companies are advised to analyze the profitability, liquidity and capital adequacy position of the respective companies before embarking on merger process.
- The regulators (CBN) should take steps to improve the existing bank inspections/ Audit and their report. Such report must be taken seriously and acted upon without delay.
- Adequate care should be taken to satisfy all conditions necessary for merger to be valid under the provisions of The Investment and Securities Act (ISA) No. 45 of 1999, the Rules and Regulations of SEC (Pursuant to the ISA), the Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA) 1990 (as amended), the banks and other financial institutions Act (BOFIA) No. 25 of 1991 and Companies Income Tax Act cap. 60 of 1990 (As Amended).
- Finally, the study is by no means exhaustive, but has examined the effect of merger and acquisition on profitability, liquidity, capital adequacy and whether it is the best option to bail organizations out of financial crises. The study was limited to banking industry. Other researchers could extend the research to other industry and also investigate the effect of merger under economic meltdown.

CONCLUSION

The process of corporate restructuring through mergers and acquisitions is very relevant when corporate organizations are in financial crisis. The financial characteristics of the concerned firm play a critical role in the merger decision process. It is also important that the factors within the business environment rather than the regulatory imposed policy should be taken into consideration in the merger decision process. The present study analyzed the financial situation of sampled banks from the view point of profitability, liquidity and capital adequacy and the determination as to whether merger is the best option to bail out corporate organization from financial crisis. From the overall analysis, it is found that merger and acquisition, if well consummated and managed can positively stimulate growth, increase in profitability and corporate efficiency but it is not the best solution to bail corporate organization out of financial crises.

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BIOGRAPHY

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EVALUATION OF FINANCIAL ACCOUNTABILITY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: A NECESSARY CONCEPT FOR GOOD GOVERNANCE

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ABSTRACT

The study is an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of confidence placed on public officers in the management and their stewardship accounting to the citizens. The methodology used is a survey of ten federal Ministries and ten Parastatal and Government Agencies. The population of the survey was selected randomly; secondary data contained in books, financial statements and interview were used. The analysis of the finding/responses showed that accountability in the Nigerian public sector is poor and the present procedure for accountability need critical review. The study recommends that every government department, ministry and Agency, should in every financial, produce an interim financial statement that includes budgetary provision for the period together with a report of performance, variance analysis and factors inhibiting performance. Such accounts and reports should be published for public comment.

KEYWORDS: Public Accountability; Corporate Governance; Parastatal; Government Ministries and Agencies; Financial Regulation; Answerability and Enforceability.

INTRODUCTION

Public Accountability is the hallmark of modern democratic governance. Democracy remains a paper procedure if those in power cannot be held accountable in the public for their acts and omissions, for their decisions, their policies, and their expenditures. Public Accountability is the basic tenet of democracy Cook, (1998). Accountability in the public sector throughout the world is being given serious attention in view of the fact that the government is the highest spender of public fund. Those in authorities assume fiduciary status with the attendant responsibilities requiring them to render their stewardship accounts to those for whom the authority is held in trust. The general public is increasingly requiring public officers to be accountable by demonstrating effective use of public assets and funds in the delivery of services and pursuit of government objectives (Obazee, 2006).

It is the right of citizens to demand and know the activities of their elected public officers and the elected public officers ought to voluntarily give account of their stewardship to the public. It was on the basis of this that the Declaration of Rights and Man and of Citizens incorporated in the preamble of French Constitution as quoted in Turc (1997:1), thus:

“Society has right to require of every public agent an account of his administration... All citizens have a right to decide either personally or through their representatives, as to the necessity of the public contribution.... and to know what uses it is put”

In Nigeria, public accountability is the requirement of the law. The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 through Section 47 established the National Assembly for the federation which consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives, while Section 90 of the 1999 Constitution established the

House of Assembly for each of the 36 states of the federation. Both the National and State houses of Assembly consists of elected representatives of the people. The Constitution went further to establish the Executive (Chapter VI Sections 130-152) the Judiciary (Chapter VII, Sections 236-259); and the Legislature (Chapter V Sections 47-64); and also established three tiers of Government namely the Federal, the State and the Local Government. The activities of these bodies are referred to as public sector. The term 'public service or sector has been defined as "the service of the federation in any capacity in respect of the government of the federation..." (Nigerian Constitution 1999).

The public service can be subdivided into three groups namely the core ministries, the second group is the parastatal and the third is government agencies. Some of the second group is semi-autonomous while most of the agencies are autonomous subject to the overall control of the government. These bodies are set up by law to satisfy ever expanding needs and aspirations of the public. They are statutorily empowered to collect all moneys and harness all resources for the benefit of the generality of the citizens. The question is has Nigerian Public office holder adhere with the principle of public accountability and voluntarily account for their activities while in office. There have been assumptions that the duties and trust reposed on these public officers are not efficiently and effectively performed. Onochie (2002) pointed out that "there has been total disregard for accountability on the part of public enterprises over the years. A lot of public enterprises do not bother to produce promptly their annual reports and audited financial statements due to inefficiency, negligence, and maladministration, for instance, the chairman of Abisoye panel that look into the operation of the NNPC claimed that:

"NNPC does not respect its own budgets. NNPC does not respect its own plans..... The unwritten code in NNPC style of management.... Would appear to be everyone to himself and God for us all....make hale while the sun shines and loot all the lootable"
(Abisoye: Newswatch October 21, 1994;10-11)

The responsible ministries have not themselves shown sufficient concern about this laxity. It is therefore, becomes difficult to monitor performance and take corrective measures before things get to dead-ends. These assumptions together with various pronouncements have not been verified by scientific research. This paper seeks to fill this lacuna by evaluating, through scientific research method, the extent of the practice of effective Public Accountability in the public sector, identifying factors inhibiting Accountability and proffer probable solution.

Review of Relevant Literature: Accountability is not just another political catchword; it is an institutionalized practice of accounts giving. Accountability refers to a specific set of social relations that can be studied empirically. Therefore, Accountability can be defined from this perspective as a social relationship in which an actor feels an obligation to explain and to justify his or her conduct to some significant other (Day and Klein 1987:5; Romzek and Dubnick, 1998:6)

The notion of accountability is an amorphous concept that is difficult to define in precise terms. However, broadly speaking, accountability exists when there is a relationship where an individual or body, and the performance of tasks or functions by that individual or body, are subject to another's oversight, direction or request that they provide information or justification for their actions.

Therefore, the concept of accountability involves two stages: *answerability* and *enforceability*. Answerability refers to the obligation of the government, its agencies and public officials to provide information about their decisions and actions and to justify them to the public and those institutions of accountability tasked with providing oversight. Enforcement suggests that the public or the institution responsible for accountability can sanction the offending party or remedy the contravening behaviour. As such, different institutions of accountability might be responsible for either or both of these stages.

The term accountability has been variously defined by different authority Adebayo (1981); Olowokere 1996; Onochie 2001; Kalu 2002. Romzek and Dubnick (1987), Romzek (1996), Sinclair (1996) and Behn (2001:59) for instance, Adebayo 1981 defines accountability as “. A requirement which subjects public officers to detailed scrutiny by the legislature over objectives, use of resources and manner of performance” ; A process whereby one renders an account of his activities to someone who has the power to ask for it and also evaluate and reward ones performance” (Olowo-okere, (1986) while Onochie (2001) see public accountability as “the duty to truthfully and transparently do ones duty the obligation to allow assess to information by which the quality of such services can be evaluated and being responsible and answerable to someone for some action”

The Research work of Omolehinwa (2001) on the practice of Public Accountability cover mostly the period of military regime in Nigeria and the finding were that the practice of public accountability is at the lowest ebb. He concluded that the public officers have no regard for public accountability. Public money were disbursed without the knowledge of the Minister of Finance, for instance, “the Minister alleged that it was only after the death of the military leader in June 1998 that he discovered that about US\$450 Million had been withdrawn from the Central Bank between January and May 1998 without the knowledge of the Minister of Finance.” (Ani, 2000:48).

He substantiated the infectivity of public accountability during the Military era by saying that:

“Not only were the accounts of the last five years of Military rule not available as at end of the last millennium, the accounts that were rendered cannot be regarded as reliable because there is no relationship between the figures given by the Central Bank and Ministry of Finance.”

This research will seek to compare the position of Public Accountability now with what was obtained in 2001.

Classification of Public Accountability

Accountability can be classify as follows:

- *Organisational Accountability*: This is a situation where superior officers ask the subordinate to account for their assignments or activities.
- *Political Accountability*: This is the focus of this paper. This type of accountability is concerned with the elected representative, political parties and Public office holders. This is the situation where elected representatives or appointed ministers are required to give account of their activities during their tenure in office. Political Accountability usually manifests itself in the concept of individual ministerial responsibility, which is the cornerstone of the notion of

responsible government. In parliamentary system with ministerial responsibility and a general civil service, for instance, as in Britain and the Netherlands, Political Accountability is usually exercised indirectly through the minister. Public office holders and heads of agencies also appear before parliamentary committees to account for some of their activities. In Presidential settings such as United State of America or Nigeria, Public officers and head of agencies are always to the public and the National Assembly.

- *Legal Accountability:* Public officers can also be summoned by courts to account for their own acts, or on behalf of the agency as a whole. Parliament and the judiciary act as legal accountability. The Parliament holds the executive politically accountable, while the judiciary holds the executive legally accountable. Parliament in this context is the principal and the official agent. Parliament as the principal requires the government and its officials, as agents to implement the laws and policies and programs it has approved.... And holds the government and officials to account for their performance in this regard.

Parliament is also an agent, in that the electorate (the Principal) elects legislators to enact laws and oversee government actions on their behalf. The electorates then hold legislators to account at election time and, in few jurisdictions, through recall, where dissatisfied voters can recall their elected representative and vote for an alternative.

- *Professional Accountability:* Professionals also take appointment as public servants; such professionals include: Chartered Accountants, Doctors, and Engineers etc. These professionals belong to one association or the other and they are to act in compliance with their ethics and code of conduct. They are also accountable to their body.

Design and Methodology of Study

The methodology adopted in this paper is the evaluative and expository system. Relevant literatures were reviewed. Secondary data contained in books, Journals, audited financial statements of Federal Ministries, Parastatal and Government Agencies were consulted. Accounting Standards, Government Financial Regulations, Relevant Laws and Internet and other documents were consulted. Observations made over the years were also relied upon. The information gathered was analyzed, discussed and conclusions were drawn therefrom.

Scope and Limitation of the Study

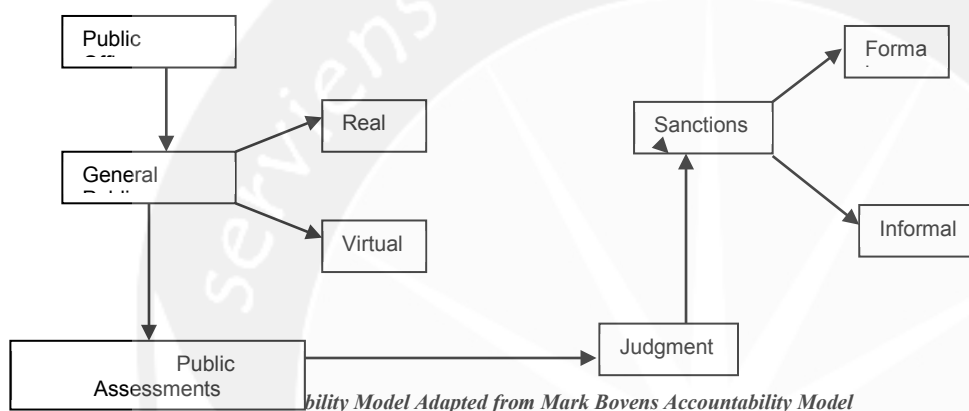
The scope of the paper was limited to ten Federal Ministries and ten Parastatals and Government Agencies selected through a simple random sampling techniques. The study was constrained by the researcher's inability to pay on spot visit to some of the organization within the sampled framework. However, it is saved to believe that the practices in those ministries visited are very similar to those not visited. The research was also constrained by the stiff reluctance of releasing information and necessary documents by the civil servants in these Ministries.

Objectives of the Paper

The main objectives of this paper include:

- Examine the duty of trust placed in the public officers,
- Examine the legal framework for performance, policies and Monitoring,
- Review the extent of the application of this policies vis-à-vis the public expectation,
- Drawing conclusions and making recommendations towards improving accountability in the public sector.

Discussion of the Practice of Public Accountability in Nigeria The practice of Public Accountability in Nigeria is as depicted in the Public Accountability Model below:



The *Public Officers* consists of elected officers who include the parliamentarians, the executives, the judiciary officers, Ministers and Heads of Agencies, departments and Parastatals, for instance, the Parliament and the Judiciary acts as a horizontal check on the Executive. The Parliament/ Legislature perform oversight functions on the activities of Public Officers. The Parliament has power to summon any Public Officer to give account of his activities or answer some questions; example of such function is the current probe on BPE going on at the National Assembly which has revealed many misdeeds. The Parliament holds the Executive politically accountable while the Judiciary holds the Executive legally accountable.

The general public: consists of all the citizens of Nigeria or the electorate to whom the public officers render their stewardship.

Public Assessment: The public assess the performance of public institutions or public office holders and make their assessment public through various comments in electronic media, daily news paper and magazines. They can also do so through their various calls on the appropriate government arm to investigate the matter. They can pass their assessment to their representatives to be tabled at the floor of the National Assembly.

Judgment: Appropriate judgment will be passed by the body that evaluates the public officers.

Sanctions: Sanctions can be formal or informal. It is formal where it involves sanctions such as imprisonment, removal from office, freeze of bank accounts to confiscation or forfeiture of their personal

property and forfeiture of Passport. It is informal where the public officer concern was adversely criticized in the public which may affect his image and integrity. The public officer may voluntarily resign his appointment.

Government effort to ensure effective public Accountability

The government knowing fully that it functions through the instrumentality of human beings, some of who have the propensity to betray (without remorse) the public trusts reposed in them as regards judicious management of public resources. Mismanagement of public funds could also arise from ineptitude on the part of the officers entrusted with the management of such funds. It becomes the responsibility of the government to circumvent mismanagement of public resources (and the concomitant negative effect on the welfare of the citizenry) as well as enhance public trust in the actions and decision of government; the government establishes the following agencies to enhance effective public accountability.

- **Public Accounts Committee (PAC)**

Public Accounts Committee is a committee of the National Assembly responsible for public accounts. It was established primarily to carry out three basic roles viz:

- To provide a forum in which the accounting officers are called upon to explain in public, matters on which their departments had been queried by the Auditor General.
- To inform the National Assembly and the general public of defects in the financial administration and the explanation of the accounting officers when confronted with them; and
- To serve as a vital link between the Auditor General and the National Assembly.

Public Accounts Committee is a principal body responsible for ensuring effective public accountability. Fayemi (1991) opined that Public Accounts Committee (PAC) was established “to discourage public servants from erring and to expose those who erred in the management of public funds that the Public Accounts Committee becomes relevant in the art of governance”. Ogbanu (1999) believed that “the introduction of PAC can enhance judiciousness in the disbursement of public funds by the public servants thereby resulting in financial savings which could be channeled to the provision of amenities to improve or alleviate the sufferings of the citizenry”.

The impact of Public Accounts Committee in the practice of public accountability in Nigeria is enormous, succinctly, the effect of PAC on Public Accountability includes the following:-

- ✓ It encourages a sense of responsibility, answerability and accountability by inculcating some sense of responsibility and accountability into public servants as failure to do so will attract strict reprisals from government.
- ✓ The introduction of PAC can enhance judiciousness in the disbursement of public funds by the public servants thereby resulting in financial savings which could be channeled to the provision of amenities to improve or alleviate the sufferings of the citizenry.
- ✓ It enhances public trust in the actions and decisions of the government- Where there is a sense of responsibility, transparency and accountability on the part of the public servants, public trust in the actions and decisions of the government will be enhanced, and finally
- ✓ It facilitates political and economic stability.

Despite the foregoing impact, it was discovered that PAC have not been able to meet the expectation of the public. This was opined by Oshisami and Dean (1997) in their book financial management in the Nigerian Public sector that the performance of PAC visa-a-vis its statutory roles have not been satisfactory.

- Economic and Financial Crime Commission

The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) is a Nigerian law enforcement agency that investigates financial crimes such as advance fee fraud (419 frauds), money laundering and other corrupt practices in public office. The EFCC was established in 2003, partially in response to pressure from the Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering (FATF), which named Nigeria as one of 23 countries non-cooperative in the international community's efforts to fight money laundering. The agency has its head office in Abuja.

Part IV of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (Establishment) Act, 2002 listed all the offences on which the commission has jurisdiction. Among these offences is Section 15 which deals with offences relating to Public Officers.

Pursuant to the mandate given to the commission by the Act, the agency has addressed financial corruption by prosecuting and convicting a number of high-profile corrupt individuals, ranging from Nigeria's former chief law enforcement officer to several bank chief executives. By 2005, the EFCC arrested government officials including the former Governor of Baysa State-Diepreye Alamieyeseigha.

In September 2006, the EFCC had 31 of Nigeria's 36 state governors under investigation for corruption. In December 2007, the Nigerian Federal Government, after extensive investigations by EFCC and other organizations, cleared the Vaswani brothers of any wrongdoing and invited them back into the country.

In April 2008, the EFCC began the investigation of the very influential daughter of the former Nigerian President, Senator Iyabo Obasanjo-Bello for receiving N10 million (\$100,000), stolen from the Federal Ministry of Health. The former Health Minister and her deputy are currently on trial for stealing over N30,000,000 (\$300,000) from the ministry's unspent funds .

The body remains one of the active government agencies that is fighting corruption and ensuring public accountability in Nigeria.

- The role of Accounting Profession in the practice of Public Accountability in Nigeria.

Bala (2003) opined that "Accountability is very crucial in the public and privatized enterprise(s) and Chartered Accountants have a role to play in ensuring financial accountability. They have to exercise sound professional judgment so that they do not bear liability for negligence"

The Institute of Chartered Accountant of Nigeria (ICAN) was established by the Act of parliament in 1965. It was charged with the responsibility, among others, to produce credible Chartered Accountants to manage the finances of the economy and to carry out annually, the audit of both public and private organizations in Nigeria. The Public Sector Audit Standards compiled by the Auditor Generals defines 'Audit' as it applies to the public sector as " including both financial and performance (value for money) audit" It further provides that auditors of public sector should issue report at the end of their audit and include in such reports their findings on:

- Significant irregularities whether perceived or potential on inconsistency of application of regulations or on fraud and corrupt practices.
- Non Compliance with applicable laws and regulations.
- Application of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness in the utilization of public/ entity's resources in the execution of its activities.
- The extent to which the organization is achieving its mandate as set by government or as contained in their enabling /legal instruments.

Furthermore, copies of the management/domestic reports on the audit of the public organization are to be made available to the appropriate authority together with the audited financial statements. Other regulations that were put in place to ensure effective public accountability include adherence to: Financial Regulations, Relevant provision of the 1999 Constitution, Finance (Control and Management) Act, Audit Act, Annual Appropriation Act and Statement of Accounting Standard issued by Nigerian Accounting Standard Board. (NASB). For public enterprises, the Auditor General of the Federation is by Sect 85 and 125 of 1999 Constitution empowered to audit the accounts prepared by all government establishments and issue reports directly to the Public Accounts Committee (PAC) who in turn will carefully consider the report and call the appropriate public officers that have questions to answer to come before it and defend their activities.

The view of the general public is that the accounting profession has contributed positively toward effective public accountability even though statistics shown that the Chartered Accountants produced to date is about 33,000 which are grossly inadequate to successfully manage the finances of the economy and effectively enhance the practice of Public Accountability. Also various statistics show that fraud in public offices is on the increase.

The Contribution of the Court

By virtue of Section 6 (1) of the Nigerian Constitution 1999 the following courts are established in the Federal Republic of Nigeria:

1. the Supreme Court of Nigeria;
2. the Court of Appeal;
3. the Federal High Court;
4. the High Court of the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja;
5. a High Court of a State
6. the Sharia Court of Appeal of the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja;
7. a Sharia Court of Appeal of a State;

8. the Customary Court of Appeal of the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja;
9. a Customary Court of Appeal of a State

The courts established by the Constitution are the only superior courts of record in Nigeria. The Constitution empowers the National Assembly and the Houses of Assembly to establish courts with subordinate jurisdiction to the High Courts. Courts established pursuant to the Constitution are invariably inferior courts of record notwithstanding the status of the officer presiding in the courts.

The Supreme Court is the highest court and all decisions from the court are binding on all other courts. In Nigeria, the state court structure dovetails into the federal court structure at the level of the Court of Appeal. The Court of Appeal entertains appeals from the decisions of the High Courts, the Sharia Courts of Appeal and the Customary Courts of Appeal. Appeals from the decisions of the Court of Appeal go to the Supreme Court. In effect the Supreme Court is not only a Supreme Court on federal matters, it is also the final court in respect of state laws. The principal functions of these courts are to adjudicate on matters before them including matters on public accountability. Most of the public officers that failed to satisfactorily account for their activities while in office end up in court and their matter were appropriately dealt with and necessary sanctions imposed.

Findings

The data collected were analysed and below is the summery of the findings:

- Political priority of resource allocation and development appears did not meet the public expectation, for instance, the development so far made in Niger Delta, appears not to satisfy those people from that area which has resulted in restiveness.
- Various corruptions alleged and prosecuted by law enforcement agents are either delayed in the justice system or are not concluded or did not see the light of the day.
- The general believe is that when money is appropriated, it must be spent before the financial year ends. It was discovered in most government department visited that there is huge expenditure during the latter months of the year (Oct-Dec.), in vote head that has balances. The expenditure relevant or irrelevant reduces the balances to zero or near zero level. The general believe among these public officers is that all allocated/ budgeted money must be spent. This is contrary to the provisions of Government Financial Regulation section 515.
- We noticed that there were inconsistencies in some of the accounting policies in the Ministries and Parastatals; for instance, the treatment of Grants/ Subventions differs. Some treated it on accrual basis while others treated it on Cash bases.
- 80% of the organizations studied did not prepare and publish budget performance evaluation report hence the determination of variance and factors inhibiting performance becomes difficult.
- Incidence of fraud which was appropriately dealt with was reported in about 45% of the organization studied.

- 45% of the organizations visited have not prepared financial statement for the past 4 years, 30% of those that prepared financial statement were not audited and most of those audited had adverse reports.
- 75% of the organizations account has not submitted their accounts to Public Accounts Committee for examination.
- Internal Control appears very weak in most of the organization, for instance, there is no accurate record of government assets and their utilization. Some of the utilizations of the assets are not strictly in the best interest of the organization.
- 70% of the accounts examined did not provide budgetary information as to performance of the organization.
- Most of the organization is having one abandoned projects or the other with millions of Naira sunk into such project, for instance, the multi million Naira, Federal Secretariat has been abandoned and remain idle for over 15 years.
- 60% of the organization visited did not strictly comply with Accounting standard, Financial Regulations.
- 55% of the Accounts did not contain information on 5years financial summary thus measurement of performance over the year becomes very difficult.
- 100% of the organizations prepared annual budget but most of the budget were prepared late even at National level, the financial year will be a quarter spent before the budget is approved.
- 70% of the organization failed to strictly implement the budget as approved
- Most of the confirmed corrupt Public Officers reported on pages of News paper and media houses were not sanctioned. After a long delay and comments, the matter will die a natural death.

CONCLUSION

Public Accountability in Nigeria has not significantly improved since 2001. Most Public Officers are corrupt and failed to render accounts of their stewardship, The EFCC claimed that it had 31 of Nigeria's 36 state governors about 86% of the governors are under investigation for corruption. Some of the government agencies created to enhance public accountability were not effective and their performances are not satisfactory, hence failed to meet public expectation. Finally, effective Public Accountability is an essential ingredient for good governance. The present procedures for Public Accountability need to be reviewed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- The government should consider the establishment of a commission charged specifically to monitor every government Ministry, Departments and Agencies and ensure that Accountability is

effectively carried out. The present procedure whereby the members of PAC have their primary function as legislation does not allow total commitment to Public Accountability.

- There must be time frame for the commission for the commission to submit report on each organization.
- The report must be implemented to the last letter and appropriate sanction must be imposed and effect execution.
- The 1999 Constitution should be amended to give time frame for the Public Accounts Committee of each house of the National Assembly to consider and report back to the whole house matters arising from the audit reports. Also that the National Assembly should table the report of the PAC within 30 days of its submission.
- The findings of the PAC and the conclusion of the National Assembly should be made public.
- The Nigerian Press should have access to all information relating to Public accounts. The researcher believed that the Freedom of Press Bill just passed into law in Nigeria will accommodate this provision.
- The Civil Servants or Public office holders should be motivated to have sense of belonging and national interest at heart contrary to existing procedure where the Civil Servant agitates for a minimum wage of N18,000 per month which translates to N600 or \$4 per day and the government still drag their feet in approving it. This put the Civil Servant in a tempting position to defraud or fail to properly accounts for their activities.
- Qualified professional officers should be employed to hold sensitive professional offices such that Medical Doctor hold the position of Minister for health, Chartered Accountant as Accountant and Auditor General of the Federation and Minister of Finance, Electrical Engineer appointed as Minister for Mines and Power contrary to the present situation where round peg are put in a square hold. These professionals have their names, integrity and the profession they belong at stake; hence they will do everything possible to render effectively their stewardship.

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MODELING FOR LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS: MOLECULAR INTERACTION FRAMEWORK APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on our recent efforts to develop new modeling approaches for learning organizations using a molecular interaction framework. This approach will enable us to study the learning organization by simulation techniques. Basic hypothesis of our work is that the knowledge and permanent education is the most important factor in the organization's structure. For these purposes we use the FUTURE-O® model predictions and implement our new approaches into the model for computer simulations named FUTURE-O® - DYN model, a new model and a computer program to simulate a learning organization by implementing the FUTURE-O® model into molecular modeling simulations. Our molecular modeling approach, the FUTURE-O® - DYN model, will be able to explain the inter- and intra-organizational relationship based on seven elements of the FUTURE-O® model, and even expand the FUTURE-O® model and its applicability into practice. Based on this new view and definition of the learning organization we will be able to make some predictions about organization's best organizational structure.

MARKET RESPONSE TO THE COMPOSITION CHANGE OF ISLAMIC INDEX: THE CASE OF INDONESIA

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ABSTRACT

Earlier studies on the impact of an announcement of the change in the developed markets' index composition prove the existence of market reaction. Some academicians who support imperfect substitutes hypothesis and price pressure Hypothesis believe that the rise of price and volume of stocks added to an index is due to the increase in the stocks' demand. The change in demand particularly comes from the activities of index fund managers who adjust their portfolio to the new index composition. Meanwhile, some others who support the information hypothesis argue that positive abnormal return after the announcement of index composition change emerges because of additional information following the announcement. Investors' expectation on the liquidity of the newly added stocks may explain this market reaction. However, whether investors in emerging market will react to the change of Islamic Index composition still needs to be answered. Further empirical investigation is also required to explain the determinant factors. This study is aimed at empirically investigating the phenomenon using Jakarta Islamic Index (JII) daily data in the past 5 years. The study also investigates five conventional Indices in the Indonesian Stock Exchange, i.e. LQ45, Kompas 100, Bisnis 27, Sri Kehati, and Pefindo25, and compares the results with those of JII to see whether the nature difference of the two indices explain the market reaction. To measure the market reaction, we calculate abnormal return, relative abnormal volume, relative abnormal frequency, and relative abnormal bid-ask spread around the announcement of index composition change.

KEYWORDS: Market reaction, Market Index, Abnormal Return, Abnormal Volume

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ZAKAH PERSPECTIVES AS A SYMBOL OF INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL PIETY: DEVELOPING A REVIEW FROM THE MEADIAN SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM

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ABSTRACT*

In the Islamic government, almsgiving (zakah) and Baitul Maal is a fiscal economic center. Zakah mechanism as a source of state revenue has been applied in the Islamic kingdom of Samudera Pasai and the kingdom of Demak. This practice was liquidated simultaneously with the arrival of colonialism era and replaced with the tax system. Since then, the mechanism of collection of zakah in Indonesia was not managed by the government, but left to the community. It means that Zakah is only a symbol of religious charity. Zakah as a religious symbol would not be meaningful if it is not given meaning. The process of meaning of a symbol is a mental process that involves consciousness (mind) and mediated by language and meaning is developed through interaction among individuals in society. This aims of this study is to explore the meaning of zakah in by developing Mead's symbolic interactionism perspective based on mind, self, and society. In this paper I suggest to use spiritual consciousness that is faith (iman/tawhid) and devoutness (taqwa) because humans are social beings as well as spiritual beings. Besides having the mind, self is also comes with the divine consciousness. Self with the divine consciousness, means believing (iman/tawhid) in the transcendent reality (God). The belief in God will motivate self to simultaneously comply with and be subject to a God-including in fulfilling the obligation of zakah. Self in faith and devoutness that interact with the community will be instrumental in forming (constructing) and cementing the meaning of zakah as a symbol of individual piety (obedience to God) and the symbol of social piety (wealth distribution).

KEYWORDS: zakah, symbolic interactionism, Meadian, individual piety symbol, social piety symbol

CHINESE CONSUMERS ACCEPTANCE OF LABELED SEAFOOD

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China's seafood marketers are lately piqued when sales in major retail chains plummet due to weakened consumer confidence in the quality of seafood they purchase. To help restore public confidence and to better regulate the seafood market, China's Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) has mandated a national wide inspection standard. The standard uses a green label to differentiate premium quality seafood from lower quality products. The top grade (Grade AA) green-labeled seafood commands zero synthetic chemicals involved in production, and the secondary grade (Grade A) strictly inspects the use of a small list of certified chemicals. Besides green-labels, an environmental friendly label has been used to address policy makers' concerns about seafood sustainability as well as the desire from the public to protect endangered wild caught fishery species. Price wise, most labeled food charges a premium of 10-50% above the non-labeled products (Wang, Mao & Gale, 2007; Paull 2008).

Are Chinese consumers aware of the labeled seafood? Many consumers become aquatint with labeled seafood as a result of frequent visits to seafood retail stores and a high purchase volume made each visit (China Daily News, 2010; China Food Network, 2011). China's 2009 per capita annual seafood consumption was 26 kilograms, four times the U.S. level, and this figure is expected to increase another 40% in 2020, because of the expanding of the middle class population to 0.3 billion, many of them believe that seafood is healthier than other animal protein.

Anecdotal evidence describes that Chinese prefer labeled to non-labeled seafood. If this is true, China needs to restructure its entire seafood supply chain to emphasize the distribution of labeled seafood. The government seeks academic analysis to understand whether consumers desire the labeled seafood; who are potential consumers of the more expensive labeled products; and how to further improve consumer acceptance. To answer these questions, our study uses survey data collected from seven districts in Beijing to examine consumer valuations for the green- and the environmental- labeled seafood to understand how the perception of labeled seafood change with the use of retail stores, consumption frequency, previous experience, household size, and demographics.

Agricultural economics students administrated personal interviews with seafood shoppers in small, mid-size and large supermarkets. We found that on average our respondents purchase seafood once per week with a mean quantity of 3.18 pounds/visit and a mean spending of \$3.85/purchase (1USD=6.83 Chinese Yuan, in November 2009). Overall appearance (6.6/7.0), smell (6.4/7.0), color (6.2/7.0), and flesh texture (6.1/7.0) were rated as the most important factors affected purchase. Thirty six percent of our respondents would consider purchasing green-labeled and 27% environmental labeled products. Many respondents were willing to pay more for green- (80%) and environmental-labeled seafood (71%). Ninety-seven percent of our respondents believed that it is important to save wild species and consider sustainability. Eighty-nine percent of them will not purchase protected species and 79% believe that seafood retailers should provide a "no-overfishing" tag when selling wild species. As expected, our preliminary statistics shows that surveyed consumers favor labeled seafood and that labeled is used as an attribute to influence consumption choices.

Our sample suggests that to further improve the sales of labeled seafood, seafood marketers should provide educational programs to help consumers understand the information printed on the labels. Although Chinese consumers are confident about their ability to choose a safe food product (Wang, Mao and Gale 2007), they require reassurance from a third party labeling agencies or a food retailer to better judge product quality. Our results revealed that supermarket seafood shoppers are more willing to purchase labeled products if they understand and trust information printed on the labels. Moreover, a well organized and better regulated seafood inspection and authorization system is necessary to enhance Chinese consumer confidence and generate additional purchase of labeled seafood.



THE IMPACT OF BRAND PLACEMENT AND BRAND RECALL (IN MOVIES) ON BRAND PREFERENCE, LOYALTY AND INTENTIONS TO PURCHASE AMONG YOUNGER CONSUMERS: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

Brand placement in movie is an emerging marketing dimension and strategy. These strategies are widely applied in films nowadays. The aim of this study is to explain the significant relationship between the acceptances of brand placement based on consumers' perception and the brand recall towards brand preference, loyalty and intention to purchase among Malaysian young movie viewers. An intercept survey was conducted based on convenience sampling. 500 questionnaires were distributed to the undergraduates of Malaysian universities with 80 percent of response rate. Four hypotheses were developed in this research and tested using multiple regression analysis. The result indicated that the acceptances of brand placement based on consumers' perception and the brand recall has a significant relationship with brand preference, loyalty and intentions to purchase. These finding contribute to the brand managers in the world that brand placement has become a significant marketing tool in reaching the emerging younger generation consumers. It also indicates that brand placement acceptance and recall plays a vital role in influencing marketing activities, enabling marketers to create impact towards the younger generations brand preference in either gross or subtle manner. This research work has a potential to be a guideline for global brand players in considering marketing activities using commercialized movies as a medium.

TYPOLGY OF EMPLOYEE IMPROVEMENT-ORIENTED VOICE: EXPLORING WHAT EMPLOYEES SUGGEST TO UNDERSTAND HOW MANAGERS PASS ON EMPLOYEE VOICE

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ABSTRACT

Speaking up the hierarchy is often fraught with fear and risk; the set of potential suggestions and ideas from employees is greater than the set of actual communicated employee improvement-oriented voice. Yet organizations require bottom-up employee input to innovate, change and make optimal decisions. This qualitative study explores the typology of employee improvement-oriented voice, or the calculated communication of ideas and suggestions up the hierarchy with the intention to enhance organizational processes. Extant research suggests that the content of employee voice can affect the voice calculus and influence whether or not the speaker voices his suggestions or ideas up the hierarchy. Further, characteristics of employee voice can affect a manager's decision to propagate employee voice up, down and across the hierarchy. Thus, exploring the typology of employee improvement-oriented voice can lead to a finer-grain understanding of the types of ideas and suggestions that employees pass up the hierarchy, and the process in which these types of ideas and suggestions can influence the flow of communication up, down and across the hierarchy. In other words, understanding what suggestions and ideas employees choose to speak up to their managers can have an importance in unpacking the process of how managers pass on valuable employee input to other levels of the organization. This study surveyed 135 full-time working managers to collect data on actual suggestions and ideas voiced by their subordinates. A typology of employee improvement-oriented voice is put forth, and implications are discussed.

AN INVESTIGATION OF ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONSUMERS ATTITUDES TOWARD AN APPAREL WEBSITE

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ABSTRACT

The fast-growing percentage of U.S. consumers shopping and purchasing through the Internet and retailers have profited from this new channel. Little is known about how a website provides competitive advantage to a retailer and what makes a website appealing to consumers. In order to address the gap in research that exists regarding why and how consumers identify with online apparel retailers, the purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between website attributes, e-service quality and consumer-company identification for online information search and purchase behavior. More specifically, this research examines the links between consumer-company identification, perceived usefulness, and attitude toward a website, and their implications for the behavioral intention of consumers. Behavioral intention includes the consumer's intention to search for information and intention to purchase within the online environment.

Combining elements from Social identity Theory and Technology Acceptance Model, this study proposes a conceptual model that builds on the Technology Acceptance Model and tests a total of seven hypotheses developed based on the key constructs and literature. Survey data were collected from a convenience sample of 291 university students. Structural Equation Modeling was used to test the hypothesized relationships. Findings revealed that six of the seven hypothesized relationships were supported.

KEYWORDS: TAM model, online apparel shopping, identification, e-service quality

INTRODUCTION

The percentage of U.S. consumers shopping and purchasing through the Internet is growing. To keep pace, Internet marketing has rapidly increased (Levy & Weitz, 2001). A recent report issued by the Department of Commerce indicates that online retail sales in 2010 were \$165.4 billion (up 14.8% from 2009), and apparel, accessories, footwear and jewelry totaled \$23.2 billion, nearly equal to computer hardware and software sales of \$24 billion. The continuous growth of e-commerce makes it critical for firms to understand consumers' search behavior and design websites that cater to their needs to gain market share (Zhang et al., 2007).

Consumers seek products and services that will meet their needs and wants. Generally, when shopping for products, consumers will compare alternatives using such consideration characteristics as price, service quality, speed, and certainty (Järveläinen, 2007). Consumers have higher commitment to and purchase intention with those products and stores that they recognize and identify with (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Whether consumers identify similarly with products online versus those in the traditional store format is not known. Based on Bhattacharya and Sen's (2003) conceptual framework of consumer-company (C-C) identification, a consumer who identifies with a company will exhibit higher product utilization behavior, greater extra-role behavior (like citizenship) and higher brand awareness (Ahearne et

al., 2005). Further, C-C identification may exercise a stronger influence on a consumer's decision-making process than brand image alone. For example, Google.com is often used to locate knowledge or information needed on the Internet. Although there are many online search engines, "Google it" is a common phrase that reflects consumer identification with this particular site. According to Bhattacharya & Sen (2003), identification occurs when a person's beliefs about some relevant organization become self-referential or self-defining. Connecting an organization's identity to an individual's identity, C-C identification helps individuals to satisfy important self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003).

In this study, C-C identification is seen as the first step toward shaping the image of the store in the consumer's mind, which, according to the Social Identity and C-C identification literature, helps them decide if they will continue in their shopping or searching on a given website (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Brown et al., 2003). Given the thousands of shopping sites on the Internet, it is not difficult for consumers to browse. However, the challenge is to get the consumer to browse your website and develop an identification with it, to make the consumer more likely to revisit the site. Retailers need to help the consumer identify with their online store, and, in turn, to use it to purchase the product.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Marketing and industry research efforts have been directed toward developing detailed psychological processes to understand how consumers formulate store loyalty (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Each online store has its own look, or personality, features and traits which have been found to influence consumers' motives for and interests in browsing and buying (Brown et al., 2003). Consequently, there is a great need for retailers to focus on attributes that can develop website C-C identification.

In order to address the gap in research that exists regarding why and how consumers identify with online apparel retailers, the purpose of this research is to examine the relationship between website attributes (e.g., perceived attractiveness, informativeness), e-service quality (e.g., efficiency, fulfillment, system availability) and consumer-company identification for online information search and purchase behavior. More specifically, this research examines the links between consumer-company identification, perceived usefulness, and attitude toward a website, and their implications for the behavioral intention of consumers.

In electronic marketing, website loyalty is based on service as well as product performance (Parasuraman et al., 2005). If the service experience is consistently well executed, then the service provider will create a "bond" with the customer that the customer might value as much as the service itself. The consumer might then begin to identify with the store, and once this happens, the store will be identified easily by the consumer who differentiates the store's values from that of its competitors (Klein, 1998).

As an electronic marketing channel, the Internet is quite capable of replacing conventional distribution channels when it comes to communicating information and conducting transactions (Webb, 2002). However, there are many websites and online stores to choose from. Therefore, good website design and service are necessary to get the consumers' attention and begin the identification process. Traditional retailers, as well as click-only Internet retailers (retailers that exist only online), must appeal to consumers who are searching for information, comparing prices, and discussing product information online.

Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory was developed by Tajfel and Turner in 1985 to understand the psychological basis of intergroup discrimination. Tajfel and Turner (1985) tried to identify the minimal conditions that would lead members of one group to differentiate between outside groups. According to Social Identity Theory, a person does not have only one “personal self” but several selves that correspond to widening circles of group membership (Tajfel et al., 1971). A consumer has his or her preferences that represent the “personal self.” Different social contexts may trigger a consumer’s thinking, feeling, and acting on the basis of his personal, family, or national “level of self” (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Moreover, apart from the “level of self,” an individual consumer might have multiple “social identities.”

Social Identity Theory asserts that group membership actually creates in-group/self-categorization among consumers and drives them to be more favorable toward in-group members than out-group members. Tajfel and Turner (1985) found that when individuals were perceived as having group membership, they sought to increase self-esteem by positively differentiating their in-group as compared with an out-group on some value dimension. This search for positive distinctiveness indicates that an individual’s sense of who they are is defined in terms of “we” more so than “I.”

Consumer-Company Identification

According to Social Identity Theory, some relationships are based on a consumer’s identification with a specific company, and in particular, one that assists him or her in satisfying self-definitional needs. This identification stems from a consumer’s active and volitional decision to engage in behaviors related to that company (e.g., shop there) to decide if they favor the company or not (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Individuals often favor organizations that also enhance their social identity. For example, a Harley-Davidson motorcycle permits a consumer to identify with a brand and a company. Social Identity Theory articulates that our sense of self typically extends beyond our personal identity, to shape our social identity (Brewer, 1991; Tajfel & Turner, 1985).

Ashforth and Mael (1989) first connected the relationship between an organization’s role and social identity by conceiving of the person-organization relationship as “organization identity.” Organization identification happens when people believe there to be self-referential or self-defining elements relative to an organization (Pratt, 1998). In other words, you can still purchase Gap apparel even if you are not a Gap employee. That means people can experience organization identification even if they are not formal organization members (Ahearne et al., 2005; Pratt, 1998; Scott & Lane, 2000).

Today, business strategy research seeks to further determine why and under what circumstances consumers develop meaningful relationships with specific companies. Marketers make efforts to sustain these relationships through consumer equity and intimacy (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). To achieve this, companies must satisfy consumers’ needs relative to their social identity. Companies must communicate images relevant to the consumer. In turn, consumer-company identification distinguishes among potential segments in the target market (Aaker, 1997).

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Website's Attributes and Perceived Usefulness

Perceived Usefulness (PU) is defined as the degree to which a person believes that using a technology will enhance his or her performance (Davis, 1989). PU has a significant effect on consumers' behavioral intention. Thus, website design features such as menus, icons, and links (computer factors), colors, graphics, and music (human factors), specifically enhance usability (Song & Zinkhan, 2003). In other words, a well-constructed, attractive website makes it appealing and informative and may increase consumers' perception of its usefulness (Chen & Wells, 1999).

For increasing consumer's perception of usefulness, functions of the website's ease of use are important for those consumers who are not familiar with computers or might have higher avoidance behavior relative to searching for product information through the Internet. Therefore, the availability of necessary information (e.g., size, price, and payment procedure), forms, and instructions will play a role in consumers' formation of perceived usefulness. This study hypothesizes that the consumer will perceive the usefulness of a website positively if the website design is attractive and informative.

H1: A website's attributes related to (a) perceived attractiveness and (b) perceived informativeness are positively related to its perceived usefulness.

Website's e-Service Quality Attributes and Perceived Usefulness

To deliver superior service quality, online retailers must understand how consumers perceive and evaluate online customer service. Traditional literature related to service quality concentrated on service delivered by people, but e-business transactions are largely conducted without human contact. Thus, the instruments that have been widely used for measuring service quality might not be appropriate or useful to evaluate the quality of e-service. Parasuraman et al. (2005) developed the (E-S-QUAL) scale to measure the quality of customer service delivered online. Their scales included four dimensions: efficiency, fulfillment, system availability, and privacy. All four dimensions were shown to significantly influence customers' assessment of service quality. Reliability and validity tests suggested that the dimensions of efficiency (e.g., navigation, site load time) and fulfillment (e.g., product delivery speed) have the strongest influence on customers' perceptions of overall quality and value.

The definition of e-Service Quality consistent with that of Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Malhotra (2005), is the extent to which an Internet-based service facilitates efficient and effective transactional functions throughout all phases of a customer's interactions with it. In Internet shopping, consumers make purchases without any assistance by service personnel. However, they do expect services to be offered by a website that optimize their self-service (Globerson & Maggard, 1991). For this reason, in this study, service quality evaluations are expected to impact consumers' perceived usefulness of a website and represent an important construct relative to C-C identification and consumers' attitude toward a website. Ultimately, e-service quality should allow online users to access product information, and make an online purchase in an effective and efficient manner and in a secured environment using advanced technologies. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H₂: A website's e-service quality attributes related to (a) efficiency, (b) fulfillment, and (c) system availability are positively related to its perceived usefulness.

Perceived Usefulness and Website Consumer-Company Identification

The Technology Acceptance Model has its roots in social psychology and presents two key beliefs as predictors of intention to use a system: perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use (Davis et al., 1989). Specifically, perceived usefulness is defined as the extent to which using the system will enhance an individual's productivity (Davis et al., 1989). In this study, perceived usefulness is predicted to impact attitude toward a website either directly or indirectly through consumer-company identification.

Cronin and Taylor (1992) noted that a website's service quality impacts attitude or a consumer's long-term overall evaluation of a website. Using a website to browse can enhance consumers' perceptions of its usefulness and facilitate a positive attitude toward it. Websites that satisfy consumers' information and service needs foster stronger identification by the consumer (Brown & Venkatesh, 2005; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Therefore, consumers more easily identify and recall websites that meet these needs (Ahuja, Gupta, & Raman, 2003; Hoffman, Novak, & Peralta, 1999; Ni & Ho, 2005; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Malhotra, 2002; Zhang & Prybutok, 2005; Zhang, Prybutok, & Huang, 2006). A website that is perceived to be useful attracts and sustains consumers, which facilitates C-C identification. Therefore, this study assumes the perceived usefulness of a specific website will enhance consumer-company identification with this website. *This relationship is hypothesized as follows:*

H₃: The perceived usefulness of a website is positively related to website consumer-company identification.

Perceived Usefulness and Consumers' Attitude toward a Website

Chen and Wells (1999) indicate that attitude toward a website can predict consumers' predispositions to respond favorably or unfavorably to that website. Some researchers also indicate a positive relationship between perceived usefulness and attitude toward a website (Chen et al., 2002; Hausman & Siekpe, 2009). Besides the TAM, the U&G theory revealed that higher informativeness, entertainment, and low irritation are factors likely to generate a favorable attitude toward a website (Chen et al., 2002).

Perceived usefulness has been widely employed in studies of technology and has been shown to be important in influencing intention and use (Hu et al., 2009). Technology characteristics like specific website features (e.g., functionality, usability) can affect its acceptance or usage by target users (Agarwal & Venkatesh, 2002). As consumers perceive higher utility associated with a store, they will be favorably disposed toward it. Thus, the relationship between perceived usefulness and consumers' attitude toward a website is hypothesized as follows:

H₄: The perceived usefulness of a website is positively related to consumers' attitude toward a website.

Website Consumer-Company Identification and Consumers' Attitude toward a Website

According to Social Identity Theory, individuals attempt to maintain their group reputation, motivated by an underlying need for self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Thus, individuals who strongly identify themselves with a specific group would make an effort to improve their groups' standing against other groups (Riketta & Landerer, 2005). For example, an employee's positive identification with their employer entails increasing their job performance (Bartel 2001; Benkhoff 1997; Efraty & Wolfe 1988). Known as attitudinal or affective organizational commitment, this is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1982). A positive relationship has been found between this commitment and a variety of behaviors such as

performance, attendance, and even purchase intentions (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002; Zhang et al., 2005).

Consumers have a tendency to purchase products relevant to their self identity or organizational identity. Through shopping for and owning identity-related products, consumers ultimately present the associated identity (Kleine et al., 1993; Solomon & Schopler, 1982). For example, college students often strongly identify with a group (Terry & Hogg, 1996), and so their intention to purchase collegiate products may be created and supported by the sense of belongingness to their respective organization provided by these products. Similar to product or brand loyalty, consumers will have positive attitudes toward stores, companies, or websites they like. The sense of belongingness that comprises C-C identification strengthens a positive attitude and is enhanced by positive product or service experiences. Therefore, a positive relationship between C-C identification and attitude toward the company's website is hypothesized.

H₅: Website consumer-company identification is positively related to consumers' attitude toward a website.

Consumers' Attitude toward a Website and Intention to Search for Information via the Website

Seock and Norton (2007) indicated that consumers' attitudes toward their favorite clothing websites had a direct, positive effect on their intentions to search for information at those websites and intention to purchase clothing items from those websites. Additionally, operating through information search intention, attitudes toward those websites had an indirect and positive effect on intention to purchase clothing items from non-internet channels after finding the items at the websites.

Intention to use is regarded as an important long-term outcome and indicator of an information system's success (Bhattacharjee & Premkumar, 2004), as well as a driver of future behavior (Zeithaml et al., 1996). During shopping, consumers collect information and knowledge through repeat online usage (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000; Raju et al., 1995). A consumer's intention to revisit a website is recognized as a result of his/her attitude toward using this website and toward online technology (Koufaris, 2002). A favorable attitude toward a website increases consumer intention to use the online channel to search for information. Consumers will make repeat purchases, visits, and recommend the website to others more often if their attitude toward the website is positive (Song & Zinkhan, 2003). In this study, the relationship between attitude and intention to search for information is hypothesized as follows:

H₆: Consumers' attitude toward a website is positively related to their intention to search for information via the website.

Consumers' Intention to Search for Information via the Website and Purchase from the Website

There is a growing body of evidence demonstrating that perceived usefulness is the primary predictor of behavioral intention (Venkatesh et al., 2003). By searching for product information on a website, a consumer is able to assess the quality of the product prior to a purchase, and at the same time, decide if the website is useful. Because the quality of goods cannot be determined before the actual purchase, the information provided by the website is likely to influence purchase intention (Bonn et al., 1999; Rowley, 2000; Watchravesringkan & Shim, 2003).

H₇: Consumers' intention to search for information via a website is positively related to their intention to purchase from the website.

MEASUREMENT

Instrument Development

A structured questionnaire was developed based on the review of extant literature as an aid to obtain conceptual and measurement information related to variables being investigated. As a result, the written questionnaire was comprised of the following variables: website attributes (i.e., perceived attractiveness and informativeness), e-service quality attributes (i.e., efficiency, fulfillment, and system availability), perceived usefulness, website consumer-company identification, consumers' attitude toward the website, consumers' intentions to search for information and purchase an apparel product, were measured using a seven-point, Likert-type scale related to participants' level of agreement with each statement.

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from a convenience sample of undergraduate students attending the state university in southern U.S. area in the fall of 2009. Approximately 300 responses were sought from these six classes. Students who agreed to participate in the study and who were not attending a class that meets in a computer lab were asked to go to the computer lab. The researcher distributed the survey and provided step-by-step instruction on how to complete it. Participants were then asked to turn on the computer and visit the select online apparel website store (American Eagle at www.ae.com). They were asked to spend no more than five minutes browsing this particular website. Browsing consisted of reviewing the home page, as well as product search and selection. Participants were then asked to select a product for purchase, but not to make the actual purchase. Upon finishing the online browsing activity, they were then asked to turn off the computer and complete the questionnaire.

Measurement Model Analysis

Factor analysis is concerned with exploring the patterns of relationships among a number of research variables. These patterns are represented by what are called factors. Examination of the loadings of variables on each factor helps to identify the character of underlying dimensions. In Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), each factor is a latent variable in the measurement model. SEM analyses can provide statistical tests of the goodness-of-fit for a proposed confirmatory factor solution, which is not available through traditional exploratory factor analysis offered by statistical software such as SPSS.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) provides validation of scales for the measurement of specific constructs. In the CFA measurement model for this study, the indicators are depicted with Xs and latent variables labeled as constructs. This model represents the hypothesis that X_i variables assess the construct of this research. The single-arrows that point from the factor to the indicator represent the presumed direct causal effect of the latent variable on the observed measure (Kline, 2004, p. 199). The statistical estimates of these direct effects are called factor loadings. Factor loadings in CFA are generally interpreted as regression coefficients that may be in unstandardized or standardized form. As is the case in this research, indicators assumed to be caused by latent variables are called effect indicators.

In CFA, overall model fit indicates the degree to which specified indicators represent the hypothesized constructs. The three types of overall model fit measures useful in SEM can be represented by the following indices:

Seven items were used to measure website attributes. Items with loadings for perceived attractiveness (e.g., PA-1 = 0.89, PA-2 = 0.83) and for informativeness (e.g., IN-1 = 0.88, IN-2 = 0.83) were observed. Nineteen items were used to measure e-service quality, including eight items of efficiency (factor loadings ranked from 0.24 to 0.82), seven items of fulfillment (factor loadings ranked from 0.60-0.93), and four items of system availability (factor loadings ranked from 0.42 to 0.64). Four items measured the perceived usefulness factor (factor loadings ranked from 0.74 to 0.89). Website consumer-company identification includes five items with loadings that range from 0.83 to 0.91. Five items indicating attitude toward the website include loadings from 0.59 to 0.74. Regarding behavioral intention, intention to search for information included three items loading from 0.42 to 0.82. Intention to purchase included three items with loadings from 0.92 to 0.96.

On the other hand, a confirmatory factor analysis of the multi-item scales in the measurement model shows that each factor loading of the indicators for each construct were statistically significant and sufficiently high for structural model testing. All standardized factor loadings (Lambda X and Lambda Y) were greater than .50 (except the SA-1 of the e-service quality construct), which indicates reasonable convergent validity (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Psychometric Properties

Measurement model analysis was used to assess the psychometric properties to measure reliability and validity of measurement items. Cronbach's α and composite factor reliability (CR) were therefore applied to assess reliability. Specifically, information from the measurement model was used to compute the average variance extracted (AVE) to measure convergent validity. Discriminant validity was measured by comparison of the construct's correlation to other constructs and the square root of AVE.

First, Cronbach's α was used to assess reliability related to internal consistency between constructs and set an acceptable level that is more than 0.7 (Hair et al., 1998). Cronbach's α values ranged from 0.75 to 0.96, and thus indicate high internal consistency among items.

Second, convergent validity and discriminant validity were also examined to assess construct validity. Convergent validity refers to the degree to which two measures of the same concepts are correlated (Hair et al., 1998). Convergent validity is demonstrated when different instruments are strongly correlated. High convergent validity indicates that measurement scales meet the intended concept and the instruments are measuring what they were intended to measure.

Three standards to measure convergent validity were used: (1) a factor loading value larger than 0.5; (2) Composite reliability (CR) larger than 0.7; and (3) Average variance extracted (AVE) larger than 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998). CR was calculated to test the internal consistency between latent variables. Factor loading values ranged from 0.24 to 0.96, with most results above .7, and therefore meet acceptable levels. The CR of each construct ranged from 0.60 to 0.96, with most in the 0.9 range, indicating high internal consistency for most constructs. Average variance extracted (AVE) values of constructs across the sample exceeded the threshold of 0.5, indicating that constructs have explained a relatively high level of variance (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE values of each construct are from 0.36 to 0.89, with most in the 0.5 or greater range, thus meeting acceptable levels, and providing evidence that convergent validity is acceptable among measurement constructs.

STRUCTURAL MODEL ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

Model Testing

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted using the full information maximum-likelihood estimation procedure through LISREL 8.8. The relationships in the model were based on theoretical associations discussed. Results of SEM indicated that most of the hypothesized paths were significant at the $p < .05$ level. Squared multiple correlations (R^2) are reported for each endogenous construct as well as path coefficients and z -values for each statistically significant path. To assess model fit, chi-square statistics (χ^2), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), Normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used. As discussed previously, the full model had a χ^2 test-statistic of 2571.05 (d.f. = 969; $p < .000$), and fit indices were GFI=0.71, NFI=0.93, and CFI=0.95. The model's RMSEA index is 0.08, with a 90 percent confidence interval between 0.077 and 0.084, indicating an acceptable model fit for the data. Most indices indicate that the proposed model fits the data well. The model's structural equations are displayed below in Figure 1.

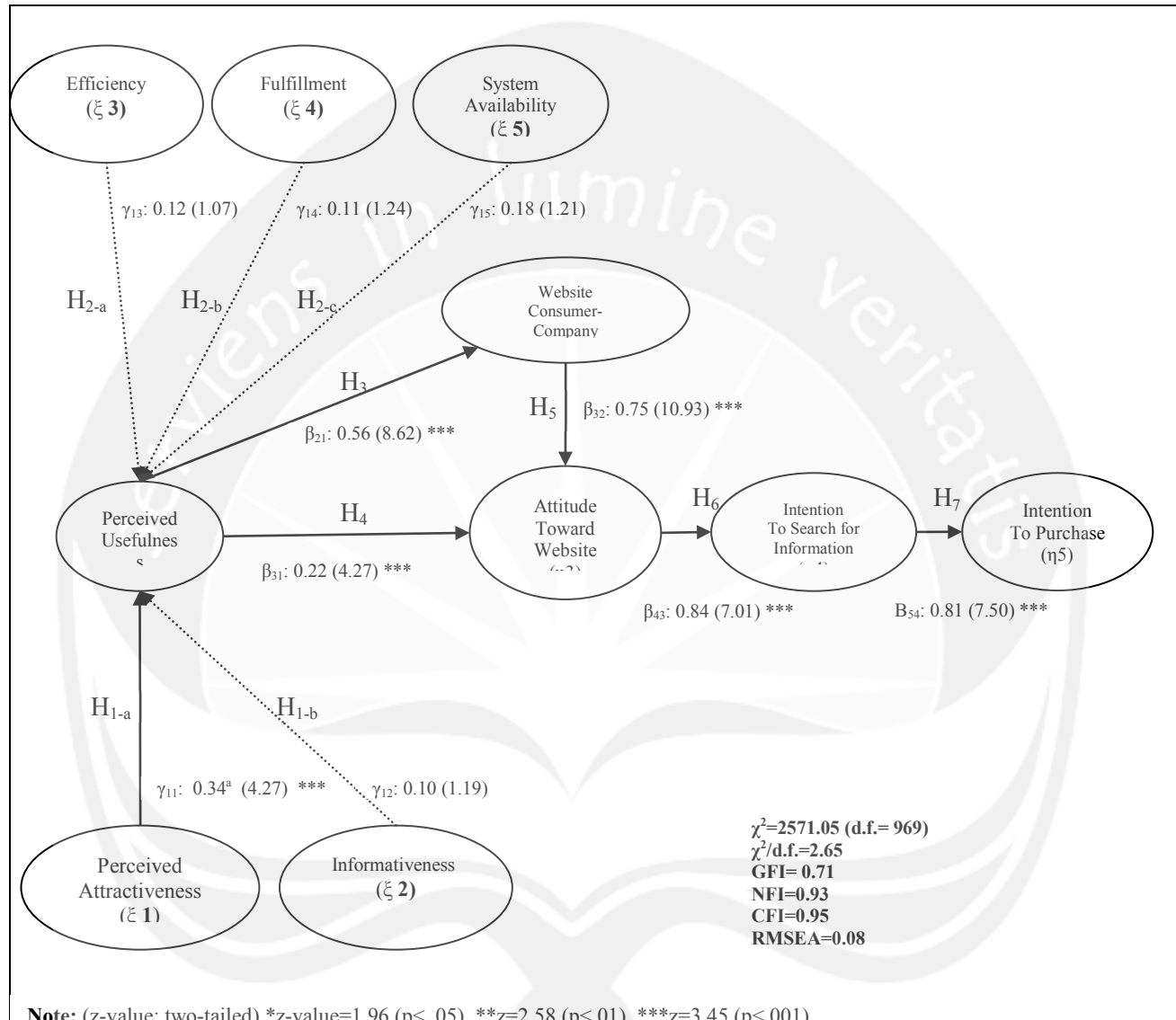
Hypothesis Testing

The patterns of direct effects revealed by the path model as shown in Figure 1 provide somewhat mixed support for the study's hypotheses. This model specifically describes each path relationship. A positive relationship was found between website attributes and perceived usefulness, and thus H_1 was partially supported. Specifically, the positive and direct relationship predicted in H_{1-a} between perceived attractiveness and perceived usefulness was supported by the data ($\gamma_{11} = 0.34$, $z = 4.27$, $p < .001$). The positive and direct relationship predicted in H_{1-b} between Informativeness and Perceived Usefulness predicted in H_{1-b} was not supported ($\gamma_{12} = 0.10$, $z = 1.19$, $p > .05$).

Hypothesis 2, predicting a positive relationship between e-service quality and perceived usefulness, was not supported. A positive relationship between efficiency and perceived usefulness (H_{2-a}) was not supported ($\gamma_{13} = 0.12$, $z = 1.07$, $p > .05$). Likewise, a positive relationship between fulfillment and perceived usefulness (H_{2-b}) was not supported ($\gamma_{14} = 0.11$, $z = 1.24$, $p > .05$). Lastly, the positive relationship predicted between system availability and perceived usefulness (H_{2-c}) was not supported ($\gamma_{15} = 0.18$, $z = 1.21$, $p > .05$). Thus H_{2-a} , H_{2-b} , H_{2-c} were not supported.

The positive relationship predicted between perceived usefulness and website consumer-company identification (H_3) was supported ($\beta_{21} = 0.56$, $z = 8.62$, $p < .001$) and a large effect ($>.5$) was found between these two variables. The positive relationship predicted between perceived usefulness and attitude toward the website (H_4) was also supported ($\beta_{31} = 0.22$, $z = 4.27$, $p < .001$) and a moderate effect ($>.1$) was found between these two variables. H_5 predicted a positive relationship between website consumer-company identification and consumers' attitude toward the website, and was also supported ($\beta_{32} = 0.75$, $z = 10.93$, $p < .001$) and a large effect ($>.5$) was found between these two variables.

Figure 1: Conceptual Path Model



Note: (z-value; two-tailed) *z-value=1.96 ($p < .05$), **z=2.58 ($p < .01$), ***z=3.45 ($p < .001$).

1. Indicator variables, correlations among exogenous variables, and disturbances have been omitted for notational simplicity

2. ^a Coefficients from completely standardized solution

Related to consumers' behavioral intentions, H_6 predicted a positive relationship between consumers' attitude toward the website and their intention to search for information. This was supported by the data ($\beta_{43} = 0.84$, $z = 7.01$, $p < .001$) and a large effect ($>.5$) was found between these two variables. Lastly, the positive relationship predicted between consumers' intention to search for information within the website and their intention to purchase was also supported ($\beta_{54} = 0.81$, $z = 7.50$, $p < .001$) and a large effect ($>.5$) was found between these two variables.

DISCUSSION

Hypothesis 1: Relationship between website attributes and perceived usefulness

Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive relationship between the perceived attractiveness (H_{1-a}) and informativeness (H_{1-b}) of a website and consumers' perceived usefulness of the website (see Figure 1). Of the two, H_{1-a} was the only significant coefficient. That is, respondents indicated that they decide whether to browse a website based on perceptions of its attractiveness (e.g., design, layout, colors). This finding is consistent with a study by Seock and Norton (2008) that indicated that attractiveness was important to perceptions of a website's usefulness. This finding also supports similar findings by Chen and Wells (1999), Moon (2004), and Song and Zinkhan (2003). The information offered by the website (e.g., context informativeness) was found to be less critical to perceptions of a website's usefulness. That is, H_{1-b} was not supported by the data. These findings suggest that in order to increase consumer's perceived usefulness of a website, an attractive layout and emphasis on visual design is relatively important. However, even though the relationship between informativeness and perceived usefulness was not significant, the availability of necessary information (e.g., price, payment procedure), forms, and instructions were important to respondents' perceptions of the website's usefulness.

Hypothesis 2: Relationship between website e-service quality and perceived usefulness

None of the hypotheses suggesting the relationship between the three e-service quality dimensions (efficiency, fulfillment, and system availability) and perceived usefulness were significant (see Figure 1). H_{2-a} , predicting a positive relationship between efficiency and perceived usefulness, was not supported. This suggests that the degree of operational ease offered by a website, whether helping consumers to find information or to complete a transaction, may not significantly influence consumers' perceived usefulness of the website. Likewise, website information layout and loading speed did not significantly enhance respondents' perceptions of its usefulness.

Since on-time order delivery is important when shopping online, it was hypothesized that shipment notification, and package tracking would be important criteria of e-service quality. But the relationship between fulfillment and perceived usefulness (H_{2-b}) was not significant. Furthermore, H_{2-c} predicted a relationship between system availability and perceived usefulness, a relationship that was also not supported by the data. Respondents were not concerned about system function (e.g., crashing or locking out). Relative to their perceptions of the websites' usefulness, this may be because apparel can be purchased in more than one channel, and thus offers purchase alternatives. It may also be a result of the sample since respondents were university students who are comfortable with computer operation and website navigation. In addition, the survey was completed in a facility supported by the university's technical support resources, and may therefore have made such considerations seem less important to respondents.

Hypothesis 3: Relationship between perceived usefulness and consumer-company identification

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) has its roots in social psychology and presents two key beliefs as predictors of intention to use a system: perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use (Davis et al., 1989). In this study, perceived usefulness was predicted to impact attitude toward a website either directly or indirectly through consumer-company identification. Specifically, H_3 predicted a positive relationship between perceived usefulness and website consumer-company identification and this

relationship was supported, indicating that perceived usefulness of a website can lead to identification with that website. That is, the more consumers perceive the website to be useful, the more likely it is that they will identify with the website. Interestingly, the relationship between perceived usefulness and consumer-company identification was actually stronger than the relationship between perceived usefulness and consumers' attitude toward website.

This study found that a website that is perceived to be useful attracts and sustains consumers, and in turn facilitates C-C identification. Using a website to browse actually enhances perceptions of its usefulness and leads to higher consumer-company identification with the website.

Hypothesis 4: Relationship between perceived usefulness and consumers' attitude toward a website

This hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between perceived usefulness and attitude toward a website (H_4) and was supported. These findings support those that exist in the literature, including Chen and Wells (1999), Chen et al. (2002), and Hausman and Siekpe (2009). The Use and Gratification Theory suggests that higher informativeness, entertainment, and low irritation are factors likely to generate a favorable attitude toward a website (Chen et al., 2002). This study found that perceived usefulness has a positive impact on consumers' attitude. However, perceived usefulness was related to respondents' attitudes toward the website, a similar relationship found by Agarwal and Venkatesh (2002) and Hu et al. (2009). In this study, it is possible that respondents perceived the usefulness of the assigned website based on familiarity with the store and its brand.

Hypothesis 5: Relationship between consumer-company identification and consumers' attitude toward a website

In H_5 , a positive relationship was predicted between website consumer-company identification and attitude toward the website. Consumer-company identification is based in part on Social Identity Theory. This research supports the notion that a website that consumers identify with is likely the one they also have formed an attitude toward. Results are consistent with Kleine et al. (1993) and Solomon and Schopler (1982). Consumers' sense of belongingness, which facilitates consumer-company identification with the website, strengthens a positive attitude, and is then enhanced by their product or purchase experiences. In this study, consumer-company identification is linked to attitude and in fact had a stronger influence on attitude than did perceived usefulness. This result suggests that consumers identify with the company or brand more than the usefulness of its website.

Hypothesis 6: Relationship between consumers' attitude toward a website and intention to search for information

The relationship predicted between consumers' attitude toward the website and intention to search for information through the website (H_6) was supported. These results are similar to other research (e.g., Seock & Norton, 2007) that indicates consumers' attitudes toward their favorite clothing websites has a positive and direct effect on their intentions to search for information at those websites.

Consumers collect information and knowledge through repeat online usage (Alba & Hutchinson, 2000; Raju et al., 1995). A consumer's intention to revisit a website is recognized as a result of his/her attitude or interests in using this website (Koufaris, 2002). This study's findings might be an indication that searching for information about apparel online is becoming increasingly prevalent among the younger

generation. Findings of this study provide further support for the idea that a consumer's attitude toward a website is positively related to their intention to use it to search for information (Song & Zinkhan, 2003).

Hypothesis 7: Relationship between consumers' intention to search for information and intention to purchase

As discussed earlier, research findings support the idea that perceived usefulness is a predictor of behavioral intention (Venkatesh & Morris, 2000). In this research, the relationship predicted between consumers' intention to search for information and intention to purchase through the website (H_7) was supported. The findings of H_7 support the idea that consumers' intention to search for information through a website is a significant predictor of their purchase intention. This finding is consistent with Shim et al. (2001) and Watchravesringkan and Shim (2003), as both showed a significant relationship between Internet information search intention and shopping intention. However, this research further examined the relationship between consumers' intention to search for information and their intention to purchase by examining the perceived usefulness of and attitude toward a website. Results of this study support the positive relationship found between consumers' attitude and purchase intentions (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002; Zhang et al., 2007).

CONCLUSION

This research examines the antecedents that drive consumers' intention to search for information about apparel products online. According to the findings, perceived attractiveness is a significant attribute influencing the perceived usefulness of a website. Attractiveness factors, such as color and layout, have an effect on a consumers' impression of the website. Perception of attractiveness encourages the consumer to use the website to search and purchase. Because of the uncertainty involved in online purchasing, successful websites must also take consumers' expectations of product and service quality into account.

Second, the research examined perceived usefulness and provided an understanding of how consumers evaluate a website as useful. This evaluation is positively related to their attitude toward the website. Because their attitude toward the website was positively related to intentions to use the website to search and purchase from it, it is important that retailers focus on evaluating the potential usefulness of their websites. Easy to locate product information, a color scheme that enhances its attractiveness and a layout that allows consumers to find what they are looking for can all serve to highlight the website's usefulness. Furthermore, to increase perceptions of website usefulness, websites technology can enhance consumers' virtual control over the product by presenting multiple product images or three-dimensional images. Retailers may also employ advisors and decision support technologies that interact with their consumers, either in real-time or through e-mail.

Third, this study examined the links between consumers' attitude toward a website and their intention to search and purchase products from that website. Based on the findings, most of the hypothesized relationships were supported. Supporting the TRA and TAM, however, a theoretical implication of this research is that consumer-company identification can be added to the technology acceptance process. The model developed by this study establishes relationships between perceived usefulness, attitude toward the website and consumers' behavioral intention with external constructs such as website attributes, e-service quality attributes and consumer-company identification, and thus contributes to the original TAM model. It incorporates the conceptual findings of previous TAM research with the introduction of the concept of

consumer-company identification. It also empirically validates this model with regard to an apparel website.

In a practical sense, website design is important in building customer relationships, it facilitates customer support, and can change a visitor into a consumer in the online environment. To succeed, commercial websites must provide an attractive and alternative shopping channel to meet consumers' needs. Retailers should create marketing strategies that address similarities between the company's identity and that of the consumer to foster stronger consumer-company identification. That retailer's website then becomes another channel for profit maximization.

Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

This study relied on a pre-selected website provided to respondents. On the one hand, the study was able to examine whether respondents who had never used it identified with the website based on their first impression with it. On the other hand, this website may not be their favorite website, or they may not be interested in the offerings of the website. Second, the research was limited by the fact that it was a single time survey and carried out in a 15-20 minute period. It is likely that different consumers need varying time durations when browsing and searching a website. Thus results may differ if respondents are given the survey to do on their own time.

Future research should apply a three time point data collection method which could then allow application of a latent growth model. The analysis might be conducted in two steps. The first step would involve analysis of a change model of just the repeated measures variables. A change model attempts to explain the covariances and means of these variables. Given an acceptable change model, the second step would then involve adding variables to the model that could predict change over time. This could result in a better understanding of search and purchase behavior. Lastly, the model developed in this study should be tested with other types of products to further examine whether perceived usefulness and attitudes are moderated by consumer-company identification and how this impacts behavioral intention.

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FINANCE AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN AFRICA: A META-ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between finance and economic growth in Africa has received considerable attention in both theoretical and empirical literature. Despite the increasing volume of literature, empirical evidence remains unresolved due to the disparate results found in the literature. Some researchers find that financial development has a positive impact on growth and others find that there is no relationship between the two variables. In this paper, we review a large body of literature focusing on the relationship between finance and growth in the 52 African countries, from both North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa. We address two major questions; 1) whether finance growth literature has established that finance is good for growth. If it has, we estimate the size of the impact. In the process, discrepancies in findings from the reviewed papers are identified and explained. The methodology used is called meta-regression analysis where traditional meta-analysis methods such as the bootstrap, and fixed and random effects meta-regression models are employed. The objective is to find a combined overall effect of finance on economic growth. A conclusion is drawn from large volumes of published empirical literature and the lessons drawn from this review are deemed to be superior to those from a single study.

RUSSIAN STATE FINANCIAL CONTROL: DISTINCTIONS AND DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

With globalisation of the economy, qualitative control of public finance is of fundamental importance for all countries to ensure the effectiveness of spending of national budget. This paper discusses the development of the state financial control in Russia. The current state financial control system on the federal level in Russia consists of Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation - AC and it's executive body - Federal Service for Fiscal and Budgetary Supervision - RFN. This paper shows restricted disclosure of the AC and RFN activities' results. State financial control in Russia is the so-called government auditing in other countries. All control procedures of state financial control in Russia are performed by inspectors, not auditors. These distinctions are discussed in the paper.

KEYWORDS: *state financial control, inspectors, audit trail.*

INTRODUCTION

With globalisation of the economy, qualitative control of public finance is getting fundamental importance for all countries to ensure the effectiveness of spending of national budget. Skaerbaek P. (2009) points out:

“In consequence of New Public Management (Hood, 1995) and the emergence of performance auditing as an increasingly influential force in the public sector, numerous Auditors'- General Offices have sought to ensure that their activities are consistent with, and supportive of, public sector reforms (Funnell, 2003; Gendron, Cooper & Townley, 2001, 2007; Guthrie & Parker, 1999; Power, 1997, 2003a). Thus, auditors came to realize that they need to engage more closely with the auditee (Pollitt, 2003; Power, 2003a). Such engagement has contributed to a drift in the activities of public sector auditors increasingly becoming involved with policy making, which is not without its problems (Gendron et al., 2001).“

Democratic society needs transparent budgets. If the budget presentation or audit report doesn't respond to the citizens' interests, they are not going to pay attention, but their lack of interest doesn't justify poor content. Admiraal M. (2009) states: «Public sector users are especially interested in nonfinancial information, which reflects the results and effects of government policy. Therefore, the reliability and relevance of this information are highly important» (Admiraal M., Nivra R., Turksema R. (2009)). We need to go from the telephone directory or accounting model of budgeting to a political model of accountability that builds public trust. In addition, only budgets that are accountable and transparent have a chance of reducing political corruption, which flourishes in the shadows.

Government audit in Russia perform by bodies of the state financial control. State financial control in Russia is the so-called government auditing in other countries. In Russia nowadays the term “government audit” is not legally approved. The current state financial control system on the federal level in Russia consists of Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation - **AC** and it's the executive body - Federal Service for Fiscal and Budgetary Supervision - **RFN**. And control procedures of state financial control in Russia are performed by inspectors, not auditors.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Recently, Russian researchers have studied the ways to improve state financial control. During last five years 8 dissertations have been defended in the field of state financial control (Filippova V., 2005, Salihov Z., 2005, Karepina O., 2006, Saunin A., 2006, Rjabuhin S., 2007, Antipova T., 2008, Ivanova E., 2008, Karpov E., 2009).

Such studies are important because it increases the awareness of foreign researchers and investors about the unique problems and dynamic issues facing government audit in a transition economy such as Russia. In particular, it sheds light on the process through which people's democracy evolves and the interaction between the development of democratic politics and government auditing.

The informal discussions with participants of seminars on improvement auditors' professional skills have been used as the data for the analysis. The semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions provided the free-flowing discussions with participants of the seminars.

The discussions have taken place in 13 groups (373 inspectors) from all over Russia, where the author carried out training program at 2005 - 2009. These informal sources of data were very useful because they represent attempts to capture the views of participants of the seminars in their "natural settings". Also a large number of official documents relevant to this study have been collected and analyzed. The findings of this paper are significant, because it contributes to the growing literature on how audit offices in various countries engage in performance auditing or other NPM reforms.

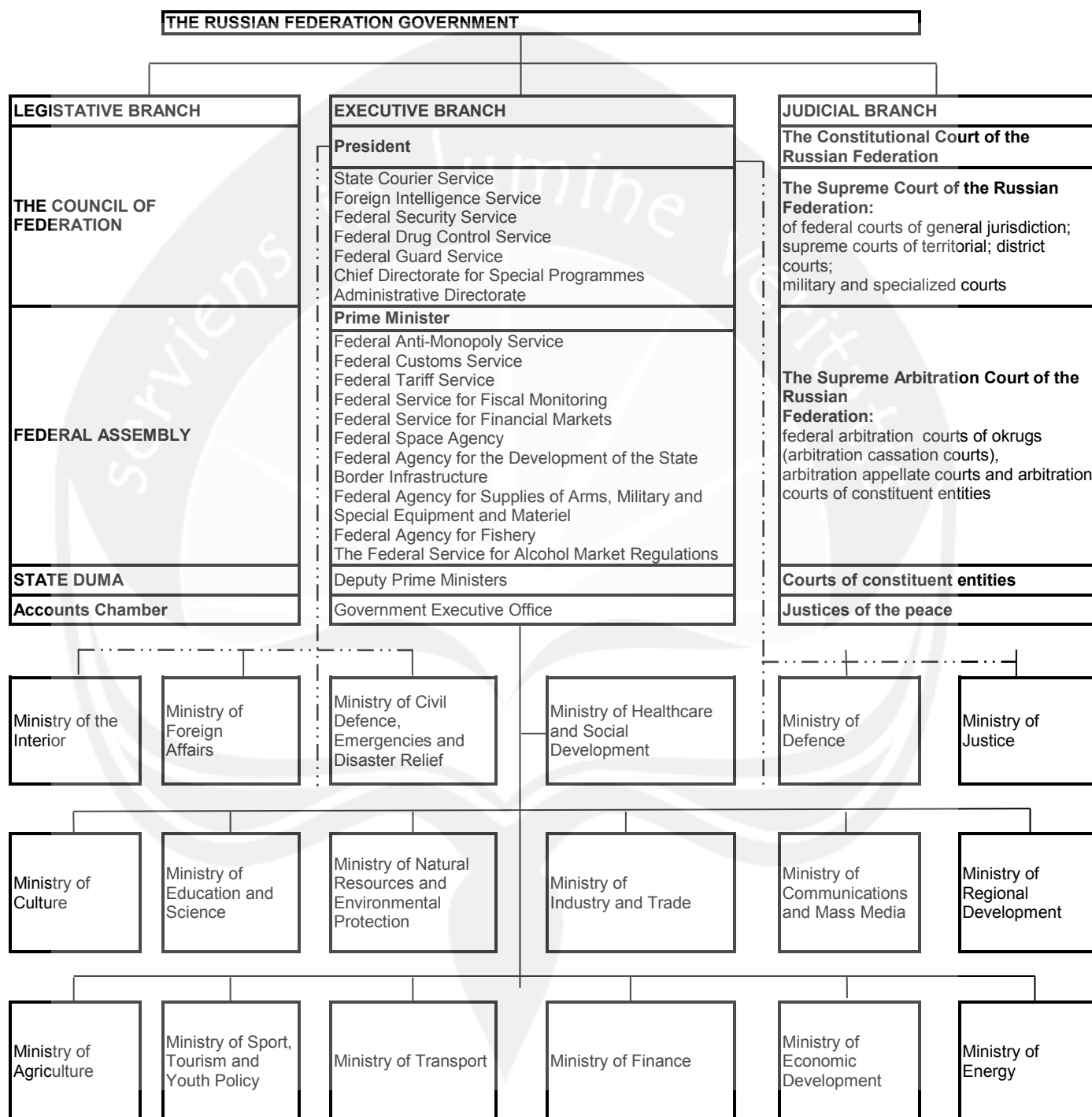
State-of-the-art of the Russian state financial control system

NPM reform in Russia has begun in 2004 when Russian government has issued order N 249, dated 22.05.2004. In particular, the following is mentioned:

- 1) The adoption and (in general) consistent implementation of interrelated programs:
 - the Program of Development of Budgetary Federalism in the Russian Federation for the period till 2005;
 - the Principles for Restructuring the Budget Sector;
 - the Concept of Reforming the Budget Process in the Russian Federation, 2004-2006;
 - the Concept of Improving the Effectiveness of Inter-budgetary Relations and the Quality of Management of State and Municipal Finances in the Russian Federation (2006-2008);
- 2) Use of the "platforms" (or "steps") technique, as a tool to manage the consistency of reforms and achieve balanced and sustainable progress at each stage; and
- 3) The financial and methodological support for budget reforms is provided on a competitive basis at sub-national level and for federal spending bodies (The Fund for Reform of Regional and Municipal Finances, and the "Experiment" on introduction of performance-oriented budget planning methods carried out at federal level in both 2004 and 2006).

As a result of NPM reforms the political structure of the government in Russia has been changed. The structure operating at the moment is shown on fig. 1. In the same way fig. 1 shows that the political structure in Russia consists of three systems: Legislative, Executive and Judicial Branch.

Figure 1. Political Structure of the Russian Federation



All legislatures and executives and judicatures are supported by the federal budget, so they are objects to the state financial control.

For the purpose of exercising control over fulfillment of the federal budget the Federation Council and the State Duma of the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation establish the Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation, the description and procedure of its activities are defined by the Federal Law. (The Constitution of the Russian Federation, Article 101, paragraph 5)

The Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation (hereinafter AC) is the standing body of state financial control establishing by the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation and accountable to it (Article 1 Federal Law "On the Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation"). AC has following main objectives:

To control over timely and full execution of the federal budget and federal extra-budgetary funds

To verify the effectiveness and expediency of disbursement of state funds and use of the federal property

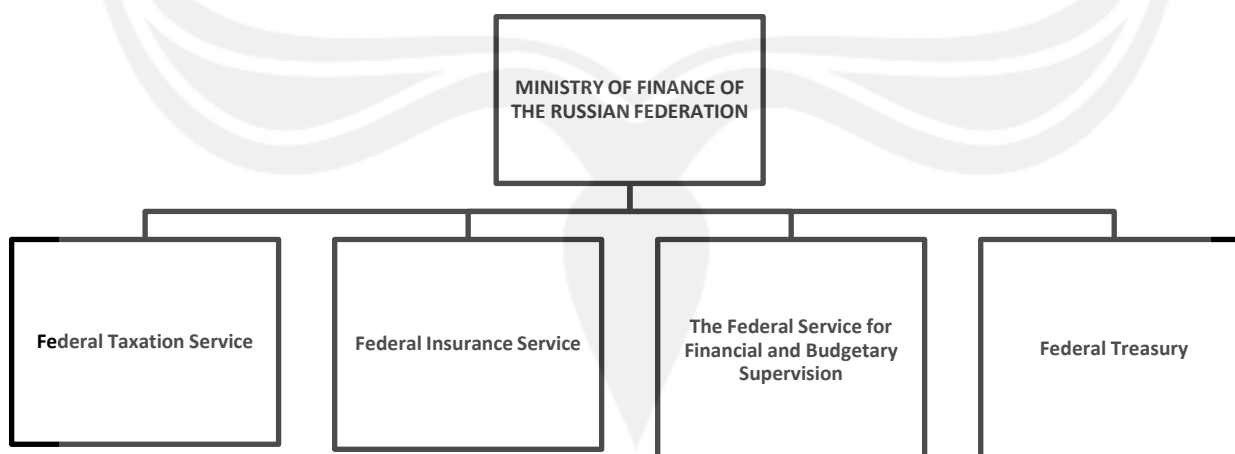
To provide expertise of the drafts of federal laws those have different degree of influence on the formation and execution of the federal budget.

In other words, those public funds, resources and federal property that compose the national wealth are subject to control by the Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation.

However, AC lacks practical approaches and tools for monitoring the implementation of fiscal budgets and thus it limits the ability to obtain an insight into the workings of financial systems and budget implementation. Moreover, Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation has the Board, but it is not used by inspectors in practice. Usually AC' inspectors just follow Federal Law "On the Accounts Chamber of the Russian Federation" and Budget Code of the Russian Federation (BC RF) [5].

Federal Service for Fiscal and Budgetary Supervision (hereinafter RFN) is subordinate of the Ministry of Finance of the Russian Federation. Fig. 2 shows that the structure Ministry of Finance of the Russian Federation.

Figure 2. Structure of the Ministry of Finance



The Ministry of Finance has the authority for RFN when it comes to issue internal audit manuals for use by all organizations that are wholly or partially financed by the government budget ([2] Ministry of Finance of Russia, 2007).

Main objective of RFN is the same as for AC:

To control timely and full execution of the federal budget and federal extra-budgetary funds. Therefore, there is a duplication of functions. Both AC and RFN check correctness of all expenditures of federal budget. And moreover, these two bodies of the state financial control don't co-operate between each other. On contrary, they are two competing organizations.

Restricted disclosure of state financial control results

The purpose of state financial control of federal budget in Russia is to provide assurance on the legality of fiscal budget implementation and the reliability of its outcomes.

State financial control is not designed to detect all cases of fraud, abuse, and program incompliance (i.e., small items may disappear under the control's radar). Most of the people assume that the principal goal of state financial control is to discover all of these inconsistencies. However, the revealing itself is just additional to the purpose of state financial control.

In fact, the absence of evaluation system and reliable, complete and objective data means that the effectiveness of the current systems can never be properly measured. «The effectiveness of government auditing is always difficult to measure in an objective manner. The number of frauds detected, the instances of waste and mismanagement identified, the number of studies into efficiency and cost control etc are pertinent indicators, but the true impact of government audit on the proper control and deployment of public spending can never be reliably and objectively determined» (Yang S., Xiao J. Z., Pendlebury M. (2008). If the government determines the content of the audit report, budget auditing is in effect the government's "self-inspection".

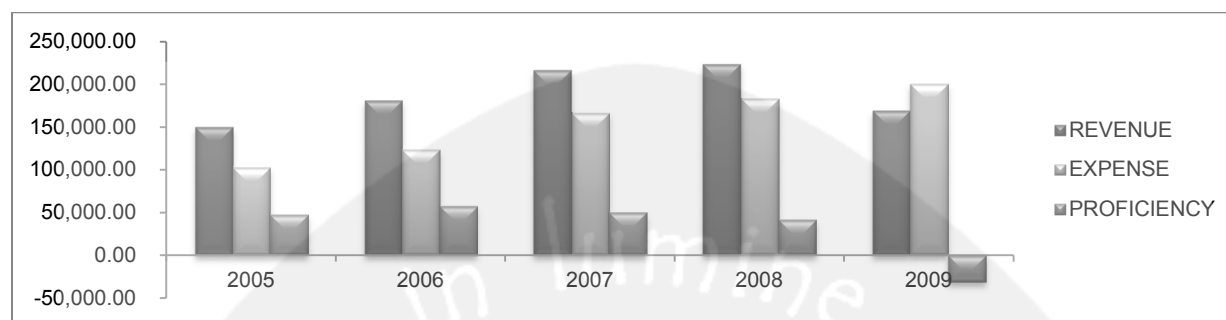
Moreover, as the relationship between the people and the government is that of supervisor and supervisee, it is difficult, if not impossible, for the government audit office to serve two "masters". In such a conflicting situation, the government audit office can only put the government's interests and requirements first, since the government is its direct "boss". To serve the government in essence and to the people in appearance is an inevitable choice of the state financial control office under the current system. Objects of control by two Russian bodies of state financial control (AC and RFN) are expenses of the federal budget. Numerical indicators in million Euros are presented in table 1 and Chart 1.

Source Data Table 1 - Federal Law on the federal budget for the year [7,8,9,10,11]:

Table 4: Federal Budget RF: Revenue & Expense & Proficiency: 2005 – 2009 million €

Fiscal Years	The exchange rate last working day of year	REVENUE	EXPENSE	PROFICIENCY
2005	1€=34,1850 Rub - 31.12.2005	149 984,76	102 803,79	47 180,96
2006	1€=34,6965 Rub - 30.12.2006	180 966,05	123 493,82	57 472,23
2007	1€=35,9332 Rub - 30.12.2007	216 544,03	166 602,52	49 941,50
2008	1€=41,4411 Rub - 31.12.2008	223 834,10	182 690,11	41 143,99
2009	1€=43,3883 Rub - 31.12.2009	169 118,18	200 198,17	-31 079,99

Figure 1. Federal Budget RF: Revenue & Expense & Proficiency: 2005 – 2009



State financial control in Russia is designed to detect only those cases of fraud, abuse, or program incompliance that can be considered material (namely, significant enough to affect decisions made based upon the financial statements). Table 2 presents some of the examples.

Table 5: Comparison of budgetary expenses and volume of the revealed financial infringements
mln €

Fiscal year	Expense federal budget for fiscal year	The sum of frauds detected, revealed for the fiscal year				The sum of no-purpose use of the budgetary funds, revealed for the fiscal year			
		AC	RFN	Sum (col.3 + col.4)	Col.5./ Col.2., %	AC	RFN	Sum	Col.9./ Col.2., %
2005	102 803,79	3 589	4 939,76	8 528,76	8,3	31,53	198,42	229,95	0,2%
2006	123 493,82	2 372	5 549,56	7 921,56	6,4	77,82	76,45	154,27	0,1%
2007	166 602,52	3 682	4 359,89	8 041,89	4,8	26,99	31,09	58,08	0,03%

Thus, in 2005 it was revealed that the amount of frauds made the 8.3 % from total amount of expenses of the federal budget. In particular, 8.3 % ($8528,76 / 102803,79 * 100\%$) of expenses of the federal budget of 2005 have been spent incorrectly. In the year 2006 it was 6.4 % and in 2007 – 4.8 %.

THE METHODOLOGY FOR THE STATE FINANCIAL CONTROL

In the Russian AC is working on standards, appropriate standards of INTOSAI. RFN uses its own administrative regulations [2]. There is no unified methodology for public financial control. Russia has still not passed a law on state financial control.

Methodology that meets international standards should be created as a series of appropriate and lawful techniques. Methodology - a set of techniques and methods, subject to the practical implementation of specific tasks. Methods of state financial control must serve the end result - verify proper and efficient use of the federal budget. Accordingly, the methodology of state financial control - a combination of screening procedures, appropriate methodology of state financial control and determines how compliance with the established principles of the use of budgetary resources, and legal grounds defined in the allocation of these funds.

As Steinhoff (2008) writes, all of the steps are predicated by management at the highest levels being committed to the program - in other words "getting it" - that these types of programs are state financial control, where the public is expecting full accountability for and sound use of its tax. Without this

commitment, it is doubtful that forensic auditing programs will reach their potential as a tool to help fight fraud, waste and abuse.

However, when characterizing the process of making things auditable as one of 'fact building' it mainly characterizes the auditing process as one where inspectors apply various methods to verify the data of various disclosures.

It is necessary to establish a viable, ongoing forensic methodology. Methodology for state financial control can be represented in the form of four blocks:

- I. Definition of organizational and legal status;
- II. Financial audit;
- III. Performance audit;
- IV. Writing and signing of opinions (the act).

I. Definition of organizational and legal status

Definition of the organizational and legal status forms the part of the opening act of the state financial control. The procedure starts with an initial orientation. Here the inspector determines goal, roles, and rules of the control. During the orientation stage, the inspector has to become familiar with the study, by receiving all the audit trail components along with an explanation of the recordkeeping system. Following, the inspector will have to look in detail in all the materials provided in the audit trail. In this case, the audit trail is complete, and understandable, entailing it is structured according to clear systematic interrelations among the components.

Verification period and dates are transferred to the introductory part of the act of identification which are the basis for state financial control. According to the results of the first part the following technique is necessary to evaluate the accounting in the selected organizations - the primary observation, the measurement, the current group, and the final compilation of economic activity - in terms of their compliance with current legislation and the features of the organizations.

II. Financial audit

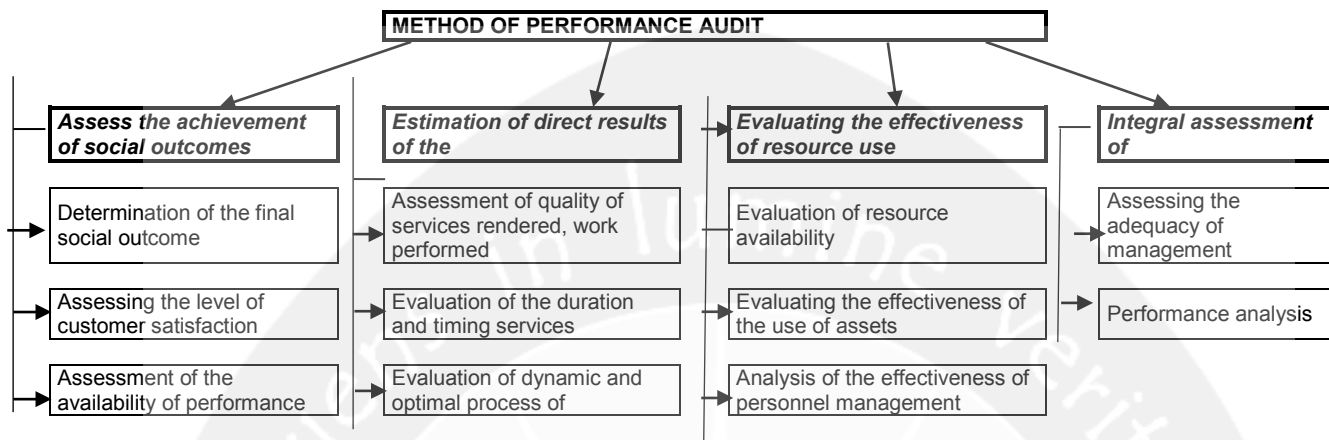
In order to conduct a financial audit, the following procedure should be taken: to check the compliance of accounting and reporting with regulatory and legal framework; to analyze the preparation and content of reporting; to verify the revenues and expenses, and the assets and liabilities. For the inspector to be able to perform the audit, the auditee needs to prepare beforehand a so-called audit trail, in which the whole procedure of data gathering and analysis is documented, including both raw data material, categorized data material, and the findings (Akkerman S. et al., 2008).

III. Conduct performance audit

The next stage is the timeline of the control, the aims of the audit procedure and the criteria for renegotiation. Then in the major stage, the inspector assesses the trustworthiness of the study in terms of the specific quality criteria.

The main procedures of performance audit methodology should be linked to key strategic directions of the inspectors and to provide in the form of the circuit shown in Fig. 3.

Figure 3: Scheme of methods of performance audit



IV. Writing and signing of opinions (the act)

Finally, the inspector writes an act and discusses it with the auditee. The format of the act is regulated of the Ministry of Finance [2]. This may lead to a renegotiation (and possibly to a new audit procedure). The final inspector' report in Russia is the act. Act contains a substantiated assessment.

Act indicates the following issues: base validation, purpose, object, object control, timing of audit summary of the test object, characteristic of violations, the findings of the audit. Act appropriate to partition is defined in the program.

Report must be complete, accurate, unbiased, credible and concise. The act considers to be completed if it contains all the necessary information about the audit objectives, and ensures adequate understanding of the reported information and if the act does not require any additional requests of materials in the course of realizable events

Accuracy of information is achieved, if there are no doubts that have been cast upon the authenticity of this act by the auditors and the auditees. Inaccurate information may adversely affect the reputation of the supervisory authority.

Objectivity of the information supposes that the presented evidence is fair, as well the independence of auditors involved in the monitoring process.

The validity of the act indicates that the findings are in consistence with arguments and conclusions and recommendations are based upon the facts presented. All violations must be confirmed by reference to regulations.

Conciseness requires that the act should be not lengthy than it is necessary to provide information about the results of validation checks. Unnecessary details distract from the merits of the case and may even conceal the true-worthy message and misleading. It should avoid unnecessary repetition. At the end of act preparation it is necessary to check whether all the certified copies of original documents confirming the facts of financial violations are attached to the act and that all references are made.

The methodology of state financial control should be continuously improved. Technologies are constantly evolving, developing new programs. Taking into consideration the current situation the methodologies of state financial control should be updated and adapted in accordance with changing conditions of the control environment.

Development

The experience from other countries suggests that government auditing, as part of a political structure, rarely develops on its own. Rather, its development is closely related to the development of democratic politics and the perfection of political structures. Peters K.M. (2008) writes:

“Future progress in federal financial management isn't likely to be substantial until agencies invest in improved finance and accounting systems, turn to other, more qualified agencies for financial services they cannot perform well themselves, and adopt uniform business processes.”

For effective state financial control in Russia will need the following:

- the statutory procedures for annual independent external audits of fiscal accountability with the issuance of opinions. Conclusions must be issued by certified professionals;
- effective information management systems to ensure proper monitoring and management, including the compliance of budget legislation;
- availability of and compliance with procedures established by law for the review of budgetary legislation and responsibility for any violation of it;
- availability of and compliance with formal, transparent and corruption resistant procedures for making decisions on the use of budgetary funds, including in procurement;
- regularly review and assess the quality of financial management, support measures for improvement;
- The development and application of mechanisms of internal control and auditing.

This approach assumes that the proposed methods, rules and procedures should be used flexibly. It is recognized that budgeting, result-oriented are also important to evaluate the performance of public officials and public servants and the extent to which they are responsible for their activities and their results. The establishment of operating budgets based on the calculation of resource requirements and expected results have the potential to achieve this in a way that may have been the absence of the past. Number of resources provided should depend on the expected results. That is, when failure to reach the established results, the amount of financial support through the budget must be reduced. It is also necessary to establish liability of officers for achieving certain results. Otherwise, the responsibility is undermined. In order to reach the before-mentioned, the reporting system must be developed, fixing the achievement of the results and its dynamics at least for last two years. This reporting system should be checked on an integrated basis throughout the budget cycle.

Russian state financial control reforms then should have focus on:

- * Reduce improper payments. The priority is to identify the reasons, development of plans to eliminate errors, increase accountability and collaboration with external stakeholders.
- * Write-off of unusable real estate. This requires a complete inventory of all federal property.
- * The exact matching of transactions between government agencies. This is a major stumbling block in providing opinions to the government as a whole.
- * Strengthening of internal controls. The institutions should be established a system of internal controls to avoid the numerous minor violations.

CONCLUSION

Based on the experience of other countries and on the state-of-the-art of public financial control in Russia, we can draw the following conclusions.

1. In Russia there is a need to revise the federal model of financial reporting and accounting standards. At the moment, chief accountants of public institutions have to take more than 100 different forms in their annual reports. Revision of the model of federal financial reporting should include reducing the number of reporting forms and simplification of procedures for its delivery. In this reporting standard must be changed to improve readability, clarity of wording to ensure transparency of the actual movement of the budget and accountability of the federal government.
2. Production of reliable financial statements should be viewed as a byproduct of effective business processes and financial management systems. The main goal is to improve the financial management system that the financial information from these systems can be used to control the institutions more effectively and efficiently, day-to-day. Well-designed and operating an integrated financial management system to significantly reduce the cost and amount of financial reporting.
3. Both management and the inspectors of the state financial control should seek what they need to understand the responsibilities and tasks of each other. Inspectors should be able to put yourself in the drafters, who may face some unique challenges that require flexibility. Management must appreciate what it means for inspectors to vouch for the evaluation of financial statements and sign your name and professional reputation on the bottom line. Inspectors should be useful and constructive in fulfilling their roles, as well as the compilers should have the appropriate standards.

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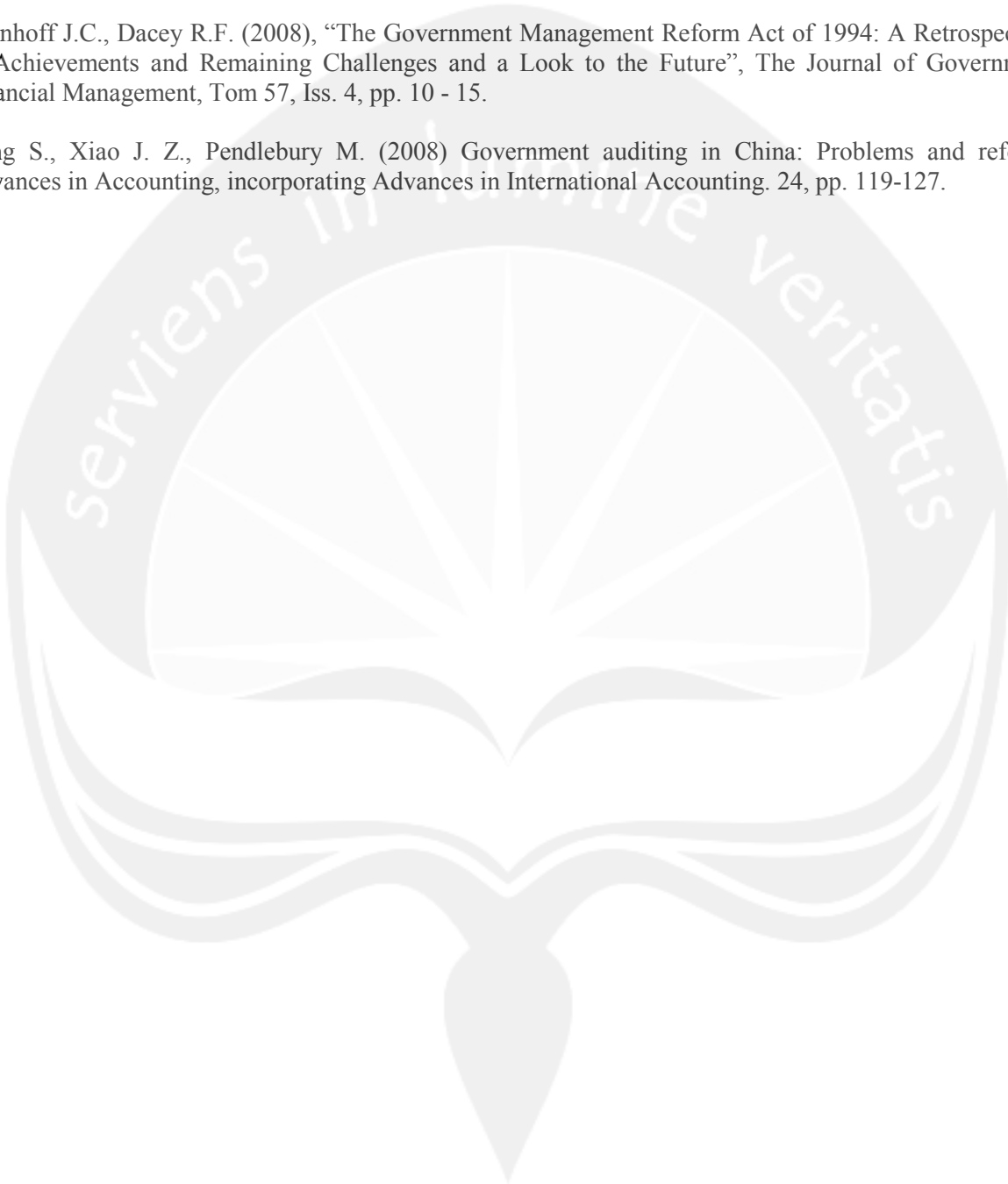
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BALANCED SCORECARD ATTRIBUTES: KEY DETERMINANT AND THE PERCEIVED BENEFITS

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ABSTRACT

This study sheds some light on Balanced scorecard (BSC) by exploring BSC attributes, key determinant and the perceived benefits. BSC consists of four attributes – translating strategy into operation terms, aligning the organizational units to the strategy, communicating strategy to employees and providing feedback and learning. Regarding determinant study, based on data collected by survey from 81 Thai listed companies, this paper finds that top management support is positively associated with each BSC attribute. Top management support is a vital factor facilitating the implementation of each BSC attribute. Moreover, for 37 BSC users, all BSC attributes are the sources of perceived benefits in various aspects – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

JEL: M190 and M490

KEYWORDS: Balanced scorecard, Strategy-focused organization, Perceived benefits

INTRODUCTION

Balanced Scorecard (BSC) devised by Kaplan and Norton in 1992 and has attracted considerable interest worldwide and becomes one of the most important developments in management accounting (Atkinson, et al., 1997). BSC consists of four key attributes – translating strategy into operation terms, aligning the organizational units to the strategy, communicating strategy to employees and providing feedback and learning. According to Strategy-focused organization (SFO), top management support is claimed to be a key factor for BSC implementation. To date, none have straightforwardly examined the relation between top management support and each BSC attribute. Regarding the perceived benefits of BSC, several studies show positive outcomes; however, they have some limitations. Firstly, most papers investigate the contribution of BSC implementation, not separate attributes of BSC. Only one paper (De Geuser et al., 2009) separately examines whether each BSC attribute is the source of organizational performance. Secondly, several studies examine only a single aspect of BSC implication and focus more on overall benefits and satisfaction. Thirdly, to the best of my knowledge, none has directly explored the perceived benefits in terms of planning, control and communication.

Hence, this current paper aims to fill the research gap by exploring the BSC attributes among Thai listed companies and investigating whether top management support is associated with those BSC attributes. In addition, various aspects of perceived benefits – overall benefits, planning, control and communication – are analyzed.

Based on 81 returned questionnaires, the empirical results demonstrate that, regardless of BSC application, top management support is positively associated with each BSC attribute. This confirms Kaplan and Norton's claim regarding the importance of this factor and extends the prior literature by highlighting the importance of this key determinant in facilitating the application of each BSC attribute in the organization. Taken self-assessed responses as given, thirty seven firms are BSC users. The tests for perceived benefits show that all BSC attributes are the sources of BSC contribution in all aspects – overall

benefits, planning, control and communication. This underscores the implication of BSC in diverse dimensions.

This paper is divided into five sections. The first section is the introduction discussed earlier. The second section presents a brief literature review, followed by the research methodology. The fourth section shows the empirical results. The last section concludes the paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Balanced Scorecard (BSC) and Strategy-Focused Organization (SFO)

Balanced scorecard is initially devised by Kaplan and Norton as the multi-dimensional performance measurement system with a collection of financial and nonfinancial measures. BSC is now transformed into a strategic performance measurement system (Kaplan and Norton, 1992; 1996; 2001a; 2001b; 2008). BSC relates to Strategy-focused organization (SFO) in the sense that BSC is a tool and a part of SFO (Kaplan and Norton, 2008). BSC incorporates various important attributes; SFO principles consists of BSC attributes and top management support as shown in Table 1

Table 1: BSC attributes and SFO principles

		Explanation
SFO principles	BSC attributes	
	Translating strategy into operation terms (Strategy)	This is a foundation of BSC and consists of three sub-attributes – (1.1) Multiple perspectives, (1.2) Measures derived from strategy, and (1.3) Cause-and-effect relationships among the strategic objectives or measures.
	Aligning the organizational units to the strategy (Alignment)	It is important to align business units' and functional units' strategies to the corporate-level strategy in order to generate the corporate synergy, which causes a collection of business units to create value than if each unit operates autonomously.
	Communicating strategy to employees (Communication)	Communicating and educating ensure that employees understand firm's strategy and scorecard. This intrinsically and extrinsically motivates employees to perform their works in the ways that contribute to the success of the strategy.
	Providing feedback and learning (Feedback)	Strategy should be linked to the budgeting process by setting targets for the strategic measures and by screening the strategic initiatives for achieving such targets. In addition, the feedback and learning process that enables strategic refinements or makes strategy a continual process.
	Top management support	Support from top management, including involvement and resources allocation, is the most important condition for implementing and sustaining BSC.

Key determinant: Top management support

In general, top management helps generate organizational supports both time and resources for implementing innovation in the organization (Chenhall, 2003; Roger, 2003); this is true in the case of BSC (Kaplan and Norton, 2008). Although Chen et al. (2006) find negative impact of top management support on BSC application, many studies and anecdotal evidence have supported the significance of this driver (e.g., Braam and Nijssen, 2008; Kaplan and Norton, 2008).

It should be noted that firms are not required to implement BSC; they may apply BSC concept intentionally or unintentionally. Hence, some BSC attributes might be applied in the organization and at the different degrees. As Kaplan and Norton have raised the importance of top management support in facilitating the implementation of BSC, it can imply that top management support should also ease the implementation of each BSC attribute. This leads to the following hypotheses:

H1a: Top management support is positively associated with translating strategy into operation terms.

H1b: Top management support is positively associated with aligning the organizational units to the strategy.

H1c: Top management support is positively associated with communicating strategy to employees.

H1d: Top management support is positively associated with providing feedback and learning.

The perceived benefits of BSC application

Previous research on implication of BSC has mostly revealed significant consequences of BSC application in terms of employees' satisfaction (Ittner et al., 2003; McWhorton, 2001), perceived organization's performance compared to competitors (e.g., Hoque and James, 2000), perceived performance improvement (e.g., DeBusk and Crabtree, 2006; De Geuser et al., 2009), the integration of management processes, and perceived benefits of BSC relative to its costs (De Geuser et al., 2009). Although the positive expost-attitudes toward using BSC have been revealed in most studies, few examine various aspects of BSC contribution simultaneously. In addition, most studies have not concerned the impacts of each BSC attribute on BSC contribution.

Only one paper separately examines whether each BSC attribute is the source of organizational performance. De Geuser et al. (2009) test whether four features of BSC and top management support are the sources of BSC contribution. They find that attribute 1 (Strategy) and 4 (Feedback) seem to be the key sources of overall improvement; while attribute 2 (Alignment) and 3 (Communication) show marginal impact. Top management support does not influence any perceived organizational performance.

As mentioned earlier, BSC is one of the most important developments in management accounting, particularly in strategic planning and control (Atkinson et al., 1997). Based on Kaplan and Norton's claim, organizations using BSC can focus on achieving their strategic objectives and measures, cascading the corporate strategy into aligned and integrated strategies at lower-level units, communicating the strategy to ensure that everyone working towards common goals, and adjusting strategy when needed. Hence, for BSC users, each BSC attribute should enhance the perceived benefits in terms of overall benefits, planning, control, and communication. The following hypotheses present the postulated relationship between each BSC attribute and the various aspects of perceived benefits.

H2a: Translating strategy into operational terms is positively associated with the various aspects of perceived benefits – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

H2b: Aligning the organizational units to the strategy is positively associated with the various aspects of perceived benefits – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

H2c: Communicating strategy to employees is positively associated with the various aspects of perceived benefits – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

H2d: Providing feedback and learning is positively associated with the various aspects of perceived benefits – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data and Survey instrument

Samples in this cross-sectional survey research are 508 firms listed in the Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) and Market Alternative Investments (MAI). Since 81 questionnaires are returned, the response rate is 15.94 percent. This low response rate is not unusual for the survey in Thailand (Pholnaruksa, 2007).

A survey package (a questionnaire with cover letter and a postage-paid, self-addressed envelope) was mailed out to CFO in May and June, 2011. The questionnaire was firstly developed based on the foundation concept of BSC. Consequently, the questionnaire is revised based on the pre-tested results and comments from academics and the CFOs of the pre-tested firms. Regardless of the BSC usage, questionnaire requires respondents to specify the degree of which each BSC attribute is embedded in their firms' performance measurement systems (ranging 0-100). To strengthen the construct validity, each BSC attribute has multiple questions. After identifying whether or not they are BSC users, only BSC firms are required to specify the degree of perceived benefits of BSC implementation in various aspects – overall benefits, planning, control and communication.

Model specifications and variables

Table 2: Models and variables for determinant and perceived benefit tests

Models					
<i>H1</i>			<i>H2</i>		
$BSCATT_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TOP_i + \varepsilon_i$			$BENE_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 BSCATT_i + \varepsilon_i$		
(1)			(2)		
Variables					
TOP_i	top management support	$BSCATT_i$	each BSC attribute	$BENE_i$	each aspect of perceived benefits
		$STRAT_i$	strategy	ALL_i	overall benefits
		$ALIGN_i$	alignment	$PLAN_i$	planning
		$COMM_i$	communication	CON_i	control
		$FEED_i$	Feedback	COM_i	communication

The model (1) and (2) are employed for examining H1 and H2, respectively. The average percentage score of each BSC attribute is calculated for each firm.

The findings demonstrate that top management support is positively and significantly associated with each BSC attribute at 0.01 level. Thus, H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d are all supported. This confirms Kaplan and Norton's claim regarding top management support as a key factor for implementing BSC in the organization and extends the prior research by providing that top management support is vital factor influencing the implementation of each BSC attribute.

Table 3: Data for determinant and perceived benefit tests

Variables		Avg	Min	Max	SD	Cronbach's alpha	N of questions
<i>Data for H1 (all samples, N=81)</i>							
Strategy	<i>STRAT_i</i>	71.64	3.13	100.00	17.66	0.938	8
Alignment	<i>ALIGN_i</i>	70.25	3.75	100.00	19.06	0.902	4
Communication	<i>COMM_i</i>	69.58	3.75	100.00	18.77	0.880	4
Feedback	<i>FEED_i</i>	73.04	5.63	100.00	18.30	0.961	8
Top management support	<i>TOP_i</i>	76.57	14.00	100.00	16.33	0.959	5
<i>Data for H2 (BSC users, N=37)</i>							
Strategy	<i>STRAT_i</i>	76.74	37.63	100.00	14.99	0.938	8
Alignment	<i>ALIGN_i</i>	73.05	30.00	100.00	18.96	0.948	4
Communication	<i>COMM_i</i>	73.71	30.00	100.00	16.28	0.842	4
Feedback	<i>FEED_i</i>	76.72	43.75	100.00	15.42	0.958	8
Top management support	<i>TOP_i</i>	79.43	50.00	100.00	11.58	0.939	5
Overall benefits	<i>ALL_i</i>	75.41	50.00	100.00	14.06	N.A.	1
Planning	<i>PLAN_i</i>	77.51	50.00	100.00	13.36	N.A.	1
Control	<i>CON_i</i>	77.03	50.00	100.00	13.72	N.A.	1
Communication	<i>COM_i</i>	73.38	10.00	100.00	17.99	N.A.	1

RESULTS

Table 4: The results of determinant test (N=81)

Dependent		<i>STRAT_i</i>		<i>ALIGN_i</i>		<i>COMM_i</i>		<i>FEED_i</i>	
Independent	<i>TOP_i</i>	0.856	***	0.996	***	1.001	***	0.869	***
Intercept		8.772		-6.051		-5.771		7.778	
Adj. R ²		42.1%		35.2%		49.3%		40.9%	
		H1a is supported		H1b is supported		H1c is supported		H1d is supported	

***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent levels respectively.

The results in Table 5 demonstrate that, for BSC users, each BSC attribute is positively and significantly associated with each aspect of perceived benefits. This supports the benefits of BSC implementation as well as extends the prior studies by exploring that each BSC attribute is a source of such benefits.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper simultaneously underscores the vital determinant and the positive effects of BSC implementation. Specifically, this research explores the BSC attributes and finds that top management support is a key factor influencing the implementation of each BSC attribute. Furthermore, regarding BSC users, all BSC attributes are the sources of perceived benefits in various aspects – overall benefits, planning, control and communication. Regarding the limitation, self-response bias is commonly concerned for survey research. As the application of BSC is examined at the corporate level, not business unit level, the results should be carefully interpreted. According to future research, other determinants and quantitative impacts of BSC implementation should be examined with a concern of BSC attributes.

Table 5: The results of perceived benefit tests (N=37)

Panel A		ALL_i		$PLAN_i$		CON_i		COM_i	
Independent	$STRAT_i$	0.621	***	0.662	***	0.641	***	0.663	***
Intercept		27.752	***	26.706	***	27.815	***	22.489	**
Adj.R ²		42.2%		53.9%		47.7%		28.6%	
H2a is supported.									
Panel B		ALL_i		$PLAN_i$		CON_i		COM_i	
Independent	$ALIGN_i$	0.518	***	0.425	***	0.549	***	0.588	***
Intercept		37.560	***	46.463	***	36.928	***	30.451	***
Adj.R ²		47.3%		34.6%		56.4%		36.6%	
H2b is supported.									
Panel C		ALL_i		$PLAN_i$		CON_i		COM_i	
Independent	$COMM_i$	0.634	***	0.637	***	0.676	***	0.801	***
Intercept		28.644	***	30.594	***	27.174	***	14.311	*
Adj.R ²		52.6%		59.0%		63.4%		51.2%	
H2c is supported.									
Panel D		ALL_i		$PLAN_i$		CON_i		COM_i	
Independent	$FEED_i$	0.514	***	0.491	***	0.620	***	0.495	***
Intercept		35.978	***	39.823	***	29.435	***	35.356	***
Adj.R ²		29.8%		30.2%		47.2%		15.7%	
H2d is supported.									

***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent levels respectively.

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CONTINUOUS AUDIT CONTINUOUS MONITORING – ANALYTICS ON MANUAL JOURNAL VOUCHER

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ABSTRACT

Continuous Audit and Continuous Monitoring provides a radically improved level of assurance on operations and financial reporting. Continuous Audit is about INDEPENDENT ASSURANCE for the AUDIT stakeholders and thus the company. Continuous Monitoring is for MANAGEMENT to assure the business is running effectively and efficiently. Continuous monitoring enables management continually review business processes for adherence to and deviations from their intended levels of performance and effectiveness. HP applied CACM to various accounting functions and leverages the technique to track performance of Manual Journal Vouchers

JEL: M42

KEYWORDS: Audit, Continuous Audit, CACM, Manual Journal Voucher

INTRODUCTION

Manual Journal Entries have always been a critical area that influences any company's financial statements. Decentralized processes and the high volumes of journal entries make monitoring of the process across all areas challenging. This is where concept of Continuous Auditing and Continuous Monitoring was tested and thus adopted.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

HP does lots of manual accounting in term of passing journal entries. The chances of occurrence of fraud and error get higher with high number of manual intervention. The recent past trend shows, HP has a significant share of manual journal entries contributing to its financial books of accounts. *(All figures and numbers in this paper are merely illustrations only)*. A detailed analysis of few countries also shows that 41% of these countries have surpassed the average MJV (Manual Journal Voucher).

Table 1: Trends of MJV (Manual Journal Voucher)

Classification	No. of Countries (#)			\$ Value of Countries (in %)		
	Qtr 1	Qtr 2	Δ :Q2 Vs Q1	Qtr 1	Qtr 2	Δ: Q2 Vs Q1
Worse than Average - MJV	20	25	↑	51%	45%	↓
At Average - MJV	8	13	↑	11%	24%	↑
Better than Average - MJV	32	22	↓	38%	31%	↓

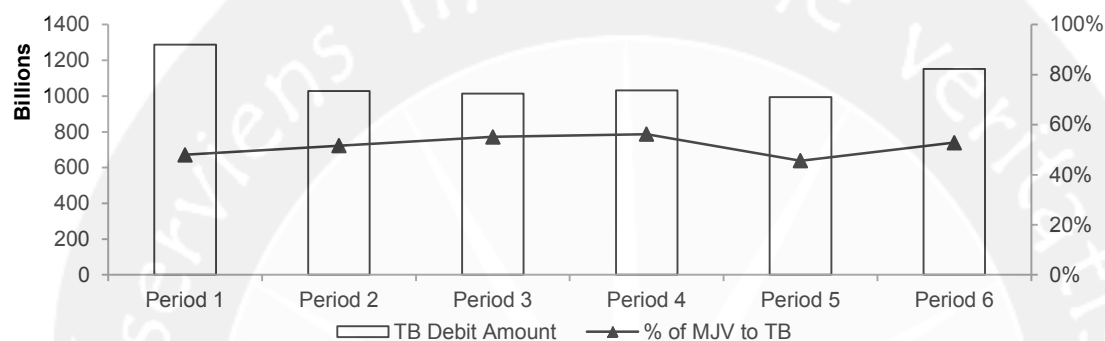
This table shows the countries falling under different bracket of MJV (Manual Journal Voucher) and the trend between two periods. The numbers above are for illustration purpose only.

RESULTS (SOLUTIONS)

Global Status

HP has performed detailed analysis to study the trend of MJV over a time of 6 periodic sessions. The below table depicts total percentage of MJV out of total trial balance entries for few countries, which helped us to understand the monthly trend. The number shows significant share of worth of MJV across all 6 periods.

Figure 1: Total percentage of MJV

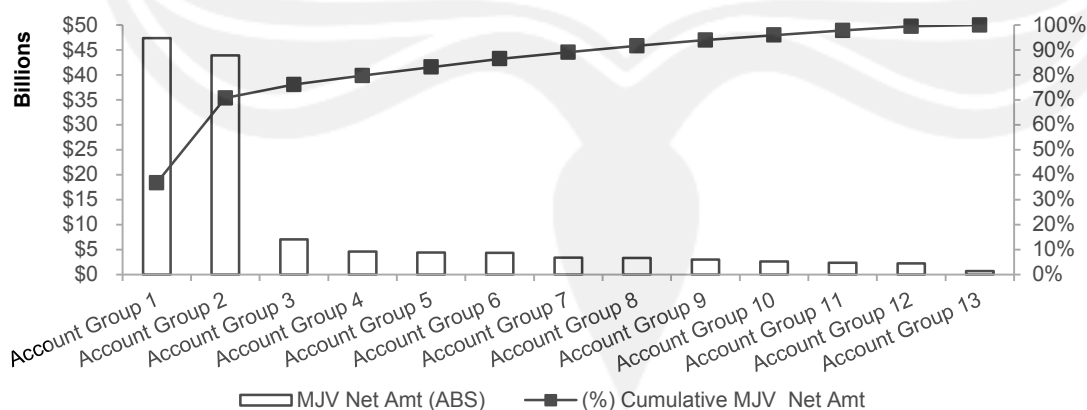


The above figure shows increasing trend observed till period 4, then a sudden dip and immediate pick. The numbers above are for illustration purpose only.

Group Accounts Wise Contribution

The Figure 2 show the analysis performed to understand the account wise MJV hit. This analysis was performed to analyze the most hit account. The study shows 71% of the total Manual Entries hit just two types of Group Accounts: Group 1 and Group 2 of the total set of 13 account groups.

Figure 2: Account Group distribution of MJV

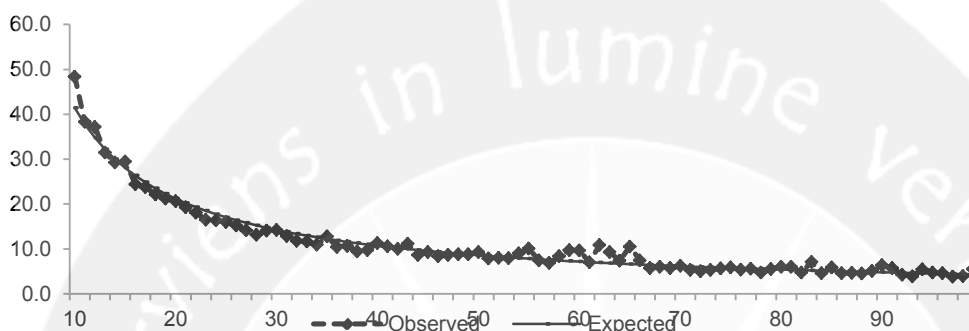


The above figure shows the different account group which have MJV hits. The numbers above are for illustration purpose only.

Benford's Analysis – Overall Pattern

Benford's law- a law used by auditors to identify fictitious populations of numbers; applies to any population of numbers derived from other numbers; "Benford's law holds that 30% of the time the first non-zero digit of a derived number will be 1 and it will be 9 only 4.6% of the time"

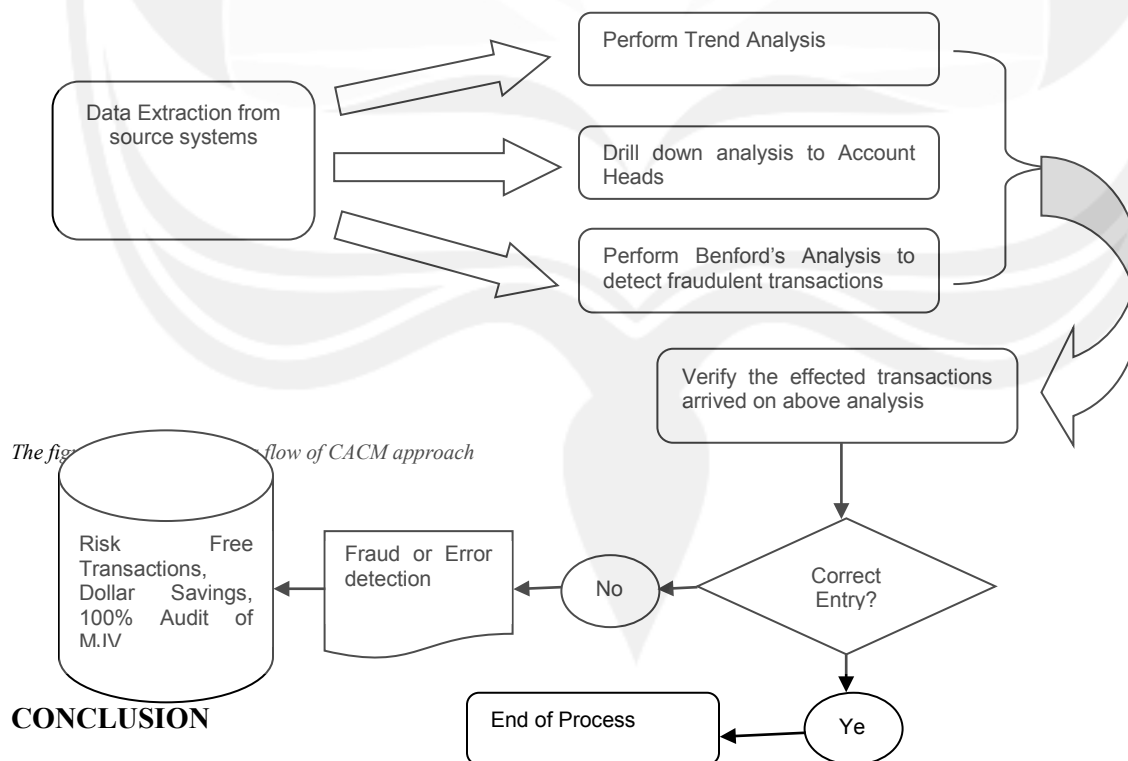
Figure 3: Benford's Analysis



The above figure shows results of Benford's analysis. The numbers above are for illustration purpose only.

PROCESS - CACM APPROACH

Figure 4: Process flow of CACM Approach



The presented study provide with multiple benefits to the organization by ensuring risk free transactions which were entered manually. It helps to determine fraud or error involvement in the transaction or incorrect and unusual entries. MJV analytics also reduces the effort and audit hours by figuring out pain areas and focusing on effected entries.

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THE RELEVANCE OR IRRELEVANCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR) TO ENHANCE GOVERNMENT-BUSINESS RELATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA: A THEORETICAL EXPOSITION.

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ABSTRACT

The notion and practice of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has received and continues to attract massive attention from business across the globe as a mechanism of business organizations to position themselves as socially responsible entities. This attention can be attributed to the pressures brought about by globalization and, in the developing world, the increasing burden faced by governments to provide comprehensive social services. This initiative has received mixed reactions from various sectors of the business practitioners and researchers, while governments globally have enhanced the environment within which business could explore this initiative. In South Africa, a sizeable number of business organizations are embracing this notion partly due to an array of legislative measures; e.g. Affirmative Action; Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE); Skills Development, as well as the King Report on Corporate Governance in South Africa (King Report III, 2009). The paper interrogates whether CSR is a relevant mechanism to enhance government-business relations in globalized world, or an appeasement by the private sector to cuddle favors on governments to loosen their grip on stringent conditions on business practices?

KEY WORDS: Corporate Social Responsibility, Governance, Public Administration, South Africa

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary South Africa is a state and a country of contradictions. It is a country well-endowed with natural resources, relatively cheap labor and; a well-established corporate sector. The political emancipation in 1994 was met with much fanfare and promises and expectations of economic freedom. What escaped the political and economic discourse of the majority of the citizens was the damage inflicted by business practices on the most vulnerable of the society. The majority were looking and expecting the state to provide services that were denied during the colonial and infamous apartheid system, without taking the challenge to the corporate sector. The transformation of the state was meant to bring a better life, with government expected to redirect the resources where they were needed, but the underlying ideology underpinning the reform initiatives had other consequences. Looking into the role the corporate sector could play to alleviate poverty, the notion of corporate social responsibility entered the fray, but as the discussion would demonstrate, not much could be expected in view of the voluntary nature of its practice in South Africa. This is a theoretical paper, it will start by exploring governance and public administration and how it has been transformed and continue to be challenged by the corporate sector; also the notion of corporate social responsibility will be analyzed and; a synopsis of the South African scenario.

GOVERNANCE AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: A CONTESTED TERRAIN IN GOVERNMENT-BUSINESS RELATIONS

The role and size of government in the economy and the society in general has been and, continue to be fiercely contested. This is due to the global waves of public sector reforms for the past three decades. This was due in part, to the unrelenting challenge to the traditional ways of thinking about government and, efforts to refute the conventional wisdom on governance and public administration (Farazmand: 2007; Diale, Maserumule, Mello: 2007; Caulfield: 2006). These efforts culminated in the emergence of reformist initiatives, coerced and self-initiated, such as “agencification”, privatization, contracting-out, public-private partnerships and what Farazmand (2007) refers to as the orthodoxy of New Public Management (NPM).

These initiatives are predominantly attributed to the neo-liberal revival in the 1970’s after the economic crisis which followed the massive rise in oil prices (Batley & Larbi: 2004). This neo-liberalism paradigm was further expanded to the countries of the developing world through donor agencies, multilateral institutions like the World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), the two main institutions which became the main propagators of the “Washington Consensus”; a panoply of precepts to do with the liberalization, privatization and stabilization of economies, and the reduction of the role and scale of the public sector. This led to the development and expansion of the notion of globalization and global reforms, a global quest of multinational corporations to claim global leadership on western capitalism, a process which Farazmand (2007) refers to as “Globalization of the Corporate Capitalism”. In this case, the private sector was positioned to play a leading and dominant role in public life of any state, regardless of its political, social, economic or cultural imperatives, (Minogue: 2003).

In the quest for adjusting the role of the state in the developing countries, some critical aspects come to bear; they are: (1) the question of ownership – who conceives, drives and support reform? (2) the uniformity of application – the main tenets of state withdrawal and adjustment was first developed to adjust to fiscal crisis in advanced welfare states, were applied to countries with very different circumstances whose only common feature was debt and, (3) the adjustment has often been implemented in an unbalanced way, leading to deeper crisis and poverty at least in the short term, (Batley & Larbi: 2004, Minogue: 2003).

The fundamental points of relevance to administrative reform are several but, according to Faranzmand (2007: 364) the most important of which is a globally implemented comprehensive set of reforms should (a) facilitate the process of change and continuity in world capitalism toward a more cohesive and well-coordinated global organization of corporate capitalism, (b) shrink the size and reduce the functions of the state and governments worldwide, whereas at the same time, expand the role, functions, and scope of activities of the business-private sector dominated by the corporate organizational arrangements; (c) position the societies / countries for favorable operations of the global corporate capitalist systems by deregulations of environment, relaxation of labor laws, and deregulation of workplaces, (d) dismantle the welfare administrative state and replace it with the corporate welfare state; (e) establish a system of global corporate dependency through “agencification” – outsourcing and contracting; (f) establish a global corporate hegemony with the power concentrated in the West. It is in the context of the above exploration that, the energy invested in the global reform movement for the last three or so decades was not only on the pretext that; state organs were incapable (inefficient) of delivering, in the best possible manner, those goods and services for the general welfare of the society. Instead, every efforts were made to ensure that

the initial ideological claim of inefficiency by the state apparatus were to be extended to even the core and heart of governments around the world, a situation described by George Monbiot (2001) as “The Captive State” wherein the entire public sphere has been taken over for profit and capital accumulation by the corporate business organizations.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: A POSTULATE FOR ETHICAL AND RESPONSIBLE IN BUSINESS OR PRAXIS OF EVIL?

Jamali & Mirshak (2006) postulate that Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) got heightened interest as a result of the advent of globalization and international trade, which reflected in increased business complexity and new demands for enhanced transparency and corporate citizenship. The concept among others has attracted the following expressions; it is commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families and the local communities (Blowfield & Frynas: 2005: 501), the fundamental idea being that business corporations have an obligation to work towards meeting the needs of a wider array of stakeholders. CSR, according to these authors, is founded on a stronger recognition of the role of business as an active partner in a world of scarcity and dwindling resources (Jamali & Mirshak: 2006: 244).

The notion of CSR has not been uniformly embraced, with lingering diverging views about its potential usefulness and applicability. This is mainly because government, civil society and business all to some extent see CSR as a bridge connecting the arenas of business and development, and increasingly discuss CSR programs in terms of their contribution to development (Blowfield & Frynas: 2005, Jamali & Mirshak: 2006: 244). The discussion on CSR is not the homogeneous, coherent concept that is often presented as being. Indeed, one concern is that the use of the term has become so broad as to allow people to interpret and adopt it for many different purposes (Fig: 2005, Banerjee: 2008, Windsor: 2006). This vagueness, according to Blowfield & Frynas (2005), restricts CSR’s usefulness both as an analytical tool and as a guide for decision makers. However, an inclusive definition as an umbrella term for a variety of theories and practices recognize the following; (a) that companies have a responsibility for their impact on society and the natural environment, sometimes beyond legal compliance and the liability of individuals; (b) that companies have a responsibility for the behavior of others with whom they do business; and (c) that business needs to manage its relationship with wider society, whether for reasons of commercial viability or to add value to society.

According to Banerjee (2008), CSR is nothing else other than an emancipatory rhetoric, defined by narrow business interest and serve to curtail interests of external stakeholders. It is an ideological movement that is intended to legitimize the power of large corporations. The argument is that, whereas the primary relationship between business and society has been and continues to be an economic one, rising public concern about the social the social and environmental impacts of their business activity, this discourse represents and construct the relationship between business and society based on corporate interests, not societal one. In any case, Banerjee (2008: 61) maintains, corporate rationality dictates the nature and scope of acceptable CSR practices engineering the inevitable compromise of making a business case for corporate social responsibility. Further, the rhetoric of corporate social responsibility also seems to confuse democracy with capitalism in that, multinational corporations have assumed the role of “carrier of democratic values” and have often taken the role of governments in the countries of the third world as in the case of Shell in Nigeria (Banerjee: 2008). The following section is an attempt to unpack the intents, purpose and outlook of corporate social responsibility, the South African version.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN SOUTH AFRICA: THE COUNTRY AT THE MERCY OF THE CORPORATE INDUCEMENT.

The case of South Africa is an interesting episode. Prior to the 1994 democratic dispensation, the business sector (in particular mining and agriculture) was at the fore front of the up-keep of the now defunct Apartheid system of government in areas of migrant labor system, dehumanizing single-sex hostels, the racial division of labor and discriminatory salary system, among others. The sector had an uninhibited free ride in conducting its business eschewing the social, moral and ethical imperatives as per the prescripts of the corporate social responsibility agenda.

As Fig (2005: 599-600) further points out, big businesses helped out in sanctions-busting operations, received subsidies and paid taxes to the apartheid state and provided services, technologies and weapons directly used for oppression of the majority black population and any other grouping that was considered unfriendly to the regime at the time. If one were to use the analogy of corporate social responsibility punting big business to be moral and responsible agents (as outlined by Carroll : 1979 and Wood: 1991) out of their own free will, then morality and responsibility defining corporate social responsibility should be having a different connotation to that of South Africa's big business of the time. Or alternatively, as some would want the world to believe in the post-1994 miracle of the Mandela presidency, has big business undergone a radical transformation to depict the image as described within the literature and discourse of corporate social responsibility? The answer to this question is a complicated one, but an attempt will be made to get an evasive answer.

It needs to be pointed out that, the post 1994 democratic government under the African National Congress (ANC), was prepared and coached for the management of the country by the very corporate sector / big business that propelled the apartheid government. Literature is abound in this regard where in big business, having realized the inevitable about the apartheid system, began consultations with the government-in-waiting in Lusaka regarding the prospects of economic direction under their rule (Fatton: 1984, Andreasson: 2006, Fig: 2005). What is evident is that South Africa under the ANC rule did not shed much of the neo-liberal and capitalist orientation as it persisted under the apartheid system and; the business community which made profits on the back of human rights violations was unconditionally embraced and absolved of any culpability, without the victims being compensated. What was more shocking and baffled even the worst of skeptics, any litigation by victims of corporate injustices were met with opposition from the post-apartheid government. The neo-liberal and capitalist orientation referred to above could be observed from the cosmetic transformation initiatives on the economic front. This could be seen from (a) the abandonment of the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) a development oriented redistribution program in favor of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) a monetary program induced by the world's financial sector; (b) the introduction of the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) which facilitated the creation of the few black capitalists, majority of whom are politically connected the ruling elite; (c) sweeping privatization; (d) deregulation and; (e) trade liberalization. This was a clear sign and indication of the government that, contrary to initial policy positions of redistribution, the private sector was assured that that would not likely to happen. It is no wonder that even the notion and practice of corporate social responsibility was and continues to be redefined and informed by global trends and attitudes (see Corporate Social Responsibility – As practiced by South African and German Companies).

To give a glimpse of the CSR in South Africa, it would be worthwhile to give a prelude to such efforts as postulated by the Southern African – German Chamber of Commerce and Industry, the document does not even have a concise definition of what CSR mean, instead an array of views are expressed including those of the European Commission (EC), International Standards Organization (ISO). The emphasis is on “a balanced approach for organizations to address economic, social and environmental issues in a way that aims to benefit people” (Boddenberg & Aletter:nd: 12). The system as applied in South Africa is completely voluntary in that, companies are not compelled to have CSR policies, if they do have such policies, they will determine the principles which companies are following and the programmes they have put in place suitable to their own specific criteria, they can take a variety of formats and may address any issue. The abysmal history of corporate South Africa during apartheid and the subsequent years of the new dispensation as Fig (2005: 601) puts it; eschews the notion of “corporate social responsibility”, despite the wide usage of this term among practitioners and the literature. Instead, it favors concepts “corporate social investment” and “corporate citizenship”: concepts that ask no questions about legacy, memory, history, justice, or moral and ethical responsibilities. According to Banerjee (2008: 62-63) the concern that corporate citizenship discourses could have the effect of reducing governmental scrutiny of corporate practices because they promote a particular form of self-governance, which has the potential of opening of what is referred to as “pathways to greed”, given the enormous power that large multinational companies wield. What has also become a regular practice from some companies whose actions the environment has been at the receiving end, the practice of “green-washing” as perfected by for example, Sappi, Mondi, (see Fig: 2005: 599-617). Sappi for example, has a reputation as green-oriented, because of the resources it devotes to widely distributed nature publications and other numerous environmental projects.

It is in the light of the above exposition that, a country like South Africa, with its history of social, political and economic discrimination, propelled by the corporate sector, there is a need for a thorough examination and interrogation about the expected role by the corporate sector in bringing about genuine change to the communities that bore the brunt of their indiscretion. The role of government cannot be over-emphasized in this case since most of the reform initiatives are to a greater extent, informed by the private sector interests in their quest for global economic domination. Regardless of the varied views on what fundamentally is constitute socially responsible private sector, the reality on the ground is that, the vocabulary of corporate social responsibility will remain. As the practice is currently unfolding, the power-relation between the government and the private sector are skewed and unbalanced in favour of the corporate sector, governments have been stripped off most of their sovereign powers and responsibilities. This is in part due to the multilateral agreements and treaties that have over the years been pursued by institutions such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund and World Trade Organizations.

CONCLUSION

The contention of this paper is that corporate social responsibility can and has the potential to create healthy government-business relations, provided it is not utilized for political expediency. As the exposition has attempted, South Africa with its chequered history will require tremendous amount of efforts in bringing the corporate sector on board for its developmental agenda. This exploration, for it to make a meaningful contribution to body of knowledge on the corporate social responsibility and public administration, necessitates a empirical study to gauge and determine the extent of commitment by private business toward the developmental of South Africa.

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SPANISH PROCEEDINGS



CARACTERIZACIÓN Y MODELADO DE REDES: ÍNDICES FINANCIEROS MUNDIALES

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RESUMEN

En este artículo revisaremos las principales herramientas que permiten analizar las características estadísticas y topológicas de redes financieras. Presentamos un estudio de la correlación de los principales índices financieros mundiales mediante un árbol de expansión mínima construido en un periodo de 6.5 años. Se encuentra que índice francés CAC 40 constituye el centro de masa del árbol. Los índices son clasificados dependiendo de su distancia al centro de masa. Finalmente se muestra un análisis de los conglomerados formados por los índices.

JEL: C02, C22, C38, C45, C61, C81, D85

PALABRAS CLAVES: Redes Financieras. Econofísica. Correlación. Árboles de expansión mínima.

CHARACTERIZATION AND MODELING OF NETWORKS: GLOBAL

ABSTRACT

We review the main tools, which allow for statistical and topological characterization of financial networks. The correlation between the main world financial indexes is studied by using a minimum spanning tree built over a period of 6.5 years. It is found that France's CAC 40 index is the center of mass of the tree. Indexes are classified depending on their distance from the center of mass. Finally, we show an analysis of the clusters formed by the indexes.

JEL: C02, C22, C38, C45, C61, C81, D85

KEYWORDS: Minimal spanning tree. Econophysics. Weighted networks. Correlations. Financial index.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En los últimos años han aumentado las investigaciones en temas relacionados a la globalización de la economía mundial, sin embargo es mucho lo que queda por estudiar sobre sus orígenes y consecuencias. Grandes crisis y colapsos económicos y financieros de un país son, en muchas ocasiones, atribuibles a acontecimientos recientes en otros países. Se ha visto que los efectos de la crisis de Asia se transmiten a América Latina por canales comerciales y financieros; de igual manera, la crisis hipotecaria de Estados Unidos golpeó las bolsas internacionales.

En este trabajo se presenta un estudio de la correlación de 45 de los principales índices financieros mundiales, mediante la construcción y el análisis de un árbol de expansión mínima. Mediante el cálculo del vértice central del árbol y otras medidas importantes en las redes, se determina el índice que presenta mayor relación con los demás y los conglomerados que se forman entre ellos.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

Los trabajos fundamentales en redes financieras aparecen a finales de los ochenta. El concepto de grafos en el ambiente de mercados financieros fue introducido por Mategna, Bonano y otros (1989) como un método para encontrar arreglos jerárquicos de acciones a través del estudio de conglomerados de compañías. Los árboles de expansión mínima han sido usados para optimizar portafolios (Bonano, 2004) usando el hecho de que los activos del portafolio óptimo de Markowitz están prácticamente todo el tiempo en las ramas externas del árbol.

Algunas medidas topológicas han sido definidas, con el fin de caracterizar los árboles y clasificar los vértices dependiendo de sus distancias a un vértice especial que simula el centro de masa del árbol (M. Barthélemy, A. Barrat, R. Pastor-Satorras, 2005). Algunos estudios empíricos han mostrado que estas medidas son altamente susceptibles a las crisis del mercado y que clasifican los sectores económicos de acuerdo a su importancia relativa en el árbol (Medina, L. Mansilla, R., 2007) y (Medina, L. Díaz, B., 2011).

Árboles De Expansión Mínima

El árbol de expansión mínima se construye a partir de la matriz de correlación C_{ij} , de tamaño $N \times N$, de los precios de cierre de los índices de los diferentes países seleccionados ($N=45$ en nuestro estudio). La matriz se construye de acuerdo a la siguiente fórmula:

$$C_{ij} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \delta x_i(t) \delta x_j(t) \quad (1)$$

donde T es el número de días cotizados (longitud de las series de tiempo) y $\delta x_i(t)$ son los rendimientos normalizados de cada índice. El rendimiento $\delta X_i(t)$

del índice financiero $S_i(t)$ se define como $\delta X_i(t) = \ln S_i(t + \Delta t) - \ln S_i(t)$. Para poder detectar similitudes en el patrón de los rendimientos en diferentes países, es necesario normalizar los rendimientos utilizando la media $\langle X_i(t) \rangle$ y la varianza (volatilidad) empírica de cada serie. De esta manera:

$$\delta x_i(t) = \frac{\delta X_i(t) - \langle \delta X_i(t) \rangle}{\sqrt{\delta X_i^2(t) - \langle \delta X_i(t) \rangle^2}} \quad (2)$$

Para construir el árbol de expansión mínima, se usará la distancia euclidiana $d_{ij} = \sqrt{2(1 - C_{ij})}$. Debido a que $-1 \leq C_{ij} \leq 1$, se tiene que $0 \leq d_{ij} \leq 2$. Note que si dos índices están perfectamente correlacionados ($C_{ij} = 1$) la distancia entre ellos es 0, y, si están “anticorrelacionados” ($C_{ij} = -1$) su distancia es 2.

Un árbol de expansión es una gráfica de N objetos (vértices o nodos) unidos por $N-1$ arcos que permiten ir de un vértice a cualquier otro. Si cada arco representa una distancia o costo, o en general si a cada arco se le asocia un peso (número real), la suma de los pesos de todos los lados de un árbol, será el peso total del árbol. Un árbol de expansión mínima es un árbol de expansión que minimiza el peso total del árbol. Revisaremos brevemente las diferentes medidas y parámetros que nos permitirán una primera caracterización estadística de los árboles.

Grado del vértice: El grado del vértice i , es el número de nodos que están conectados directamente al nodo i , esto es, el número de elementos que integran la vecindad de i , $(V(i))$.

Fortaleza del vértice: la fortaleza del vértice s_i se define así:

$$s_i = \sum_{j \in V(i)} d_{ij} \quad (3)$$

La fortaleza del vértice integra la información de su conectividad y de la importancia de los pesos de sus vértices conectados.

Nivel del vértice: El nivel v_{ij} es la suma de los arcos que hay que pasar sobre el árbol para ir del vértice i al vértice j .

El Promedio de ocupación: es la distancia promedio del vértice v_i a los demás vértices, esto es:

$$l(v_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^n v_{ij} \quad (4)$$

El nodo con promedio de ocupación más baja es el centro de masa del árbol.

El vértice central: El vértice central es considerado como el padre de todos los vértices del árbol o también como la raíz del mismo. Este se usa como punto de referencia en el árbol, contra el cual la posición de los demás vértices es relativa. Hay un poco de arbitrariedad en la elección del vértice central, sin embargo los siguientes criterios pueden ayudar a escoger al mejor candidato: El vértice de mayor grado, el vértice de mayor fortaleza y/o el centro de masa.

El Árbol Empírico

Las series de tiempo que conforman la base de datos para este estudio están formadas por los precios de cierre diario de 45 índices: América del Norte (6), América del Sur y el Caribe (7), Europa Occidental (8), Europa Oriental (7), África (6), Asia y Australia (11) en el periodo comprendido entre 01/01/2005 y 27/09/2011. El árbol de expansión mínima fue construido con el algoritmo de Kruskal y la gráfica usando el software para redes pajeK.

De acuerdo a la Tabla 1, los índices que obtienen mejor clasificación corresponden al CAC 40 de Francia, el HSI de Hong Kong, el AS51 de Australia y el S&P500 de USA. Cada uno de ellos lidera un conglomerado geográfico importante. De acuerdo al grado, fortaleza y promedio de ocupación, el vértice central es el índice CAC 40. Es importante notar que las tres medidas coinciden al elegir El grado y la fortaleza del vértice pueden ser influenciados no sólo por variables económicas y financieras sino por cuestiones geográficas y horario de apertura de las bolsas.

El nivel del vértice parece ser una medida más adecuada en este contexto para seleccionar el vértice central. La Figura 1 Muestra el árbol de expansión mínima de los índices financieros. El centro de masa del árbol se lo disputan Francia y Hong Kong. En el árbol se distinguen claramente tres grandes conglomerados: el de América del Norte, liderado por S&P500 de USA, El de Europa Occidental liderado por CAC40 de Francia y el de Asia y Australia liderado por HSI de Hong Kong.

Un cuarto conglomerado, el más pequeño de todos, corresponde a países Suramericanos, que parecen tener más influencia de los índices Europeos que de los Norteamericanos. Los índices de países Africanos no forman conglomerados al igual que los índices de los países de Europa Oriental. Los resultados obtenidos por el índice venezolano lo clasifican como un índice atípico.

Un estudio posterior podrá incluir árboles de índices en el tiempo, con la intención de observar los cambios en la taxonomía del árbol con las crisis del mercado y la influencia del horario en el vértice central.

Tabla 1: Medidas para seleccionar el Vértice Central del árbol

País	Indice	Grado	Fortaleza	Prom. Ocupación
USA 2	S&P500	4	1.92	4.60
Brasil	BOVESPA	2	1.44	3.50
UK	FTSE 250	4	3.00	2.85
Francia	CAC 40	12	7.70	2.40
Portugal	BVLX	3	2.86	2.94
Polonia	WIG	3	2.50	2.52
Hungría	BUX	2	1.99	3.24
Sudáfrica	JALSH	1	0.76	3.59
Hong Kong	HSI	6	5.31	2.81
Corea del sur	KRX100	2	1.53	3.54
Australia	AS51	5	4.89	3.29

Esta tabla muestra los índices que obtuvieron los valores óptimos por región. Los cinco mejores clasificados son el CAC40, HSI de Hong Kong, el AS51 de Australia, El FTSE250 del Reino Unido y el S&P500 de USA. El CAC40 es el vértice con mayor grado y fortaleza y menor promedio de ocupación, lo cual lo convierte en el vértice central del árbol.

México aparece influenciado mayormente por USA, pero también por Brasil quien obtuvo una buena clasificación dentro de los índices Suramericanos.

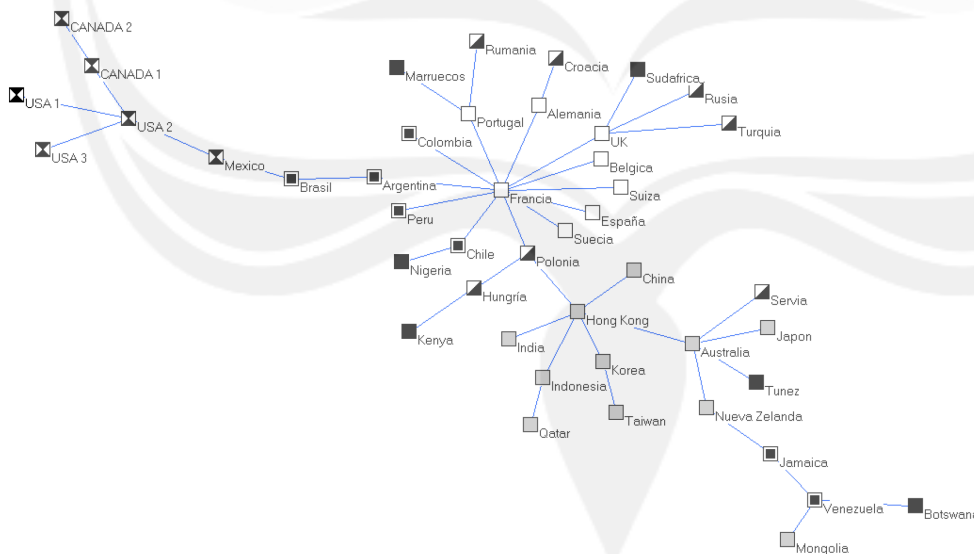


Fig.1. El árbol de expansión mínima muestra a Francia como vértice central y cinco conglomerados geográficos. El conglomerado central está liderado por el CAC40 de Francia.

CONCLUSIONES

El índice CAC40 es el vértice central del árbol, el centro de masa. El árbol muestra cuatro conglomerados, que coinciden con sectores geográficos. Los conglomerados son liderados por el CAC 40 de Francia, el HSI de Hong Kong, el AS51 de Australia y el S&P500 de USA, siendo los índices de mayor influencia entre los estudiados.

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BIOGRAFIA

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DESARROLLO DE UN MODELO PARA LA MEJORA TANTO DE LA OFERTA DE PRODUCTOS COMO DEL SERVICIO AL CLIENTE A TRAVES DE UN CALL CENTER BANCARIO PROPIO COMO UN CANAL NO TRADICIONAL DE SERVICIO Y VENTA DE PRODUCTOS FINANCIEROS

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Cauhtémoc Puente Muñoz, Universidad Panamericana

RESUMEN

Esta investigación desarrolla un modelo para la mejora tanto de la oferta de productos bancarios como del servicio al cliente a través de un call center propio. El trabajo de campo se realizó a través de una investigación no experimental y descriptiva, con información de una de las cuatro instituciones financieras y bancarias más grandes de México a través del estudio de la operación del call center, del Interactive Voice Response y el desempeño de los agentes telefónicos. Los resultados muestran que el valor estratégico debe centrarse en las variables de apoyo al servicio, la lealtad y la recomendación; asimismo el monitoreo y la colocación de productos resultan estratégicos para el desempeño óptimo de los agentes y con ello poder convertirse en un centro de utilidades, respecto a otros canales tradicionales y no tradicionales.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Contact center, Servicio, modelo estructural, ventas.

ABSTRACT

The subject of the present research is to develop a model to enhance the banking product portfolio offer and the customer service rendered through an in-house or building in house call center. The fieldwork was undertaken using a non-experimental and descriptive research, by analyzing data information from one the largest financial institutions in Mexico to evaluate not only the call center's core and the interactive voice response's operations but the telephone agent's performance. The result of the final research indicate that the strategic value should be focused not only in basic service components, loyalty and recommendation, also on quality service monitoring and product allocation to obtain better agent's performance which will facilitate the movement or transformation from a cost center to a profit center and differentiate it from other non-traditional channels (i.e. ATM's, internet banking, mobile telephone and mobile agents force).

INTRODUCCION

La Banca en México es un sector dinámico que se encuentra en constante evolución ya sea por los cambios en el entorno o por la entrada de nuevos competidores tradicionales y no tradicionales. Su evolución hay estado marcada por el cambio tecnológico y hacia una mayor globalización de las operaciones financieras. En forma tradicional las sucursales han sido el principal punto de contacto con los clientes, sin embargo, actualmente las instituciones financieras encuentran en los canales alternos

(internet, cajeros automáticos, SMS o mensaje corto, personal como fuerza móvil y call centers) un medio estratégico, eficiente y oportuno para establecer y fortalecer la relación con los actuales y potenciales clientes. Este trabajo de investigación empírica se enfoca al desarrollo de un modelo para la mejora de la oferta de productos del servicio de un call center de una de las cuatro mayores instituciones bancarias en México. La importancia de un call center como canal alternativo representa un área de oportunidad dado el alto potencial de uso por parte de los clientes y la posibilidad de las empresas financieras de convertirlo en un centro de utilidades al sustituir el servicio ofrecido en las sucursales, lograr esto requiere el análisis profundo de tres elementos: los agentes, el servicio de tecnología a través del Interactive Voice Response (IVR) y el servicio ofrecido a través del call center.

REVISION DE LA LITERATURA

La banca mexicana ha pasado por diversas etapas, es en la actualidad cuando más penetración de mercado existe y más competencia por atraer y mantener a los clientes. En México existen 8717 sucursales bancarias y la industria emplea a 139,021 empleados en bancos y tienen 50.15 millones de cuentas de captación (Comisión Nacional Bancaria y de Valores, 2007). Por entidad federativa, con un mil 462 sucursales en operación, el Distrito Federal ocupa la primera posición, seguida del Estado de México con 781, Jalisco con 730 y Nuevo León con 615. En conjunto estas cuatro entidades concentran el 42.7% del total de las sucursales. Por su parte, Tlaxcala y Campeche son las entidades con menor número de sucursales en la actualidad con 49 y 55, respectivamente. Cabe indicar que del total de las sucursales en operación, BBVA Bancomer posee el 20.8% con un total de un mil 754, le sigue Banamex con el 17.9%, HSBC con 16.0%, Azteca con 12.4% y Banorte con el 11.8% cada uno. Incluyendo a Santander, estas seis instituciones concentran 7 mil 584 sucursales, lo que significa el 90.2% de la red nacional.

Sin embargo, Aránguiz y Hernández (2007) muestran a través de un estudio realizado sobre la banca en México que los clientes de la industria están lejos de sentirse satisfechos. Por ejemplo, el 51% estima que la información que brindan las instituciones financieras es poco o nada transparente, uno de cada tres desconoce el Costo Anual Total (CAT) de su tarjeta de crédito y en relación a la atención de los call centers la media de la atención recibida es de 3.31 indicando que el servicio prestado es calificado como regular y el valor agregado de los servicios recibidos ha sido calificado como “a medias” (2.69).

Diseño De La Investigacion

El presente trabajo de investigación se llevó a cabo con información de una de las cuatro instituciones financieras y bancarias más grandes de México que cuenta con casi 1,400 sucursales, más de 5,500 cajeros automáticos y aproximadamente 8 millones de clientes. El Grupo Financiero en México es una subsidiaria directamente controlada desde el extranjero, siendo además uno de los principales grupos financieros a nivel mundial con más de 125 millones de clientes y alrededor de 10,000 oficinas en 83 países y territorios.

METODOLOGÍA

La presente es una investigación no experimental en la cual no se construye ninguna situación, sino que se observan situaciones ya existentes, no provocadas intencionalmente en la investigación por quien la realiza. Asimismo, es un estudio transaccional porque se recolectaron los datos en un solo momento. Su propósito es describir los constructos y variables relacionados con aspectos clave de un Call Center bancario y su incidencia e interrelación en un momento determinado en el tiempo. Además, es un estudio descriptivo que tiene como objetivo indagar la incidencia de las modalidades o niveles las variables

estudiadas del Call Center del “banco”. Esta investigación se basa en tres herramientas para la obtención de los datos de análisis.

Muestreos

Respecto a la evaluación de los servicios del call center de “El banco”, se seleccionaron aleatoriamente 250 encuestas de cada uno de los dos meses y fueron entregadas al investigador. Finalmente se obtuvieron los datos de desempeño de 48 agentes en agosto. Debe considerarse que varios de estos agentes son datos repetidos entre un mes y otro. Es por esto que solamente se tomaron los datos del mes de agosto. Para la evaluación de los servicios relacionados al call center se cuenta con 500 encuestas.

RESULTADOS

Análisis Descriptivo De Los Servicios Del Call Center

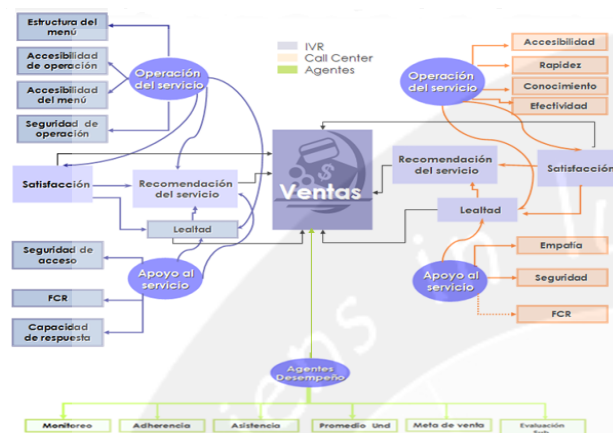
Esta primera parte de la investigación se llevó a cabo con información del servicio del Call Center, de acuerdo a los resultados del análisis descriptivo se puede observar que la evaluación más baja (7.2) se da con la rapidez, es decir, existe un área de oportunidad en el tiempo de atención del ejecutivo; siendo otras de las variables mal evaluadas la recomendación (7.6) con la mayor variación con respecto al promedio (3.0) y varianza (9.2), la accesibilidad y la seguridad. Por otro lado, la empatía muestra el mejor promedio de evaluación (9.1), además de la menor desviación (1.7) así como la varianza (2.8), lo cual indica que los agentes son amables y amigables con los clientes. Asimismo, las variables de operación del servicio mejor evaluadas fueron el conocimiento y la efectividad, ambas con valores en desviaciones y varianzas mejores que el resto de las variables operativas como la accesibilidad y la rapidez. Por otro lado, las variables de apoyo al servicio muestran diferencias en la parte de la desviación y varianza, ya que la empatía presenta una desviación baja (1.7) y la seguridad muestra uno de los valores más lejanos al promedio (2.6).

Modelo Estructural

Se han utilizado ecuaciones estructurales para poner a prueba el modelo. Los resultados para el modelo muestran un ajuste bueno ($\chi^2 = 1.38$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.2$, $RMSEA = .03$ y $IFI = .99$). Todos los coeficientes son significativos. Los coeficientes individuales para el modelo de call center muestran un efecto significativo y positivo de la “operación del servicio” en satisfacción general, recomendación del servicio, y lealtad (.73, .14, .23, $p < .05$, respectivamente). “Apoyo al servicio” también tiene un efecto positivo y significativo en la lealtad y recomendación del servicio (.40 y .17, $p < .05$, respectivamente). La satisfacción general afecta la lealtad y la recomendación del servicio de manera positiva y significativa (.26 y .09, $p < .05$, respectivamente). Por último, la lealtad también tiene un efecto positivo y significativo en la recomendación del servicio (.58, $p < .05$; figura 15 para todos los coeficientes).

Modelo final para la mejora de la oferta de productos bancarios como del servicio al cliente a través de un call center propio A continuación se presenta el modelo completo después de haber analizado estadísticamente las relaciones de las variables. El modelo de call center se mantiene intacto. Sin embargo, en el modelo de IVR presenta dos modificaciones ya que se eliminaron las relaciones de operación y apoyo al servicio hacia la recomendación porque resultaron no significativas.

Figura 1: Modelo final propuesto para mejora de la oferta de productos bancarios como del servicio al cliente a través de un call center propio



Fuente: Elaboración propia

DISCUSIÓN DE LOS RESULTADOS

La cadena de valor de un call center bancario está compuesta de procesos tecnológicos, infraestructura, capital humano, servicios internos y operaciones. Esta sección discute los resultados encontrados de la medición de algunos de estos procesos con la finalidad de identificar su valor estratégico y su aportación a la estrategia enfocada en costos. La evaluación del servicio a través de canales no tradicionales -call center- implica la correcta identificación de las variables de apoyo y operación del servicio que permitan lograr la recomendación, fortalecimiento de la relación con clientes existentes, así como la penetración de nuevos clientes. De acuerdo a los resultados relacionados con la operación del servicio, dos variables requieren mayor atención que son: la rapidez y la accesibilidad lo cual implica que los usuarios del call center encontraron que el tiempo y la facilidad para atender su llamada es largo. De acuerdo con Friedman (2007), los servicios de call center siempre son aptos para mejorar en cuanto a la rapidez, lo cual involucra presiones relacionadas con la responsabilidad a incrementar los niveles de calidad (Kaplinsky y Morris, 2000). Con respecto a la vulnerabilidad de la accesibilidad, la institución financiera corre el riesgo de que los clientes regresen al canal tradicional de atención (ventanilla) lo que implicaría un incremento de costos por transacción (Rajagopal y Rajagopal, 2007).

Adicionalmente que los empleados de ventanilla, no promoverán los canales alternos de contacto debido a la desconfianza generada (Harket, 1998). Las dos variables evaluadas de forma positiva y que constituyen los pilares en la operación del servicio del banco bajo análisis, debido a que son las que mayor peso tienen en el modelo estructural son: conocimiento y efectividad. La efectividad apalanca el modelo del call center de la institución financiera contribuyendo a evitar el re-trabajo y se encuentra fuertemente relacionada con la variable de apoyo denominada solución a la primera llamada (FCR). La segunda variable de apalancamiento de la operación del servicio es el conocimiento que opera mediante la toma de decisiones de los agentes para resolver problemas o inquietudes de los clientes (Jack et al., 2006).

CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES

Esta investigación ha propuesto y validado un modelo para la mejora tanto de la oferta como del servicio al cliente a través de un call center bancario propio como un canal no tradicional de servicio y venta. La

eficiente operación y gestión de tres dimensiones definen la generación de valor para incrementar el margen de ventas a través de un call center bancario: Interactive Voice Response (IVR), call center (telefónico) y agentes (telefónicos). Dentro de un call center e IVR bancarios existen tanto variables de operación como de apoyo al servicio. Para el call center se han identificado accesibilidad, rapidez, conocimiento y efectividad como parte de las variables de operación, las últimas dos son las que muestran mayor incidencia. Por otro lado, empatía, seguridad y solución a la primera llamada son las principales variables de apoyo, siendo la empatía la de mayor importancia. Tanto en el call center como en el Interactive Voice Response bancarios la satisfacción incide sobre la lealtad y la recomendación del servicio. Sin embargo, clientes satisfechos no necesariamente contribuyen a incrementar la rentabilidad de este canal alternativo. Se requiere principalmente de la lealtad como un elemento estratégico que conduzca tanto a la repetición de la experiencia como a la recomendación del servicio para la generación de utilidades e incremento de ingresos en el canal. Una fortaleza del call center propio versus el call center tercerizado es la posibilidad de impactar en mayor medida en la lealtad de los clientes a través de la eficiencia del tiempo de respuesta y el incremento de mejoras en los servicios de apoyo.

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RECONOCIMIENTO

Los autores agradecen los comentarios de los árbitros y editores de IBFR. Los cuales contribuyeron a mejorar la calidad de la investigación.

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IMPACTO PUBLICITARIO DEL MARKETING MÓVIL EN UN ENTORNO TRADICIONAL: CASO CIBERNAUTAS DE LA REGIÓN COSTA SUR DE JALISCO, MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

El uso de las TIC's en el ámbito empresarial hoy en día ha evolucionado la forma de realizar mercadotecnia en las empresas, así como en sus formatos. El empleo de estas tecnologías y el Internet han creado innovadoras plataformas de trabajo. El desarrollo de la telefonía móvil ha marcado una nueva era también en el diseño de estrategias publicitarias, pero sobre todo el uso de la telefonía móvil a escalas inimaginables ha permitido el desarrollo de lo que se conoce en la actualidad como marketing móvil; una forma del denominado marketing de relaciones.

En diversos estudios a nivel nacional e internacional se ha demostrado que los medios digitales no son recomendados para todos los productos y servicios, y por ende para todos los mercados. La digitalización de las estrategias sobre todo en publicidad se recomienda sea de forma gradual, con el fin de que el consumidor aprenda y acceda a los nuevos formatos. Algunos factores como; las diferencias culturales, hábitos de consumo, el poder adquisitivo, etc. Pueden crear las actitudes de aceptación o rechazo hacia este medio publicitario. La recomendación de los expertos es integrar herramientas on y off line a través de un plan de marketing digital el "Blended Marketing".

PALABRAS CLAVE: Marketing Digital, Marketing Móvil, Blended Marketing.

ADVERTISING IMPACT OF THE MOBILE MARKETING IN A TRADITIONAL ENVIRONMENT: CASE WEBSURFERS OF THE REGION SOUTH COAST, JALISCO, MEXICO.

ABSTRACT

The use of the IT in the business environment nowadays has evolved the form to carry out marketing in the businesses, as well as in its formats. The employment of these technologies and the Internet have created work platforms innovators. The development of the mobile phone system has marked a new one was also in the design of advertising strategies, but above all the use of the mobile phone system to unimaginable scales has permitted the development of what is known currently as mobile marketing; a form of the called marketing of relations.

In diverse studies to national and international level has been shown that the digital media are not recommended for all the products and services, and therefore for all the markets. The digitization of the strategies above all in publicity is recommended of gradual form, in order to that the consumer learn and they agree to the new formats. Some factors as; the cultural differences, habits of consumption, the purchasing power, etc. They can create the attitudes of acceptance or refusal toward this advertising

middle. The recommendation of the experts is to integrate tools on and off line through a plan of digital marketing the "Blended Marketing".

JEL: M31, M37

KEYWORDS: DIGITAL MARKETING, MOBILE MARKETING, BLENDED MARKETING.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Con los cambios vertiginosos en los últimos años en el uso de tecnologías de la información éstas cada vez cobran más relevancia dentro de las empresas con la finalidad de coadyuvar en las estrategias de marketing.

Es un hecho aceptado por todos que la revolución digital y las nuevas tecnologías están transformando nuestras vidas tanto desde el punto de vista personal como profesional. El cambio afecta a los hábitos y necesidades del consumidor y a los planes de negocio de las compañías y, por lo tanto, lo que finalmente evoluciona y se complica es el modelo a partir del que interactúan ambas partes (Deza, 2005).

Es importante por tanto, acceder a los potenciales clientes desde todas las vías de comunicación existentes, incidiendo especialmente en aquellas que aún no han sido explotadas plenamente, con lenguajes incipientes, para convertir la novedad en notoriedad y el asombro en punto de captación. Ideales son, por tanto, las nuevas tecnologías informativas ya que cumplen todos estos requisitos (Caldevilla, 2007).

Si bien es cierto a través de los últimos años se ha visto un cambio significativo en el comportamiento de la sociedad. Sobre todo en aspectos como lo es el consumo en donde hoy en día los consumidores se encuentran cada vez más informados sobre cualquier tipo de producto, esto se ha dado gracias a la magnífica red de la información llama Internet.

Con lo anterior se ve reflejado como el uso de la tecnología ha evolucionado el consumo de bienes y servicios. Tal es el caso de la telefonía móvil en donde se observa como las empresas dedicadas al desarrollo de teléfonos móviles han vuelto a estos más inteligentes dando un salto a lo que hoy conocemos como "Smartphone". Con esto queda claro que tanto evoluciona el medio como la estrategia. Es así como los mercadólogos han comenzado a explotar estos avances pasando del simple mensaje de texto en donde se anunciaba una promoción hasta lo que hoy vemos como los códigos QR, la geolocalización, aplicaciones, entre otras. Por lo cual las campañas se vuelven más interactivas y permiten generar una conexión con el cliente tratando de obtener una respuesta por parte de él.

Lo planteado en párrafos anteriores da como surgimiento a la siguiente pregunta de investigación ¿Cuál es el impacto de la publicidad móvil en un mercado tradicional?

REVISION LITERARIA

Kotler y Armstrong (2001) mencionan que el marketing es la función comercial que identifica las necesidades y los deseos de los clientes, determina qué mercados meta puede atender mejor la organización, y diseña productos, servicios y programas apropiados para atender a esos mercados. Sin embargo, el marketing es mucho más que una función aislada de los negocios: es una filosofía que guía a

toda la organización. La meta del marketing es crear satisfacción de los clientes de forma rentable, forjando relaciones cargadas de valor con clientes importantes.

La mercadotecnia ha ido evolucionando a la par de la economía, la globalización, la cultura, la tecnología entre otros factores macroeconómicos que afectan la forma de hacer negocios. Una de las herramientas que utilizan las organizaciones hoy en día es el uso de la mercadotecnia relacional, directa o interactiva o bien marketing 2.0, según Corbae, Jensen y Schneider (2003) es introducido para denominar una nueva forma de mercadotecnia que persigue construir con los clientes relaciones duraderas basadas en la confianza en dos niveles distintos: (1) en el nivel racional, mediante buenos productos, que posean la calidad y el precio adecuado y (2) en el nivel emocional, mediante una comunicación interactiva de doble vía que permita establecer y fortalecer esta relación de confianza con los clientes.

Autores como Bruner, Harden y Heyman (2001) lo consideran un nuevo enfoque que surge de la evolución natural de las anteriores formas de mercadotecnia. Así, mientras la mercadotecnia tradicional o marketing 1.0 dirigido a las masas emplean los medios de alta difusión como la radio, la prensa y la televisión, la mercadotecnia relacional o interactiva (marketing 2.0) se fundamenta en acciones que se dirigen a cada usuario de manera particular, ofreciéndole información personalizada y de su interés, y que emplea las nuevas tecnologías e Internet para llegar de forma individualizada a un enorme número de clientes. El marketing móvil emplea un medio interactivo que permite desarrollar comunicación directa y personalizada con cada cliente, sin limitaciones geográficas, ni temporales. Además, a través de un mismo canal es posible realizar distintas interacciones con los clientes: publicidad e información, preventa, configuración de pedidos, compras, servicios de posventa, etc. (Landeta, 2008).

(Fonseca, 2011) explica que el auge de los móviles está en todo su esplendor en la mayor parte del mundo y todavía no ha llegado México. Es impresionante que en un país de casi 112 millones de personas existan más de 90 millones de celulares y 30 millones de usuarios para internet, según datos de INEGI, Nielsen y Cofotel respectivamente.

Asimismo Fonseca puntualiza algunos datos en los que expone porque las empresas deben de dar el siguiente paso a la estrategia móvil.

- Las apps son los nuevos Bilboards. Existen más de 4 billones de smartphones vendidos a nivel mundial. Hoy por hoy, una de cada tres personas que tienen uno lo usan antes de levantarse. El 86% de ellos los usan mientras ven la televisión. El promedio de uso diario es 2.7 horas.
- Youtube ha reportado que 200 millones de las visitas diarias que tiene, son desde un dispositivo móvil. Y todavía nadie se queja de la publicidad de Youtube.com
- Un tercio de los usuarios de Facebook acceden desde su dispositivo móvil en comparación con el 50% de los usuarios de Twitter.
- El porcentaje de búsqueda de información, referencias o productos desde un dispositivo móvil es más del 55% y un tercio de los usuarios que fueron expuestos a la publicidad no intrusiva desde su móvil dio un click en el anuncio. Además las búsquedas reportadas en Google por México han crecido 23% de marzo del año pasado a este. Claramente los mexicanos comenzamos a consumir contenidos.

- El crecimiento dentro de los rangos de edad de quienes poseen un teléfono inteligente en México ha crecido como mínimo un 3%.
- El estimado de descargas alcanzado en 2011 es de 17.7 billones, con un crecimiento de más del 117% alcanzado en 2010 a nivel global.
- Los usuarios promedio de iphone tienen 65 aplicaciones mientras que los usuarios de android 35 aplicaciones y los de blackberry 15. Es importante decir que las aplicaciones de android son gratuitas en más del 50% de los casos en tanto el iphone sólo el 25% es gratuito. Blackberry se quedó atrás siendo la tienda con menos aplicaciones gratuitas y mayor sobreprecio, donde el promedio por costo de aplicación es de poco más de \$8 dólares, en comparación los tres de android y iphone.
- Las ganancias mundiales para las tiendas virtuales sobre pasan los 15.1 billones de dólares a nivel mundial. Y aunque pareciera que todo ese dinero se queda en las tiendas no es así; en el caso de Apple y Google, se quedan con un 30% de las ganancias y Blackberry con el 20%, lo que genera una ganancia del 70% para los desarrolladores o las marcas.



Esta imagen muestra la cantidad de usuarios mexicanos que usan los medios digitales.

METODOLOGÍA

Tabla 1. Ficha Técnica

UNIVERSO	Estudiantes de todos los programas educativos ofertados en el Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur
TAMAÑO MUESTRAL	343 alumnos
ERROR MUESTRAL	0.05 (p = q = 50)
NIVEL DE CONFIANZA	95%
DISEÑO MUESTRAL	Aleatorio simple
TRABAJO DE CAMPO	Junio 2011

Esta tabla muestra los datos estadísticos generales que se determinaron para realizar la investigación.

Para efectos de la investigación conclusiva y la realización del estudio se tomó como universo a los 3,198 alumnos del Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur de todos los programas educativos ofertados. La técnica de muestreo empleada fue probabilística Gutiérrez (2005), obteniendo una muestra de 343 estudiantes a encuestar de forma aleatoria, correspondiente al 10.72% del universo. Como instrumento de recolección de datos se utilizó el cuestionario y para su tratamiento y la contrastación de la pregunta de investigación se utilizaron tablas de frecuencias. De igual forma por ser variables cualitativas y ordinales se empleó la prueba estadística U de Man – Whitney en el caso del análisis de impacto de publicidad móvil para el

género (Dos muestras independientes) y la prueba de Kruskal Wallis para el análisis de la procedencia (k muestras independientes) (Casas, 2010).

RESULTADOS

Tabla 2. Comodidad del usuario ante el marketing móvil.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Siempre	9	2.6
	Casi siempre	31	9.1
	Ocasionalmente	62	18.2
	Rara vez	152	44.2
	Nunca	85	24.7
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

En la variable comodidad se observa que el 44.2% de los encuestados expreso que rara vez siente comodidad al recibir algún mensaje promocional. Por lo que el rechazo hacia la publicidad móvil se inclina hacia un factor de desagrado.

Tabla 3. Respuesta a mensajes promocionales.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Ocasionalmente	22	6.5
	Rara vez	94	27.3
	Nunca	223	64.9
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

El 64.9% manifestó nunca responder el mensaje. Asimismo, sin obtener una respuesta por parte del consumidor no se da cumplimiento al último paso dentro del proceso de comunicación que es la retroalimentación.

Tabla 4. Oportunidad para una futura compra.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Casi siempre	9	2.6
	Ocasionalmente	49	14.3
	Rara vez	112	32.5
	Nunca	169	49.4
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

El hecho de recibir un mensaje promocional a través del móvil para considerar una futura compra fue rechazado por parte de los usuarios. Manifestándolo el 49.4%.

Tabla 5. Costo de respuesta a la estrategia móvil.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Ocasionalmente	18	5.2
	Rara vez	27	7.8
	Nunca	294	85.7

	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

Se observa como los usuarios de telefonía móvil son sensibles al hecho que implica un costo por responder a un mensaje publicitario. Es así donde el 85.7% de la muestra nunca responde a éste por el cargo que genera.

Tabla 6. Intromisión a la intimidad.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Siempre	54	15.6
	Casi siempre	45	13.0
	Ocasionalmente	71	20.8
	Rara vez	98	28.6
	Nunca	71	20.8
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

Al momento de medir la intromisión de la privacidad de los usuarios por parte de las empresas ante estrategias publicitarias móviles, estos se mostraron indiferentes ante tales acciones. Dando como resultado un 28.6%.

Tabla 7. Uso legal de los datos.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Siempre	31	9.1
	Casi siempre	27	7.8
	Ocasionalmente	40	11.7
	Rara vez	67	19.5
	Nunca	174	50.6
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

Una las situaciones que ha imperado en estos tiempos es el uso legal de la información de los datos. Para lo cual la muestra testada manifestó que las empresas hacen una práctica negativa sobre los datos. Así lo determinó el 50.6%.

Tabla 8. Irritabilidad de los usuarios.

		Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Válidos	Siempre	94	27.3
	Casi siempre	36	10.4
	Ocasionalmente	102	29.9
	Rara vez	71	20.8
	Nunca	36	10.4
	Total	339	98.7
Perdidos	Sistema	4	1.3
Total		343	100.0

El 29.9% de los encuestados consideran el uso de mensajes publicitarios en medios móviles ocasionalmente molestas.

Tabla 9. Impacto de la mercadotecnia móvil sobre la variable de agrupación sexo.

	¿Consid eras legal el uso que hacen de tus datos las empres as, para hacerte llegar publicid ad?	¿Consider as los mensajes promocio nales en tu móvil?	¿Cuentas con teléfono móvil?	¿Estás dispuesto a pagar por recibir mensajes promocio nales en tu móvil?	¿Qué tipo de operador de telefonía móvil utilizas?	¿Qué tipo de operador de telefonía móvil utilizas?	¿Responde siempre a las estrategia s promocio nales recibidas en tu móvil?	¿Te genera molestia o irritabilidad la recepción de mensajes publicitari os en tu móvil?	Cuando recibes mensaje s te sientes cómodo	En tu opinión, ¿consider as que los mensajes que hacen llegar las empresas a través de tu móvil es una intromisión a tu intimidad ?
U de Mann-Whitney	543.000	623.500	672.000	645.000	640.000	662.000	663.000	582.500	650.000	635.000
W de Wilcoxon	949.000	1029.500	1078.000	1821.000	1046.000	1838.000	1839.000	1758.500	1056.000	1811.000
Z	-1.503	-.571	-.756	-.495	-.802	-.388	-.116	-.994	-.251	-.409
Sig. asintót. (bilateral)	.133	.568	.450	.620	.422	.698	.907	.320	.802	.683

Al momento de realizar la prueba estadística se determinó evaluar la variable sexo con la finalidad conocer el impacto publicitario de la mercadotecnia móvil. Para lo cual se comprobó que para ambos sexos no existe una diferencia sobre el impacto de estas estrategias comerciales aplicadas a la telefonía celular.

Tabla 10. El marketing móvil en contraste con la variable procedencia.

	¿Consi deras legal el uso que hacen de tus datos las empres as, para hacerte llegar publici dad?	¿Con sider as los mens ajes prom ocion ales en tu móvil ?	¿Cue ntas con teléfo no móvil ?	¿Estás dispuesto a pagar por recibir mensajes promocio nales en tu móvil?	¿Qué tipo de operador de telefonía móvil utilizas?	¿Qué tipo de operador de telefonía móvil utilizas?	¿Responde siempre a las estrategias promociona les recibidas en tu móvil?	¿Te genera molestia o irritabilidad la recepción de mensajes publicitario s en tu móvil?	Cuando recibes mensajes te sientes cómodo	En tu opinión, ¿consideras que los mensajes que hacen llegar las empresas a través de tu móvil es una intromisión a tu intimidad?
Chi-cuadrado	.845	1.426	.100	.272	14.498	.206	.541	2.366	1.777	2.129
gl	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Sig. asintót.	.655	.490	.951	.873	.001	.902	.763	.306	.411	.345

Se observa que para todas las variables no hay diferencia en el comportamiento que se presenta hacia la publicidad móvil, a excepción de la variable correspondiente al tipo de contrato que, ya que el resultado fue de .001, es decir, el tipo de contrato que preferentemente tienen los usuarios de un mercado tradicional es tarjeta de prepago la cual puede limitar las estrategias del marketing móvil.

CONCLUSIONES

Con esta investigación se puede observar como el impacto de estrategias de marketing móvil hacia los consumidores generan un cierto desagrado en términos de costos, esto debido a que la mayoría de los

mensajes promocionales que se hacen llegar al móvil pretenden obtener una respuesta por parte del usuario llegando a rechazar o a tomar dicha acción. De igual manera se observó cómo los encuestados manifestaron que el uso de su información para hacerles llegar mensajes promocionales se toma de manera ilegal con la finalidad de lucrar con ésta. Asimismo, queda claro que la privacidad o seguridad de los datos es aún un factor que genera un alto impacto para aceptar este tipo de estrategias.

Las empresas deberán de evaluar este tipo de estrategias con la finalidad de hacerlas más rentables y generar un retorno de la inversión. Con ello se requiere sensibilizar al usuario hacia una aceptación al marketing móvil. Para esto organizaciones comienzan a diseñar campañas más interactivas que no se limiten solo al uso de los mensajes, sino que apuestan por aquellas en donde se ve reflejada la creatividad de los mercadólogos.

La creación de contenidos en internet ha disparado en gran medida la interacción con los cibernautas. Asimismo, estos contenidos se requieren ser trasladados a lo que hoy es un medio portable como el celular.

Ahora el reto de las firmas es persuadir al usuario para generar una comunicación a través del uso de medios móviles, sin que éste pueda juzgarla como intrusiva. Para esto las marcas deberán tener bien claro su poder de jurisdicción sin que el usuario se vea amedrentado. Este medio se ha convertido en una puerta hacia la intimidad del consumidor, que en lo sucesivo los auspiciadores deberán de considerar antes violentar su privacidad con algún tipo de estrategia comercial. Sobre todo en mercados que presentan una tendencia de consumo tradicional y no evolucionado, como lo es el caso de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México y su Región. El blended marketing es una opción de ir incorporando de manera gradual los nuevos formatos, en combinación con los formatos clásicos a los cuales están habituados los usuarios de ésta Región.

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RECONOCIMIENTOS

Nuestro agradecimiento a las autoridades del Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur por las facilidades y apoyo brindado para la realización del trabajo.

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LA EMPRESA MEXICANA EN EL EXTERIOR. UN PRIMER ACERCAMIENTO

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RESUMEN

Este estudio es un primer acercamiento a la comprensión de la expansión de las empresas mexicanas al exterior, a partir de la vinculación de la emisión de inversión extranjera directa al exterior con el desarrollo económico del país medido por el producto interno bruto. Obteniendo de manera no concluyente una relación positiva entre el desarrollo económico nacional y la multinacionalización de la empresa mexicana. Sin embargo, el nivel de desarrollo no ha sido el adecuado para fomentar un nivel apropiado de multinacionalización de la empresa mexicana (Durán & Úbeda, 2009). A pesar de los importantes avances que se han logrado, existen una gran cantidad de carencias, empezando por el hecho de que en México no existe información disponible sobre la emisión de inversión extranjera directa a nivel estatal, ni a nivel nacional. Esto es un claro indicio de que se deben incrementar los esfuerzos para generar cambios estructurales, de esta manera incrementar el desarrollo económico del país y con ello la emisión de empresas mexicanas al exterior.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Multinacionalización, inversión extranjera directa, desarrollo económico, producto interno bruto.

THE MEXICAN ENTERPRISE ABROAD. A FIRST APPROACH

ABSTRACT

This is a first approach to understand the foreign expansion of Mexican ventures, bonding the foreign direct investment outward with the country economic development measured by gross domestic product. The results show in a non-conclusive way the positive relation between the national economic development and the multinationalization of Mexican ventures. Nevertheless, the development degree has not been appropriate to encourage the right degree of Mexican ventures multinationalization. (Durán & Úbeda, 2009). Despite the strides that have been made, still there is a huge amount of lacks, beginning because the fact that in Mexico does not exist available information about the foreign direct investment outward at states level, not even at national level. This is a clear indication that it should be increased the efforts to generate structural changes, in this way increase the country economic development and thus foreign expansion of Mexican ventures.

JEL: F21, F23

KEYWORDS: Multinationalization, foreign direct investment, economic development, gross domestic product.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La expansión de las empresas es una situación muy importante desde el punto de vista del mejoramiento estructural del país en cuestión y la relación que tiene con este fenómeno. Este crecimiento está tomando cada vez más importancia, a tal grado que se han generado una variedad de desarrollos teóricos con la finalidad de dar explicación a estos fenómenos. En este sentido, el presente documento es un primer acercamiento a la expansión de la empresa mexicana hacia el exterior vinculando su desarrollo económico con la emisión de inversión extranjera directa a mercados exteriores. En este documento también ha permitido realizar una revisión de distintos marcos explicativos de la Empresa Multinacional.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El primer marco de referencia para poder dar explicación a la empresa multinacional es el Paradigma Ecléctico de Dunning, el cual contempla tres tipos de ventajas, a saber, propiedad, localización e internalización (OLI, por sus siglas en inglés) que nos pueden ayudar a la comprensión de la empresa multinacional mediante la generación de IED (Dunning, 1981), (Dunning, 1988). No obstante, por sí solo no puede explicar la internacionalización de las empresas de países emergentes, ya que estas carecen en gran medida de las ventajas OLI, de tal manera que es posible complementarlo desde un punto de vista de un nivel creciente de integración, basado en principios de redes de producción internacional (asociación estratégica) (Bonaglia, Goldstein, & Mathews, 2007). Además, la adecuada combinación de las ventajas de propiedad e internalización (empresa) y las de localización (país) permitirá realizar la mejor inversión directa. En este entendido dinámico, la Senda de Desarrollo de la Inversión (IDP, por sus siglas en inglés) es un buen aliado (Durán J. J., 2006), y de acuerdo a Durán (2002), dada la naturaleza de los procesos de internacionalización, es recomendable usar planteamientos eclécticos para su análisis.

Otra marco explicativo, es el que trata a la internacionalización como un proceso incremental y lo aborda con el enfoque escandinavo, también conocido como Modelo de Uppsala, el cual ve a la internacionalización como un proceso gradual y por etapas, cada una de las cuales favorece a la empresa en la obtención de nuevos conocimientos y experiencias a nivel internacional, esto facilita una vinculación más fuerte con los mercados externos (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977).

Algunos otros desarrollos teóricos son: el Modelo de Dimensiones de Internacionalización de Welch y Loustarinen's (1988), La Escala de Grado de Internacionalización de Daniel Sullivan (1994), el Enfoque Estratégico de Mendoza & Vives (2008), quienes también mencionan el Enfoque Americano, la Teoría Organizacional del Conocimiento (Luo, 1999), (Tsang, 1999), (Erramilli, 1991), (Luo & Peng, 1999), la Teoría de la Nueva Empresa Internacional (Baum, Schwens, & Kabst, 2010).

METODOLOGÍA

En este trabajo se desarrolla una caracterización y descripción de la manera más clara y precisa posible de la evolución que ha tenido la expansión de la IED de México, es decir, la generación de Multinacionales al exterior de este país. Lo anterior relacionado con su desarrollo económico. No obstante, es necesario hacer algunas especificaciones antes de continuar. En México, los organismos que tienen disponible información sobre la inversión extranjera directa a nivel nacional, estatal, sectorial son el INEGI (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía), SE (Secretaría de Economía), BIE (Banco de Información Estadística), Banxico (Banco de México) principalmente. Sin embargo, únicamente se registra (o al

menos es la única disponible) la IED que ingresa a México, y como hemos especificado, para este apartado, es fundamental la emisión de IED de México al exterior del país.

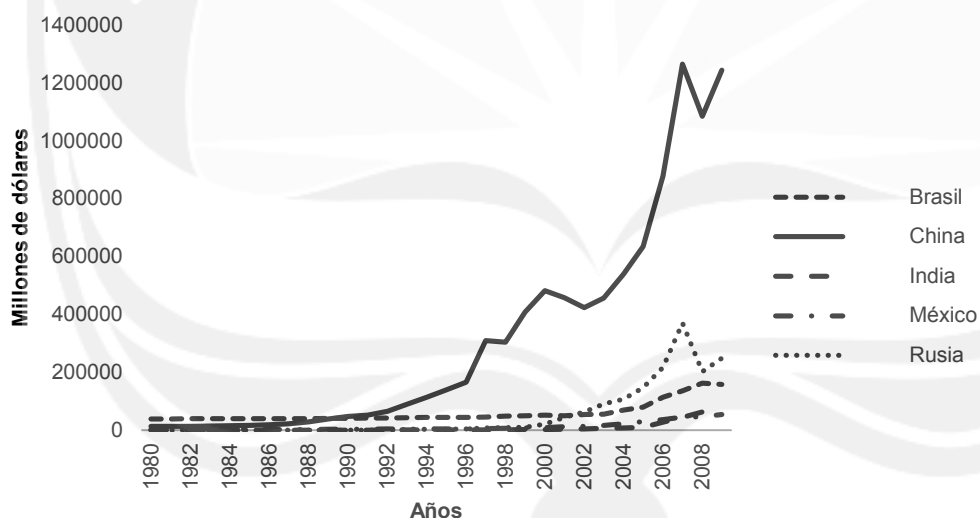
No obstante, existen organismos internacionales que sí tienen los registros de la salida de inversiones, en este caso particular, de México. Tales como BM (Banco Mundial) y el que utilizamos en esta investigación, UNCTAD.

RESULTADOS

Es bien sabido que los países desarrollados presentan el mayor dinamismo en lo que se refiere a IED y son los que mayor cantidad de EMNs tienen. Sin embargo, la situación de economías en desarrollo en temas de empresas multinacionales está creciendo cada vez más (Vives & Mendoza, 2008). Un claro ejemplo es el de China que debido a la gran participación mundial de empresas asiáticas. Este país es el que mayores cantidades de IED emite en el grupo de los BRIC (Brasil, Rusia, India, China)

Agregando al grupo de los BRIC la presencia de México, en la figura 1 se observa que está casi a la par de India en lo que se refiere a salida de IED. No obstante, India demuestra tener una tendencia al crecimiento mayor que México. Y en el caso de los países emergentes del continente americano Brasil es el que emite mayor cantidad de IED. México le sigue en orden de importancia.

Figura 1: Salida de IED (stock) BRIC+Mex.



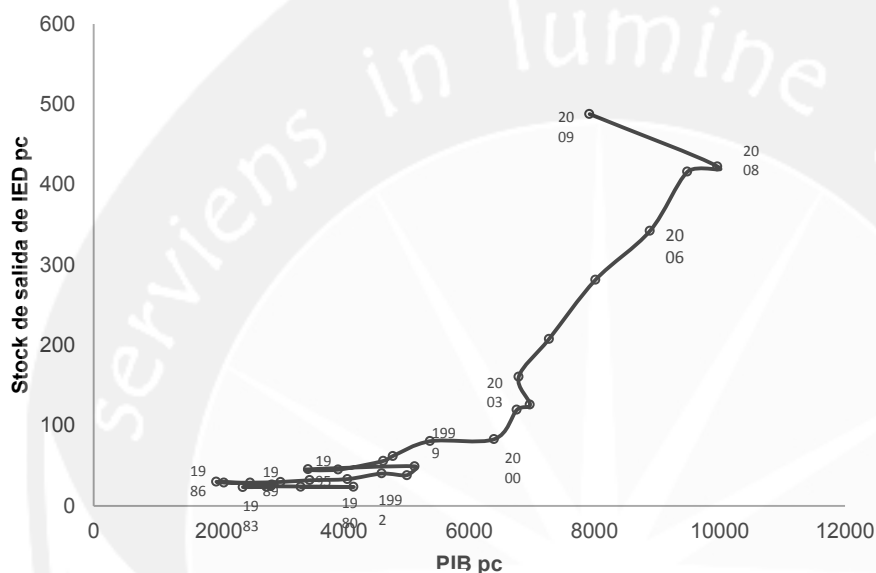
Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos de UNCTAD.

Es importante resaltar que las EMN-ME (Empresa Multinacional de Mercados Emergentes) no solo están buscando economías desarrolladas para establecer sus operaciones (por sus ventajas de localización), sino también están invirtiendo en países en vías de desarrollo (Bonaglia, Goldstein, & Mathews, 2007). Ahora bien, relacionando el stock de salida de IED, como medida de la multinacionalización de la empresa mexicana, y el PIB pc, como medida del desarrollo económico de un país (Durán J. J., 2006), (Dunning, 1981), (Molina & Alcaraz, 2010), se ha obtenido lo siguiente.

En la figura 2, aunque no es concluyente, se observa la relación que existe entre la multinacionalización de la empresa mexicana a través de la emisión de la IED y el respectivo desarrollo económico nacional.

En la década de los noventa se ve una situación muy inconstante y de estancamiento en términos de emisión de IED, lo cual es congruente con respecto a las tendencias de crecimiento de México en términos de apertura comercial, IED, reformas, entre otras. Por otra parte, esta situación errática en la salida de IED sugiere que el nivel de desarrollo no ha sido el adecuado para fomentar un nivel apropiado en la multinacionalización de la empresa mexicana (Durán & Úbeda, 2009).

Figura 3: Emisión de IED Mexicana y Desarrollo Económico.



Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos de UNCTAD.

CONCLUSIONES

Desde la perspectiva mexicana y como lo hemos observado, aun falta un tramo muy grande en términos de cambios estructurales que atienden a ordenes políticos. En este sentido, Narula & Dunning (2000) expresan que la política industrial dirigida a industrias seleccionadas para crecimiento por medio de inversión intensiva en activos creados, como educación y capacidad tecnológica, puede acelerar el movimiento de los países a través del IDP, es decir, motivar el desarrollo estructural y como consecuencia de ello el económico. Relacionado con lo anterior, nos damos cuenta que las características del país local tienen un papel muy importante en la emisión de capitales, ya que en gran medida determinan la posición competitiva de la empresa nacional o multinacional en mercados internacionales (Georgiou, Anastassopoulos, & Filippaios, 2009). En este sentido, es fundamental la generación de políticas y la promoción de estrategias para que las empresas locales superen las barreras de la internacionalización (Hessels & Parker, 2009). No obstante lo anterior, serán necesarias investigaciones más rigurosas con la finalidad de determinar si los resultados no concluyentes de este trabajo son coincidentes con los nuevos desarrollos.

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PROPUESTA DE REFORMA FISCAL INTEGRAL EN MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

Para generar el bienestar social que México necesita se debe de recaudar por arriba del 15% del Producto Interno Bruto. Las reformas fiscales que se han implementado en los últimos 40 años no han logrado superar el 10% de recaudación. Aproximadamente el 60% de la población económicamente activa está en la informalidad de acuerdo a los resultados del censo del Inegi en el año 2010. En la informalidad es donde en vez de pagarse impuestos se pagan “cuotas”; además de un sistema fiscal complejo para calcular y cumplir con los impuestos. Los estados y municipios han optado por endeudarse en vez de asumir los costos políticos de eficientar el nivel de recaudación. Como resultado de la última reforma aprobada en el año del 2010 para efectos del año 2011 tuvieron como resultado disminuir la competitividad del país con el enfoque de una mayor recaudación tributaria otra vez entre los contribuyentes cautivos en la economía formal y que conforman el 40% de la Población Económicamente Activa (PEA). Las nulas propuestas de una reforma integral fiscal origina la informalidad en que se encuentra el otro 60% de la PEA, según análisis de la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE).

INTRODUCCION

El gasto corriente en el sector público en México ha opacado los esfuerzos por aumentar la recaudación tributaria no petrolera de acuerdo con estadísticas de la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público (SHCP). Este gasto cerro en 2010 en 1.95 billones de pesos, es decir, 468 mil 863 millones más que lo registrado en 2007. Y por otro lado la recaudación tributaria, que incluye ingresos derivados de impuestos además de derechos no petroleros y cualquier otro cobro que realiza el gobierno, llego a 1.98 billones de pesos en 2010, 382 mil 317 millones de pesos más también que en el año de 2007. Este fenómeno se produjo no obstante que durante el sexenio se han implementado dos reformas fiscales y en marzo del año pasado inicio el Programa Nacional de Reducción del Gasto Publico. El gasto corriente establece el pago de pensiones, transferencias a programas sociales, materiales y suministros del gobierno y el pago de la nómina a todos los funcionarios de la administración pública. El incremento en el gasto corriente se ha dado principalmente en los subsidios a programas sociales y en las pensiones. Una práctica común es que las soluciones a los grandes problemas del país se hayan dado a partir de conocimientos generados en países desarrollados que cuando llegan y se publican en México ya son obsoletos (Garcíacastillo y Cruz, 2010).

PROPUESTAS

La Eliminación Del Impuesto Empresarial A Tasa Única (IETU)

Se estimó recaudar con este impuesto 300 mil millones de pesos y solo se recaudó la sexta parte es decir aproximadamente 50 mil millones de acuerdo a información del SAT. También se ha generado una complejidad administrativa porque se tiene que determinar el ISR según lo devengado y otro el impuesto,

el IETU, con base en el flujo de efectivo. Por otra parte, Estados Unidos que es el principal socio comercial de México de donde proviene el 90% de la inversión extranjera reconoce este impuesto como acreditable únicamente sobre bases temporales debido a que la Corte estableció que es ISR.

Un Esquema Fiscal Competitivo Y Acorde Al Contexto Internacional

La base de recaudación es en impuestos indirectos en otros países; es decir gravan el gasto, el consumo. Los impuestos directos los que gravan el ingreso son relativamente bajos y son muy pocos o no tienen impuestos que gravan el patrimonio. En México se grava al revés. El grueso de la recaudación proviene de los ingresos, del ISR. Así las cosas y considerando que estamos implantados en la globalización, podremos entonces entender que no solamente los empresarios están compitiendo con el resto del mundo en el tema económico, sino que también, nuestro país está compitiendo, entre otras muchas cosas, con su esquema fiscal. Nuestra propuesta es que se generalice la tasa del IVA al 16% para todas las operaciones gravadas; mantener la tasa del 11% para la región fronteriza, y que la tasa del 0% del IVA prevalezca solo para las exportaciones. De igual manera, eliminar las exenciones que no tengan una justificación social o económica y brindar trato equitativo entre los sectores productivos, así como simplificar la estructura de la Ley del IVA para facilitar la aplicación y cumplimiento de sus disposiciones; precisar conceptos y evitar la complejidad del sistema de acreditamiento.

Un Impuesto Mínimo Complementario Del ISR Y De Fácil Calculo

Hacienda podrá recaudar parte de la misma base gravable determinada para efectos de ISR, según se trate de una deducción o un ingreso respectivamente aun cuando no se genere la obligación de pago del ISR por actividad empresarial. A la nueva base gravable así determinada, se le aplicaría una tasa inferior a la tasa general aplicable y el excedente del ISR mínimo estaría sujeto a un régimen de acreditamiento retroactivo o prospectivo similar al aplicado en el Impuesto al Activo (Impac).

Establecer un esquema real de estímulos fiscales

Para detonar la inversión nacional y extranjera, así como el empleo y el ahorro, se tienen que simplificar los requisitos y ser acumulable. México está perdiendo inversionistas porque de Asia y Centroamérica vienen a buscarlos para que inviertan en aquellos lugares, y lo que les ofrecen son estímulos fiscales y cláusulas de cumplimiento sea quien sea.

Simplificación de las disposiciones fiscales: Para la determinación, cumplimiento y pago de los impuestos se debe de simplificar cada proceso al máximo con lo que se lograría aumentar la base contributiva y mejorar la recaudación.

Seguridad jurídica: Es un reclamo de la sociedad que se emitan disposiciones claras y sencillas ajustadas al marco constitucional vigente por lo que para facilitar la justicia fiscal es una condición necesaria y promueve la atracción de inversión nacional y extranjera.

Regresar Al 28% La Tasa Del Impuesto Sobre La Renta (ISR)

La media de los países integrantes de la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE), entre ellos México, es del 26%.

Planeación fiscal de largo plazo

Se debe de buscar la permanencia de las disposiciones fiscales para seguridad de los contribuyentes e inversionistas.

Ampliar la base de contribuyentes: Realizar una coordinación más efectiva entre Federación, Estados y Municipios para que se cumpla con el mandato constitucional de que todos los mexicanos con capacidad para hacerlo debemos contribuir para el gasto público.

Cultura fiscal: La actitud es determinante para el desarrollo de los pueblos, por lo que las nuevas generaciones se deben educar desde la infancia para mantener en nuestro país una cultura, un civismo fiscal por lo que es conveniente que en todos los niveles educativos se incluyan temas relacionados con el fomento de una cultura fiscal.

Recaudación efectiva por parte de estados y municipios:

Actualmente los estados recaudan en promedio solo el 10% del total de ingresos que perciben, y lo hacen sin modificar leyes. Tienen facultad para imponer gravámenes pero con fines clientelares, y actualmente en lugar de mejorar la recaudación están optando por el endeudamiento.

Independencia Del Sistema De Administración Tributaria (SAT)

El SAT originalmente estuvo contemplado de manera independiente de la Secretaria de Hacienda, no solo una ventanilla. No debe de depender de los titulares en turno o de decisiones políticas si no que su actuar debe de estar fundamentada en consideraciones estrictamente profesionales.

CONCLUSION

De 2007 a 2010, los ingresos tributarios del gobierno provenientes de fuentes diferentes al petróleo se incrementaron en 23.8%, en tanto que el gasto corriente del sector público lo hizo en 31.5%. Por lo tanto el problema se agrava porque no se han generado cambios suficientes en el sistema fiscal que permitan que la recaudación tributaria no petrolera despunte y permita balancear mejor las cuentas del gobierno. Debido a que México necesita múltiples reformas para hacer más competitiva su economía, los estudiosos de la Administración Pública deberán enfocar sus investigaciones en la elaboración de Casos que permitan que el gobierno logre: ser más productivo; se vincule más a mecanismos de mercado; se oriente al servicio; se descentralice; y, rinda cuentas por resultados (Kettl 2000).

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ANALISIS DEL IMPACTO DE CRECIMIENTO EN LAS PYMES QUE SE DESARROLLARON BAJO UN ESQUEMA DE INCUBACION. CASO ENCUBADORA EMPRESER – SONORA

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RESUMEN

Esta investigación tiene el objetivo de realizar un análisis del crecimiento de las pequeñas empresas cuyos planes de negocios fueron creados dentro del esquema de incubación y que hoy en día forman parte del mercado laboral, en los cuales se les brinda capacitación, asesoría técnica y en algunos casos se canaliza a instituciones para obtener un financiamiento. Utilizando un diseño descriptivo mediante la participación de 44 empresas incubadas en el programa de Incubadora EmpreSer en la Ciudad de Hermosillo, Sonora, en el año 2010 y la misma cantidad de empresas no participantes en el programa, cuyos principales indicadores de desempeño en crecimiento (SEBRAE), organización, posicionamiento e innovación en sus actividades.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Pymes, competitividad, Incubadoras de empresas.

JEL: M10

This investigation has the objective to realize an analysis of the growth of the small companies whose plans of businesses were created within the incubation scheme and which nowadays they comprise of the labor market, in which I offer qualification them, technical consultant's office and in some cases narrow channel to institutions to obtain a financing. Using a descriptive design by means of the participation of 44 companies incubated in the program of EmpreSer Incubator in the City of Hermosillo, Sonora, in 2010, and the same quantity of companies that did not participate in the same program, whose main indicators of performance (SEBRAE), in growth, organization, positioning and innovation in its activities.

INTRODUCCION

En la actualidad, los ambientes económicos, políticos, culturales, sociales están experimentando cambios que se producen cada vez con mayor intensidad en comparación con otros períodos históricos. Una de las sectores que no fue la excepción es el empresarial en el cual se implantaron nuevos conceptos como son calidad total, productividad, innovación y la competitividad como forma de supervivencia de las empresas. Esto origina que exista una competencia para mayor y exigente ya que influyen directamente en todos los sectores pero uno de los más susceptibles por su naturaleza es el de las micro y pequeñas empresas en relación otros sectores. Ferrari, Martinelli y Joyal (2000), tienen un papel cada vez más importante para las economías mundiales. Tanto es así que se han creado diversos mecanismos para apoyar tanto las iniciativas del gobierno como por instituciones, la creación y desarrollo de micro y pequeñas empresas. Uno de los mecanismos alternativos de la creación de nuevas empresas es la incubación de empresas, las cuales son plataformas de impulso, para preparar un plan de negocios donde

se te asesora en el proceso de creación, proporcionado consultoría en las diversas áreas que necesita manejar al ser empresario (Sistema Nacional de Incubación de Empresas, [SNIE], 2011). En algunos de ellos te ofrecen espacios físicos, programas de desarrollo de habilidades y herramientas para lograr una exitosa empresa cubriendo áreas de oportunidad desde el periodo Previo, durante y posterior a su estancia dentro de la incubadora (Instituto Tecnológico de Monterrey [ITESM], 2011). En México existen 3 modalidades de Incubadoras de Empresas reconocidos y que apoyan a toda la gama de Pequeñas Empresas en formación que están requiriendo apoyo y son: Tradicionales, de Tecnología Intermedia y de Alta Tecnología (SNIE, 2011). De las cuales 209 incubadoras de negocio operan 67 de manera tradicional, 132 con base tecnológica y 10 de alta tecnología

Las estadísticas recientes mencionan que la apertura de los recientes negocios que sólo entre 20 y 40 por ciento de los proyectos que no se generan en incubación sobre viven, el 85% de las firmas que nacen en dentro de una incubadora se mantienen en el mercado. (Instituto Tecnológico de Sonora [ITSON], 2011). Para lo cual este estudio, se pretende evaluar el desempeño de las empresas evaluadas al término de un año después de haber concluido con su proceso, para lo cual se recurrió a las empresas incubadas por Empre Ser, en el año 2011, donde se realiza una comparación con empresas similares para determinar si han llegado a sus metas en comparación de otras empresas similares no encubadas.

Empre Ser es un organismo que opera con recursos fiscales del Estado y la Federación, con la certificación de la Secretaría de Economía con el modelo de Incubadora tradicional para el desarrollo de planes de negocios en la apertura de empresas, que brinda asesoría gratuita y capacitación para emprendedores que deseen iniciar una empresa con una visión competitiva. (EmpreSer, 2011) Ayuda por medio de asesorías gratuitas a la elaboración de planes de negocios, capacitación y adiestramiento en áreas de mercadotecnia, recursos humanos, procesos administrativos, finanzas, fiscal, legal, simulación de negocios así como el taller de creatividad e innovación, asesorías y vinculación con financiamientos, vinculación con socios accionistas y alianzas empresariales.

Sin embargo estas valoraciones hasta ahora han sido estrictamente resultados de sus propias incubadoras y también de sus propias empresas egresadas (Junior Grisci 1995, Furtado 1998, Fiat y otros, 1999 y Lellis, 2000). Sin embargo el estudio pretende realizar una comparación con otras empresas que no han pasado por el proceso. Ho. Las empresas graduados de estos proyectos obtienen mejores resultados que otras empresas que no lo han pasado por la formación del programa.

METODOLOGIA

La investigación exploratoria, de acuerdo con (Hernández, Fernández y Baptista, 2010), se desarrolla con el objetivo de proporcionar una visión general del tipo de aproximación, diseñada de manera No Experimental, considerada del tipo transversal - causal y tiene la unidad de medida: las empresas encubadas, las cuales participaron en el programa de EmpreSer, en Hermosillo, Sonora en el año 2010 y las empresas que no fueron incubadas. La evaluación del desempeño se utilizó el método comparativo con dos grupos de enfoque (Roesch, 1999), con empresas que tuvieran similitudes en cuanto producción, producto, un año de constitución, número de empleados y sector básicos.

El muestro que se llevó a cabo fue probabilístico con una población tamaño de la población de 112 empresas incubadas en el 2010, error máximo aceptable del 5%, porcentaje estimado de la muestra 10% al 90% y con un nivel de confianza del 5%, el tamaño de la muestra fue de 44 según el programa STATS, lo que resulta adecuado para el modelo estadístico. Las empresas que construyeron la muestra de este

estudio estuvieron representados por una parte como se muestra en la Tabla 1. su mayoría por el sector de Autoservicios (abarrotes y alimentos), seguida por oficios varios, textil y otros (los cuales solo tiene una mención, como son: artículos de construcción, agropecuarios, boutiques, educación, miscelánea, plásticos, cuidado personal, artículos para el hogar, turismo restaurantes y bares y por ultimo cuidado médico). Las empresas participantes son mipymes, con capital nacional, con un máximo de 10 empleados y en su mayoría son empresas familiares. Y por otra empresas no encubadas que se invitaron a participar se buscaron que cumplieran con características similares y que tuvieran la disposición de participar en este estudio.

Tabla 1: Características de la muestra. Empresas Incubadas (EI) Empresas NO Incubadas (ENI)

Concepto	Clasificación	Frecuencia	Porcentaje	Clasificación	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Sector	Auto servicios	24	47	Auto servicios	16	36
	oficios varios,	3	10	oficios varios,	4	9
	textil	2	7	textil	1	2
	Otros	15	37	Otros	23	54
Tamaño	Micro pymes	44	100	Micro pymes	44	100
Mercado	Nacional	43	98	Nacional	44	100
	Extranjero	1	2			
Tipo de empresa	Familiar	39	87	Familiar	35	80
	Socios	5	13	Socios	9	20

Tabla 1. Detalla las características principales de la muestras al sector donde el 47% de la muestra está dedicada al sector Autoservicios (alimentos y auto servicios), tamaño de acuerdo a la clasificación de la Secretaría de Economía, el mercado meta, el tipo de empresa, el mercado y en el caso de las ENI, el 23% se encuentra en el sector de otros es decir, artículos de construcción, agropecuarios, boutiques, educación, miscelánea, plásticos, cuidado personal, artículos para el hogar, turismo restaurantes y bares y por ultimo cuidado médico.

Se utilizó el mismo instrumento búsqueda de "Diagnóstico de la Competitividad Industrial para la Micro y Pequeña Empresa" desarrollada por SEBRAE en 1995 y adaptada por el autor, cuyas dimensiones e indicadores representantes de las principales dimensiones del desempeño corporativo en el cual se analizó los siguientes:

1. Factor de Productividad: Facturación anual / N° de trabajadores
2. % de Piezas Defectuosas: Piezas falladas + Piezas retrabajadas/ Total de piezas producidas
3. Q = Cantidad necesaria para producir un determinado producto
q = Cantidad incorporada al producto final
- 4.-% de utilización de Capacidad Instalada (promedio anual)
- 5.-Interrupciones o Paradas no previstas o no programas (días por año)
- 6.-% de Personal Calificado a Nivel Superior
N° personas calificadas + N° Personas de Universidades Total de Trabajadores
7. Formas de Entrenamiento de personal realizadas
- 8.-Formas de Beneficios e Incentivos a trabajadores

9.-Formas de captación de Sugerencias

10.-Investigaciones sobre las necesidades de los Clientes (formas realizadas)

11.-Formas de servicios ofrecidos a los Clientes

12.-Programas de Calidad con Clientes y Proveedores

13.-Conocimiento y utilización de Normas Técnicas

14.-Tipo de Instrumentos o Herramientas de Control Gerencial, Financiero y Contable utilizadas. (Wurst, 2010)

Una vez que la recolección de datos y comprobación se comenzó a medir asignándosele un punto a cada pregunta planteada y finalmente, los puntos totales de cada empresa, permite la evaluación. La presentación y el análisis de los resultados se organizaron en las dimensiones de los indicadores del desempeño y sus adoptados lo que permitió evaluar el cumplimiento de las empresas. .

RESULTADOS

Los resultados encontrados en la muestra del estudio presenta información sobre la situación de las empresas que participan en el programa de incubación a un año de haber concluido dicho programas en comparación a empresas en la misma situación que no participaron el mismo. Encontrando una similitud en los sectores y tamaño. Sin embargo podemos encontrar que en las EI, una de esas micro empresas se está dedicando al comercio exterior (exporta). El 100% las empresas cuentan con acceso a internet, correo u otro medio de comunicación, sin embargo una ellas promociona sus artículos mediante su página web.

Productividad

En materia de Factor de Productividad: se encontró que hay una gran similitud entre ambos grupos, sin embargo en la grupo ENI se encontró la mayor productividad en relación a la facturación / mano de obra, y la más bajo se presentó en las EI. La tasa de defectos, otro indicador importante en el manejo del desempeño, nos muestra que el grupo donde se encontró el mayor índice de defectos es en el EI con un 14% en una de sus empresas, es importante aclarar, que en la mayoría de las empresas no llevan un control específico sobre defectos, así la este indicador un poco confiable. La tasa de desperdicio de materia prima durante el proceso de producción de las empresas tenía una tasa promedio de 59% en las IE y las ENI 67 % también impresionante. Al igual que el punto anterior el indicador en este tipo de clasificación de empresa, es un poco confiable ya que no llevan un control estricto y además muchos de las empresas no lo generar por la naturaleza de sus productos.

Como se refiere a la capacidad instalada de las empresas en el estudio verifica que empresas de todos las EI utilizan el 100% de la capacidad, lo que indica están optimizando mejor los recursos existentes, por lo tanto tienen mejor el rendimiento de las empresas estudiadas, ya que las ENI utilizan su capacidad entre un 70 y 100% de su capacidad. En Interrupciones o Paradas no previstas o no programas (días por año), ambos grupos no presentaron algún problema en ese rubro. A continuación en la tabla 3, se muestra los resultados en materia de productividad los dos grupos.

Tabla 3:Productividad.

	EI	ENI
Factor de Productividad	93 %	97%
La tasa de defectos	68,4 %	60%
La tasa de desperdicio	59%	67%
Interrupciones o paradas	0%	0%
la capacidad instalada	100%	83 %

En esta tabla anterior, muestra el concentrado de productividad de los principales indicadores, encontrando un similitud.

Recursos Humanos

El % de Personal Calificado a Nivel Superior, el 73% de la población de EI cuenta con estudios universitarios o trunco, los ENI, el 65% de la población cuenta con preparación a ese nivel. Mucho de estos indicadores tienen que ver con el giro de la empresa por ejemplo autoservicios, boutiques etc. Con respecto a la aplicación y las formas de capacitación, desgraciadamente el 87 % de las empresas entrevistadas de ambos grupos de estudios no le invierten a la capacitación externa, sin embargo los mismos empleados realizan estas actividades de forma indirecta. Y solo el 13% han asistido por lo menos a una en el periodo del 2010. Dentro del rubro de beneficios e incentivos que brindan las empresas se detectó que las principales prestaciones son las que se brindan por ley como son seguro médico, apoyo a vivienda y el servicio de guardería, solo el 35 % por cuestiones fiscales proporciona vales de comida. El uso de mecanismos para captar sugerencias de los empleados es otro indicador importante para analizar la relación empresa / empleado. Parece que 92 % empresas en el estudio de los mecanismos se utilizan para capturar sugerencias mediante reuniones formales e informales.

Clientes

El uso de mecanismos para captar información de los clientes es también importante. Sin embargo, 84% de empresas no utilizan los mecanismos definidos para el control de esta información, lo realizan de manera informal, destacando los medios para obtener la información visitas a las empresas o correos. El 92 % de las empresas participantes en este estudio de ambos grupos no cuentan con un programas de Calidad con Clientes y Proveedores establecido, si bien es cierto se realiza de manera informal pero no existe una estructura que lo respalde. En Materia de conocimiento y utilización de Normas Técnicas, el 78 % de los entrevistados no aplican una norma de calidad en sus procesos, como son ISO, Six Sigma, Lean Manufacturing, HACCP, etc, incluso 7 empresas del ENI y 4 empresas de EI desconocían los conceptos.

Información financiera

El 100 % de ambos grupos lleva un control inventario de materias primas, bancos y la planificación de costos. Todavía se refieren, el control dinero en efectivo (libro) y control de inventario de productos terminados. Tenga en cuenta que los instrumentos control de gestión respecto a la cifra utilizada por las empresas. Sin embargo el 66.7% de la contabilidad la lleva el dueño de la empresa, el resto la lleva un contador externo e interno en las empresas EI y en las ENI, 73% de la contabilidad la lleva el mismo dueño. El 93% de los EI, expresaron que uno de los principales intereses de formar parte del programa de incubación son los contactos con las organizaciones gubernamentales para el apoyo de un financiamiento.

CONCLUSIONES

Considerando la importancia de las incubadoras para apoyar la creación y el desarrollo empresarial, enfrenta una serie de retos para el funcionamiento de sus programas en general y en relación a los indicadores obtenidos una empresa egresada de una incubación tiene mejores resultados que los no participaron. A partir de este cuestionamiento, que se estructura el presente trabajo de investigación. En un intento por comprobar el rendimiento de las empresas egresadas de Empreser, y demostrar sus fortalezas en relación a empresas que no forman parte de este programa, para lo cual, se decidió hacer un análisis comparativo con otras empresas hasta que una evaluación por el rendimiento sólo tiene sentido si se la puede comparar con el de otra empresa, sector o incluso incluso con otro período de tiempo. Si bien es cierto, que de un número considerable de empresas que entran al programa mueren en el camino, hay otras empresas que han crecido considerablemente a ser grandes empresas, de las cuales se le financian los recursos a través de un tercero con la finalidad de que pueda empezar sus actividades.

Como recomendación, se debe de tener cuidado con los sectores que se manejan en las incubadoras, ya que son perfiles bajos, con poca inversión, tecnología y sobre todo valor agregado.

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ANÁLISIS DEL IMPACTO DE LA APLICACIÓN DEL PROGRAMA GUÍAS ESCOLARES EN LA UNIVERSIDAD: CASO CESUES HERMOSILLO.

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RESUMEN

Esta trabajo tiene el objetivo de determinar el impacto académico en los estudiantes del Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora con la implementación del “ Programa de apoyo académicos” el cual consiste en que alumnos de muy buen rendimiento académico llamados Guías apoyen a sus compañeros que muestran alguna problemática en materias específicas de la carrera y conocer la contribución tanto para los guías, alumnos beneficiados y profesores, que participaron en el programa durante el año escolar 2009 – 1 al 2011 - 2

En este estudio se realizó una investigación descriptiva analizando la pertinencia en el desarrollo académico de los estudiantes; así como detectando los nichos de oportunidades para el buen funcionamiento del mismo en los próximos años.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Alumnos, guías, programa de apoyo académico.

ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDENTS GUIDES PROGRAM IN THE UNIVERSITY. CASE CESUES HERMOSILLO

This work has the objective to determine the academic impact on students from the Center of superior studies of the State of Sonora who are involved with the "academic support program" the program consists in students of good academic performance called guides that support fellow students with problems in specific academics areas of the carrier and understand the contribution both. The guides benefit students and teachers, who participated in the program during the year 2009 – 1 to 2011 - 2

In this study the investigation conducted a descriptive research analyzing the relevance of the educational development of students, in the detecting opportunities for the proper functioning of the following year.

JEL: I20, A20, A23, A30, A31, I20, I21, I23

KEYWORDS: Students, guides, academic support program.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Debido a los grandes cambios que han influido en la transformación de la educación superior como son: la globalización económica, la revolución de las comunicaciones y la información, las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES), a nivel licenciatura, se han visto en la necesidad de transformar su visión de la educación y eliminar paradigmas en cuanto a la formación de sus estudiantes, considerando que la

atención personalizada de éstos puede ayudar a abatir los graves problemas de deserción y el rezago estudiantil (UPN, 2007), los cuales son de los factores principales que afectan el logro de una alta eficiencia terminal en las instituciones.

ANUIES (2002 a) en su Programa Institucional de Tutorías, informó en cifras generales y dentro de sus estadísticas nacionales, que de cada 100 alumnos que empiezan sus estudios universitarios, solo entre 50 y 60 alumnos terminan sus créditos de sus planes de estudios, y al finalizar el periodo de la carrera profesional, solo 20 alumnos obtienen su título profesional.

En materia de titulación, 10% solamente, es decir, dos egresados, lo hacen a la edad considerada como deseable (24 ó 25 años); y los demás, lo hacen entre la edad de los 27 y los 60 años (Díaz de Cossío, 1998, citado en ANUIES 2002 a); Chaín (1999, citado en ANUIES 2002 a), indica que aproximadamente 25 de cada 100 estudiantes que ingresan al nivel universitario abandonan sus estudios sin haber acreditado las materias del primer semestre; además, un gran porcentaje de ellos inicia su carrera con altos índices de reprobación y con bajas calificaciones, situaciones que traen como consecuencia que el 36% de los alumnos al tercer semestre, deserten, cifra que se va alarmando conforme pasan los semestres, hasta alcanzar el 46% al término del periodo de formación profesional (Márquez, J. y Jiménez B., 2007).

Atendiendo estas problemáticas que se ven inmersas las IES, la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES); propone la operación de un programa denominado *Desarrollo integral de los alumnos*, que tiene por objetivo: *Apoyar a los alumnos del Sistema de Educación Superior (SES), con programas de tutorías y desarrollo integral, diseñados e implementados por las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES), de suerte que una elevada proporción de ellos culmine sus estudios en el plazo previsto y logre los objetivos de formación establecidos en los planes y programas de estudio.*(ANUIES, 2000b).

En conclusión, tanto el marco internacional como el nacional coinciden en la necesidad de modificar el paradigma educativo actual, por aquel en el que la formación de los estudiantes sea integral, es decir, que desarrolle valores, actitudes, habilidades, destrezas y aprendizaje significativo. Ante esta situación, el Centro de Estudios Superiores (CESUES), creó la Coordinación de Servicios Estudiantiles, la cual implementó en varios programas, como el Programa Institucional de Tutorías (PIT), el Programa de Salud Universitaria (PSU) y en el Programa de Apoyo Académico (PAA), estrategias que respondan a las demandas actuales de los estudiantes, con la intención de generar más y mejores egresados que, al mismo tiempo, puedan lograr una incorporación exitosa al mercado de trabajo.

Antecedentes de la Coordinación de Servicios Estudiantiles en CESUES.

La estructura creada por El CESUES, incluye dentro de su Coordinación de Servicios Estudiantiles, varios programas como el Programa Institucional de Tutorías (PIT), el Programa de Salud Universitaria (PSU), Deportes, Cultura, Programa medioambiental y el Programa de Apoyo Académico (PAA); éstos con la intención de ofrecer una formación más integral a sus estudiantes.

METODOLOGÍA

Para efectos de esta investigación, se realizó un estudio de carácter descriptivo, en función de resultados y un análisis a partir del apoyo de la estadística descriptiva, el diseño de la investigación es no experimental y trasversal con un periodo de análisis de cuatro ciclos escolares que comprenden los

periodos del año 2009 a 2011, en el cual se analizó el progreso de cada uno de los estudiantes participantes en el PAA, seleccionándose los referentes métricos apropiados, se adecuaron al contexto, para diseñar los criterios para llevar a cabo la investigación. En el que se hizo una revisión y delimitación del instrumento de medición final, así como su proceso de validación.

Características de los alumnos asesorados

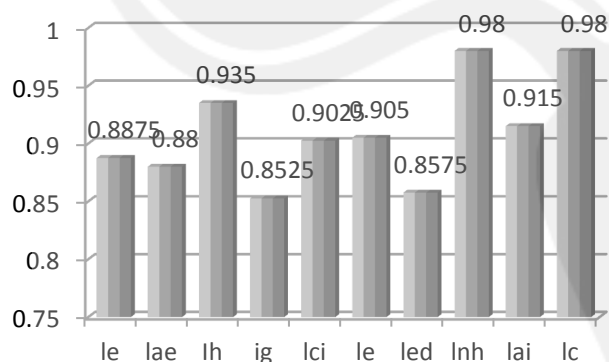
Para efectos estadísticos, los alumnos asesorados conforman la población de este estudio, tipo no probabilístico, debido a que se dispuso del 100% de los datos a estudiar, ya que es requisito para finalizar el programa, era el realizar un análisis del desempeño académico de cada uno de los participantes y sus desempeño en las materias asesoradas.

El criterio de selección de alumnos participantes como beneficiados del programa, son alumnos que en su haber estudiantil, han reprobado una materia por lo menos dos veces o bien, sean candidatos a reprobar en este caso son detectados y canalizados por el profesor, psicólogo, médico o el tutor en los ciclos escolares en los cuales se les brindo el servicio y las carrera de procedencia, las cuales son: Licenciado en Comercio Internacional (LCI), Licenciado en Administración de Empresas Turísticas (LAET); Licenciado de Nutrición Humana (LNH); Licenciado en Contabilidad (LC); Licenciado en Entrenamiento Deportivo (LED); Ingeniero en Horticultura (IH); Licenciado en la Enseñanza del Inglés (LEI); Ingeniero en Geociencias (IG); Ingeniero Ambiental Industrial (IAI) y; Licenciado en Ecología (LE).

RESULTADOS

Para esta investigación fue necesario realizar una evaluación del desempeño del estudiante en su periodo de participación de su materia, en el cual los resultados fueron los siguientes: Bajo el supuesto de que el comportamiento y el PAA funcionara con una distribución normal, se puede afirmar que existe un 95% de probabilidad de que este programa siga operando con éxito y esperando que el grado de aprobación de los alumnos asesorados oscile entre un 81% y un 100% considerando un intervalo de confianza construido con una desviación estándar para el periodo 2009 – 2 al 2011 -1 de acuerdo a los resultados obtenidos proporcionados por el departamento de control escolar. En la Figura 1. Se detalla el porcentaje de aprobación de los participantes en ese periodo por programa educativo.

Figura 1. Porcentaje de aprobación por Programa Educativo en el periodo 2009 – 2 al 2011 – 2.



La tabla anterior muestra los porcentajes de aprobación de los alumnos, indicando que las carreras de Licenciatura a la Nutrición Humana y Licenciatura en Contaduría son las que obtuvieron el mayor porcentaje y la carrera de Ingeniería en Geociencias tuvo el menor porcentaje. Fuente: Elaboración Propia.

En esta gráfica, se observa que los programas educativos de Comercio Internacional y Nutrición Humana son materias con un grado del 98% de aprobación después de haber tomado la asesoría sin embargo, la Ingeniería de Geociencias obtuvo 85% de grado de aprobación. Las materias que se tuvieron ese problema fueron en el área básicas y sin embargo el porcentaje es significativo. En relación a los guías, 59 asesores que participaron, se atendieron a 2186 alumnos, de los cuales atendieron en un promedio de 37 alumnos, siendo las carreras de LNH y LAI las que obtuvieron la mayor productividad en relación a la cantidad de alumnos atendidos por guías y a su vez, el promedio de aprobación después de haber concluido el PAA.

CONCLUSIÓN

Con los resultados expuestos, se puede concluir que el PAA ha contribuido a que el 91,1% de los alumnos que participaron en este programan tenga un alto índice de aprobar las materias que han venido reprobando en su carrera.

Programa ha ayudado a los alumnos que cursan asignaturas, en segunda oportunidad o en algunos casos hasta la tercera ocasión, a mejorar su situación académica sin la necesidad de desertar o quedarse rezagados en su formación, así como el beneficio que han tenido los guías, al especializarse y a su vez transmitir los conocimientos a sus propios compañeros y a la institución a disminuir considerablemente los índices de deserción o rezago.

Es imposible elaborar un listado de alumnos que se encuentren en riesgo de abandono de estudios, debido a que este criterio se podría decir, es voluntario y, en este caso, influyen en el estudiante múltiples factores que van desde la falta de recursos económicos, los problemas psicológicos, problemas personales y/o familiares, falta de vocación o simplemente la decisión de dejar los estudios para dedicar su tiempo a cualquier otra actividad.

Para realizar este análisis fue importante considerar a los alumnos inscritos en el semestre respectivo, ya que un estudiante que se encuentra en “riesgo de ser baja definitiva” este semestre, al acreditar la asignatura, automáticamente deja el estatus de “riesgo”. Ya que el reglamento escolar marca que si reprueba por tercera ocasión es Baja Definitiva.

Hay que aclarar que el programa tiene sus deficiencias, los cuales serán otro tema de estudio, como son los espacios físicos, horarios, disponibilidad de tiempo por parte de los maestros, organización y etc.

De manera general, estas son las actividades que se realizan en el PAA y se puede hacer un análisis cuantitativo sobre los servicios brindados a los estudiantes en función de la matrícula total, lamentablemente es imposible realizar la misma medición de manera cualitativa, pues los logros académicos de los estudiantes están en función de las clases impartidas por los profesores, el trabajo realizado por los tutores, asesores académicos, guías, psicólogos, médicos y el impacto de los servicios administrativos de la institución; esto en conjunto, es lo que permite al estudiante tener una formación completa y sería subjetivo determinar que un porcentaje del éxito o fracaso de un estudiante es en mayor o menor medida responsabilidad del PAA; lo que sí es importante mencionar es que, este programa al igual que el resto de los programas dependientes de la Coordinación de Servicios Estudiantiles, contribuyen a la formación integral de los estudiantes.

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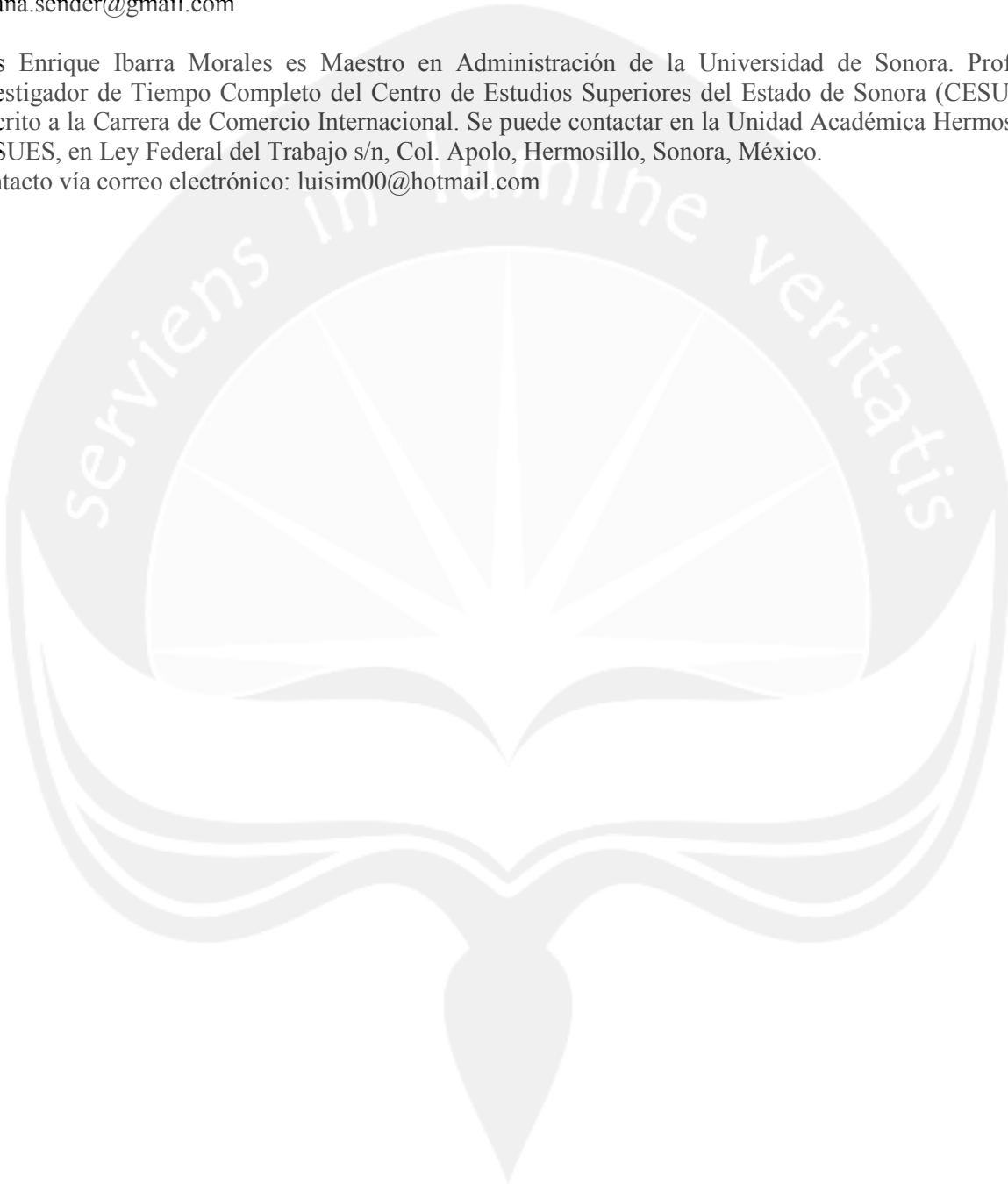
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PLANES NACIONALES DE DESARROLLO Y LOS SECTORES PRODUCTIVOS DE MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

Las políticas públicas siempre han sido establecidas por los planes sexenales de gobierno, cada gobierno que toma posesión por cada seis (6) años, formula su propio Plan Nacional de Desarrollo (PND) con conformes a sus propósitos y enfocados a los sectores productivos del país. En el país existen tres sectores productivos el primario que trata de la alimentación de la población, el secundario y terciario que son los de servicios y transformación respectivamente, y los PND que están enfocados apoyar a dichos sectores, donde los Planes Estatales de Desarrollo (PED) son los que llevan a cabo ciertas acciones para que se cumpla el PND, y el Plan Municipal de Desarrollo que es el Bando Municipal que se encarga de los territorios. En México cada sexenio se ha pronunciado por formular los objetivos que persigue el país y se establecen los lineamientos de crecimiento de acuerdo a los sectores productivos. En donde se establece que acciones se deberán de llevar a cabo para impulsar su desarrollo. Por lo que la investigación tiene como objetivo realizar un diagnóstico de cómo han impactado dichas políticas públicas en el desarrollo de las regiones.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Políticas Públicas, Planes Nacionales de Desarrollo (PND), Sectores Productivos.

JEL: H83

ABSTRACT

Public policies have always been set by six-year plans of government, every government that takes over for every six (6) years, makes its own National Development Plan (NDP) in accordance with its purposes and focus on the productive sectors. The country has three sectors is the primary food of the population, the secondary and tertiary services are and transformation respectively, and the NDP who are focused support to those sectors where the State Development Plan (EDP) are carrying out certain actions to ensure compliance with the NDP, and the Municipal Development Plan is the Municipal Band which is responsible for the territories. In Mexico every six years has spoken to formulate the objectives of the country and establishing guidelines for growth according to the productive sectors. In establishing that actions must be to carry out to promote their development. So the research is to make a diagnosis of how those policies have impacted on the development of the regions.

KEYWORDS: Public Policy, National Development Plans (NDP), Productive Sectors

INTRODUCCIÓN

Por ello se analizan los tres planes de desarrollo; El Plan Nacional de Desarrollo el cual es establecido por el presidente de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, FELIPE DE JESÚS CALDERÓN HINOJOSA, se presenta, en cumplimiento al Artículo 26 de la Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos y cual señala que corresponde al Estado organizar un sistema de planeación democrática del desarrollo nacional que imprima solidez, dinamismo, permanencia y equidad al crecimiento de la economía para la independencia; corresponde al Ejecutivo Federal conducir la planeación nacional del desarrollo, mediante la ordenación racional y sistemática de las acciones que buscan lograr un desarrollo equitativo que proporcione mejores niveles de vida para todos.

El PND 2007-2012 se sustenta en cinco ejes rectores; estado de derecho y seguridad; economía competitiva y generadora de empleos; igualdad de oportunidades; sustentabilidad ambiental, y democracia efectiva y política exterior responsable; por lo tanto el Plan asume como premisa básica la búsqueda del Desarrollo Humano Sustentable, como el proceso permanente de ampliación de capacidades y libertades que permita a todos los mexicanos tener una vida digna sin comprometer el patrimonio de las generaciones futuras. Por tanto este Plan Nacional de Desarrollo tiene como finalidad establecer los objetivos nacionales, las estrategias y las prioridades que durante la Administración deberán regir la acción del gobierno. El PDEM que es establecido por Enrique Peña Nieto; Gobernador Constitucional del Estado de México 2005-2011, El Plan de Desarrollo del Estado de México 2005-2011 es un documento que sintetiza los anhelos y aspiraciones de nuestra sociedad; El Plan de Desarrollo reviste una enorme importancia, ya que constituye el documento rector de las políticas públicas que se habrán de implementar en el Estado de México, para brindar Seguridad Integral a cada mexiquense, capaz de propiciar un ambiente de acuerdos y consensos; que conduzca el esfuerzo social para concretar acciones, programas y proyectos que impacten positivamente en la calidad de vida de los mexiquenses. La Seguridad Integral es un concepto que se sustenta en tres pilares fundamentales: Seguridad Social, la Seguridad Económica y la Seguridad Pública. La fundamentación jurídica que da cuerpo y razón de ser a la estructura de este Plan de Desarrollo del Estado de México, parte del artículo 139 de la Constitución Política del Estado Libre y Soberano de México, del contenido de este artículo se desprende, como ley reglamentaria, la Ley de Planeación del Estado de México y Municipios, en la cual se dispone, en el artículo 22, que: *“Los planes de desarrollo se formularán, aprobarán y publicarán dentro de un plazo de seis meses para el Ejecutivo del Estado [...] contados a partir del inicio del período constitucional de gobierno y en su elaboración se tomarán en cuenta las opiniones y aportaciones de los diversos grupos de la sociedad [...]”*.

El Plan de Desarrollo Municipal de Amecameca 2009 – 2012, establecido por el Dr. Juan Sánchez Demetrio, actual presidente municipal; se orienta hacia la construcción de un gobierno municipal honesto, eficiente y eficaz, que a través de un nuevo modelo de gestión pública, basado en la planeación estratégica, la gobernabilidad y la participación ciudadana, busca fortalecer el papel de Amecameca en el concierto estatal y regional, elevar la calidad de vida de las y los habitantes del Municipio, procure mantener un medio ambiente sano, diversificado y competitivo, así como reencauzar la vida pública en el Municipio ajustada al Estado de Derecho. El artículo 116 del mismo ordenamiento legal, dispone que el Plan de Desarrollo Municipal deba ser elaborado, aprobado y publicado, dentro de los primeros cuatro meses de la gestión municipal. Su vigencia se circunscribirá al período constitucional o hasta la publicación del plan de desarrollo del siguiente período constitucional de gobierno. Periodos presidenciales de 1982 a la fecha.

1. *Miguel de la Madrid Hurtado (1982-1988)*: De la Madrid llegó al poder en una de las épocas más difíciles del país, mucho debido a su antecesor José López Portillo, quien nacionalizó la banca tres meses antes de salir del poder. Como resultado, la inflación subió a un promedio de casi 100% cada año, el desempleo creció a 15% entre 1983 y 1985 y hubo caídas drásticas en producción, sobre todo en industrias gubernamentales. Ante la severa crisis económica, se establecieron los Pactos de Crecimiento Económico con los diversos sectores sociales, mediante los cuales el gobierno subsidiaba parte de los precios de los productos básicos y los productores/distribuidores se comprometían a no aumentarlos. En 1983 promovió la creación del Sistema Nacional de Subcontratación, mediante el cual las empresas paraestatales orientarían su demanda hacia el mercado interno, fundamentalmente en apoyo a la pequeña y mediana industria. Y se le dio especial apoyo por su participación de casi 85% en las industrias del papel, madera, alimentaria, textil y minería. En 1991 se decreta la Ley Federal Para el Fomento de la Microindustria y la Actividad artesanal; tiene por objeto fomentar el desarrollo de la microindustria y de la actividad artesanal.

2. *Carlos Salinas de Gortari (1989-1994)*: Para 1988, la industria micro, pequeña y mediana estaba integrada por 119,914 empresas, las cuales empleaban a casi 1,591,466 personas, representando el 98% del total de establecimientos de transformación, absorbiendo más del 50% de la mano de obra del sector y aportando el 44% de la producción de la industria manufacturera, proporción equivalente al 12% del PIB. Bajo este contexto se desarrolla el Programa para la Modernización y el Desarrollo de la industria Micro, Pequeña y Mediana (PMDI) para promover los instrumentos y acciones en apoyo a este tipo de empresas.

3. *Ernesto Zedillo Ponce de León (1995-2000)*: Se promovió el *Programa Integral de Promoción del Uso de Tecnologías Informáticas para la Micro, Pequeña y Mediana Empresas* con el propósito de promover el uso de herramientas informáticas e incrementar la competitividad. A lo largo del sexenio, se continuó con el esquema de empresas integradoras con el objeto de elevar la competitividad de la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa. Se firmó el Convenio de Cooperación Institucional entre la SECOFI y los fideicomisos instituidos en relación con la agricultura (FIRA), mediante el cual se asesoraron 50 proyectos de empresas integradoras de los sectores agrícolas, pecuarios y piscícolas.

4- *Vicente Fox Quesada (2001-2006)*: Ley para el desarrollo de la competitividad de la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa. La ley tiene por objeto promover el desarrollo económico de la nacional a través del fomento a la creación de las Mi Pymes y el apoyo para su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, con la finalidad de fomentar el empleo y el bienestar social y económico de todos los participantes en la Mi Pymes. Con base en la estratificación establecida por la Secretaria de Economía, de común acuerdo con la Secretaria de Hacienda y Crédito Público y Publicada en el Diario Oficial de la federación se logra estratificar por sectores el tamaño de las MIPYMES, en la cual se incluyen productores agrícolas, ganaderos, forestales entre otros. El desarrollo de los sectores productivos; durante la administración de Vicente Fox los tres grandes sectores de la actividad económica dieron muestra de reactivación, esto según cifras de INEGI, siendo el sector primario el cual registro un mayor crecimiento. Durante el primer trimestre del 2004, con una población económicamente activa en descenso, el sector primario: agricultura, ganadería, silvicultura y pesca aumento 4.6 por ciento respecto al valor de la producción del mismo periodo del 2003. El sector terciario o de servicios tuvo un crecimiento de 4.1 por ciento sobre el nivel del primer trimestre de 2003, este se mantuvo en crecimiento constante durante esta administración gubernamental impulsando principalmente por la telefonía tradicional, la celular y las comunicaciones satelitales. En el sector secundario o industrial se incrementó 3.2%.

5.- *Felipe Calderón Hinojosa (2007-2012)*: En el PND 2007 2012, establece una nueva estratificación basada en la cantidad de empleados y ventas anuales, dicha estratificación solo mencionan a los sectores productivos secundarios y terciarios, sin tomar en consideración el sector primario, en el acuerdo por el que se establece la estratificación de las MIPYMES, publicado el 30 de junio del 2009, que tiene por objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES, en el apoyo para su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, en un marco decrecientes encadenamientos productivos que generan mayor valor agregado nacional, y que de común acuerdo con la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público se considera necesario establecer la estratificación, con el fin de evitar la discriminación en contra de empresas intensivas.

Sectores productivos de México: Los sectores económicos son la división de la actividad económica de un estado o territorio, atendiendo al tipo de proceso productivo que tenga lugar. Los sectores económicos se han clasificado de las siguientes maneras:

Sector primario o agropecuario: comprende las actividades a la mera extracción de recursos de la naturaleza, son que estos hayan sido transformados por la acción humana. Se refiere a la obtención de materia prima para fabricar otros bienes, y está integrado por cuatro subsectores o ramas: agricultura, ganadería, silvicultura y pesca, por lo que este sector también se conoce como agropecuario. Sector secundario o industrial; se refiere a las actividades que producen bienes a gran escala y de manera continua: implican la utilización de procesos industriales y se pueden dividir en extractivas, como en los casos de la minería y el petróleo, y manufactureras cuando transforman los recursos naturales para convertirlos en bienes de consumo, intermedios y de capital, razón por la que la industria manufacturera también se conoce como de transformación. La construcción, aunque se considera parte del sector secundario, suele contabilizarse a parte, pues reúne características que le confieren identidad propia. Sector terciario o de servicios: abarca las actividades destinadas a satisfacer la demanda de los servicios de comercio, transporte, comunicaciones, medios de información, educación, banca, publicidad. etc. se distinguen de la producción de bienes en cuanto a que, por su propia naturaleza los servicios son actividades humanas intangibles y no productos materiales como aquellos correspondientes a los dos primeros sectores. (México, estructuras política, económica y social: gloria m. delgado de cantú) Estratificación de empresas, publicada en el *diario oficial de la federación* 30 junio de 2009.

Tabla 1: Clasificación por Numero de Empleados

clasificación por números de empleados			
tamaño	industria	comercio	servicios
microempresa	0-10	0-10	0-10
pequeña empresa	11-50	11-30	11-50
mediana empresa	51-250	31-100	51-100

gran empresa 501 en adelante 101 en adelante 101 en adelante.

Tabla 2: Sector Agropecuario

sector agropecuario	
microempresa	0-5
pequeña empresa	6-20
mediana empresa	21-100
gran empresa	101 en adelante

De acuerdo a la Clasificación Mexicana de Actividades y Productos (CMAP), el sector agropecuario incluye tres subsectores. Agricultura, Ganadería y Caza, Silvicultura, y Pesca Fuente: "Micro, pequeña, mediana y gran empresa. Censos económicos de 1999. Estratificación de los establecimientos", en INEGI, México, 1999, p. 12

Los rubros Industria, Comercio y Servicios incluyen los siguientes sectores económicos:

- 1) Industria: Minería, Manufactura, Electricidad y Agua y Construcción. Incluye un total de 16 subsectores económicos.
- 2) Comercio: Comercio. Incluye un total de dos subsectores económicos.
- 3) Servicios: Servicios Financieros y de Alquiler, y servicios comunales y sociales, hoteles y restaurantes y profesionales. Incluye un total de trece subsectores económicos.

De acuerdo a la Clasificación Mexicana de Actividades y Productos (CMAP), el Único sector excluido de esa estratificación de las MIPYMES, fue el agropecuario. Y para tal sector se propuso la siguiente clasificación:

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Partiendo De Lo Anteriormente Expuesto, Se Tomaran Como Referencia Los Datos Del Sexenio De 1982 A La Fecha. Sexenio Del Presidente Miguel De La Madrid Hurtado, Se Publica En El DOF Del 26 De Enero De 1988, Por Decreto Se Establece Que Las Microindustrias En Operación Podrán Inscribirse En Forma Gratuita En El Padrón Nacional De La Microindustria, Y Que Para El 22 De Julio Del 1991, Se Formula Por Decreto La LEY FEDERAL PARA EL FOMENTO DE LA MICRO INDUSTRIA Y LA ACTIVIDAD ARTESANAL, En Donde Se Establece Por Primera Vez La Estratificación De Las MIPYMES, Como Microindustrias Y Actividad Artesanal, Sin Determinar La Cantidad De Empleados Que La Integren, Donde Se Involucra A Los Tres Sectores Productivos Del País. En El Sexenio Del Presidente Carlos Salinas De Gortari, Se Establecen Los Reglamentos De Promociones Y Ofertas Durante El PND 1989 1994, Que Establece La Necesidad De Adecuar El Marco Jurídico De La Actividad Económica Para Evitar La Regulación Excesiva Que Impone Costos Elevados, Limita La Competencia Impulsando Los Precios Al Alza, Discrimina Entre Diversos Agentes Productivos, Desalienta La Productividad Y Propicia Una Asignación Ineficiente De Los Recursos.

Es hasta el sexenio de Vicente Fox Quezada se logra estratificar por sectores el tamaño de las MIPYMES, donde toma en consideración a las actividades económicas del país, y lo establece en función de la cantidad de empleados, por lo que se promulga la Ley para el Desarrollo de la Competitividad de las MIPYMES, así como el Consejo Nacional para la Competitividad, la cual fue publicadas el 06 de junio de 2006, que tiene como objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES, asimismo, establece artículos y reglamentos para su funcionamiento. Una de las últimas leyes promulgadas para el desarrollo de las MIPYMES se da en el sexenio de Felipe Calderón Hinojosa, en donde en el PND 2007 2012, establece una nueva estratificación basada en la cantidad de empleados y ventas anuales, dicha estratificación solo mencionan a los sectores productivos secundarios y terciarios, sin tomar en consideración el sector primario, en el acuerdo por el que se establece la estratificación de las MIPYMES, publicado el 30 de junio del 2009, que tiene por objeto promover el desarrollo económico nacional a través del fomento a la creación de MIPYMES, en el apoyo para su viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, en un marco decrecientes encadenamientos productivos que generan mayor valor agregado

nacional, y que de común acuerdo con la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público se considera necesario establecer la estratificación, con el fin de evitar la discriminación en contra de empresas intensivas.

De acuerdo a lo anterior, la actividad productiva del país está constituida por tres sectores económicos: Primario (agropecuario y minero), Secundario (industrial) y Terciario (servicios). 1.- Sector Primario: Actividades económicas relacionadas con la transformación de los recursos naturales en productos primarios no elaborados. Usualmente, los productos primarios son utilizados como materia prima en las producciones industriales. Las principales actividades del sector primario son la agricultura, la minería, la ganadería, la silvicultura la apicultura, la acuicultura, la caza y la pesca. 2.- Sector Secundario: Actividades que implican la transformación de alimentos y materias primas a través de los más variados procesos productivos. 3.- Sector Terciario: Actividades económicas que no producen bienes materiales de forma directa, sino servicios que se ofrecen para satisfacer las necesidades de la población. (Wikipedia Foundation Inc., 2010).

METODOLOGÍA

La metodología aplicada en el desarrollo de la investigación es de tipo cualitativo debido a que la investigación propone establecer estrategias de búsqueda bibliográficas y referenciales en bases de datos e internet de manera retrospectiva que permiten lograr ver como en México cada sexenio se ha pronunciado por formular los objetivos que persigue el país y se establecen los lineamientos de crecimiento de acuerdo a los sectores productivos. Por lo que la investigación tiene como objetivo realizar un diagnóstico de cómo han impactado dichas políticas públicas en el desarrollo de las regiones así como lograr rescatar información de donde ha quedado el sector primario dentro de la estratificación. Es de tipo descriptivo debido que al análisis realizado referente a los sectores productivos y a los PND, PED Y PMD. Es de tipo no experimental, debido a que recolecta los datos directamente en un solo momento de los documentos investigados, sin manipular o controlar alguna variable y la recolección de datos.

Consideraciones Finales

Las leyes y establecidas de manera recurrentes en los PND, PED y PMD, que hablan específicamente de la viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad, así como incrementar su participación en los mercados, y se han incrustado como prioridades en los planes de desarrollo con el propósito de lograr el desarrollo endógeno territorial de los municipios, estados y nacionales, que al día de hoy no han sido concretados de manera eficiente en su ejecución que beneficie la competitividad de las MIPYMES, lo que ha provocado que la competitividad del país de una u otra forma haya perdido escalones, debido a que los programas de apoyo aunque se han incrementado, no se han destinado de manera eficiente para que cumpla con su propósito. Asimismo, hay que tomar en consideración que hubo un momento en el tiempo en la cual los lineamientos que se establecieron desde 1988 para la estratificación de las MIPYMES en donde se contemplaban los tres sectores productivos y que en las últimas reglamentaciones solo se han tomado como referencia para la estratificación los sectores secundarios y terciarios

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ENTORNOS VIRTUALES APLICADOS A LA EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR BASADOS EN LA METACOGNICIÓN

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RESUMEN

El uso de entornos virtuales aplicados a la educación superior basados en la metacognición, se ha cimentado como una alternativa para lograr la innovación en las mediaciones que tradicionalmente se han venido implementando en la educación para la formación del estudiante. La presente investigación propone realizar un diagnóstico de los diversos medios virtuales que permitan analizar procesos y entornos en las aulas virtuales, con el fin de generar espacios que respondan a las necesidades reales de los estudiantes, así como determinar los estilos de aprendizaje con el propósito de adoptar sus propios esquemas cognitivos implementando una acción formativa en la enseñanza, tomando en cuenta factores que determinan la calidad educativa, entre otros, dichos factores respondan a una serie de principios que engloban a todos aquellos aspectos que deben ser considerados a la hora de evaluar los entornos formativos. El estudiante deberá adquirir competencias que están vinculadas al uso de las TIC's, que se ha generado en el incremento de la innovación, producción y transferencia del conocimiento, que se le exige, por lo que el uso de herramientas virtuales van acompañadas de habilidades metacognitivas, que permitan afrontar eficazmente, las demandas sociales, educativas y culturales.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Entornos Virtuales, Metacognición, TIC's, Competencias, Aulas virtuales.

ABSTRACT

The use of virtual environments applied to higher education based on metacognition has cemented itself as an alternative to achieve innovation in mediation have traditionally been implemented in education for student training. This research proposes a diagnosis of the various virtual environments that allow analysis of processes and environments in virtual classrooms, in order to create spaces that meet the real needs of students, and to identify learning styles in order to adopt their own cognitive schemes implemented a training in teaching, taking into account factors that determine the quality of education, among others, these factors respond to a series of principles that encompass all aspects that must be considered when evaluating the training environments. The student will acquire skills that are linked to the use of TIC's, which has generated increased innovation, production and transfer of knowledge that is required, so that the use of virtual tools are accompanied by metacognitive skills, that can cope effectively, social demands, educational and cultural.

JEL: M0

KEYWORDS: Virtual Environments, Metacognition, TIC's, Skills, virtual classrooms.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Ciertamente la incorporación de las TIC's y el desarrollo de un espacio europeo de educación superior hacen que la universidad se mueva en una nueva dirección. Las nuevas propuestas universitarias abogan por que el estudiante sea centro y protagonista del proceso de aprendizaje y se sustituya la importancia de la enseñanza y la adquisición de conocimientos por la importancia del aprendizaje y la adquisición de competencias (González y Wagenaar, 2003).

Los nuevos entornos virtuales y las herramientas interactivas proporcionan nuevos conceptos educacionales lo cual las redes permiten crear estructuras de comunicación que facilitan y optimizan la información y conocimientos. Es así como los nuevos espacios de aprendizaje electrónico se van abriendo y exigen innovaciones inminentes en el planteamiento pedagógico de las acciones formativas que tenemos hasta estos momentos. Al presentar cambios con los entornos se sufren cambios significativos en la enseñanza superior la cual algunas cuentan solo con apoyo de aulas presenciales, y son pocos los docentes que innovan sus aulas. Tanto alumnos como los docentes se enfrentan a un cambio al utilizar herramientas diferentes por lo tanto necesitamos la disposición.

“Las últimas tendencias en educación propugnan el trabajo en grupo como metodología predominante, en la cual los alumnos son los protagonistas del trabajo en el aula. La interacción que se produce en el aula no sólo es la de profesor-grupo. Es fundamental también tener en cuenta la interacción entre el alumno y el profesor y la de los alumnos entre sí. En múltiples ocasiones los estudiantes aprenden más de sus compañeros (del compañero experto) que del propio profesor.” (Santamaría, 2005: 2)

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La sociedad red es una sociedad cuya estructura social está construida en torno a redes de información a partir de las tecnologías de la información. Internet en ese sentido no es simplemente una tecnología; es el medio de comunicación que constituye la forma organizativa de nuestras sociedades; es el corazón de un nuevo paradigma socio técnico que constituye en realidad la base material de nuestras vías y de nuestras formas de relación, de trabajo y de comunicación. El aprovechamiento de las herramientas que nos brinda la Web, plataformas gratuitas y accesibles, resulta una ventaja altamente competitiva para trabajar de forma colaborativa en el aula, favoreciendo la motivación y el interés de los alumnos por su propio aprendizaje. Uno de los retos básicos de la educación actual es preparar a las personas para ser capaces de participar plenamente en una sociedad de la información en que el conocimiento es fuente crítica de desarrollo social y económico (Cornell, 1999). El paradigma que está emergiendo en este nuevo siglo es el del aprendizaje en red basado en la interactividad global, el aprendizaje colaborativo y el acceso a las actividades y recursos educativos (Harasim 2000). El entorno virtual facilita no solo que estos procesos de cooperación se puedan llevar a cabo atendiendo a la vez necesidades individuales de espacio y tiempo, dando respuesta a una forma de aprendizaje más autónoma y más liberada por el propio estudiante.

Los docentes, en la actualidad, se enfrentan con el doble desafío de no sólo tener que saber utilizar las nuevas herramientas y entornos virtuales, sino además sacar el mejor provecho pedagógico de ellas. Si se utilizan como simple depósito de información para que los alumnos tengan a su disposición la información sobre el curso o de un aula en particular, no vemos que se produzca mucha diferencia. No se introduce ninguna innovación pedagógica por el hecho de utilizar el correo electrónico u otro entorno virtual interactivo cualquiera, en vez de los medios clásicos de comunicación. Ahora bien, si aprovechamos los nuevos entornos y dispositivos interactivos para potencializar el diálogo y el trabajo y el aprendizaje colaborativo, podremos lograr lo que siempre soñaron los educadores que defendieron el aprendizaje activo.

Cuando nos referimos al uso de los entornos virtuales y herramientas interactivas utilizados en la Educación, normalmente pensamos en la modalidad a distancia o blended learning. Sin embargo, la modalidad de enseñanza presencial también puede beneficiarse del cambio cualitativo que se puede producir al introducir las TIC's en los procesos de aprendizaje: favorece el trabajo colaborativo, permite compartir las mejores prácticas, permite en definitiva mejorar la comunicación y la interacción.

El entorno virtual facilita que puedan llevar a cabo a la vez necesidades individuales de espacio y tiempo, dando respuesta a una forma de aprendizaje más autónoma y más liberada por el propio estudiante. Es así como los nuevos espacios de aprendizaje electrónico se van abriendo y exigen innovaciones inminentes en el planteamiento pedagógico de las acciones formativas que tenemos hasta estos momentos. Para adquirir los objetivos competenciales de la asignatura, la metodología propuesta es el trabajo por equipo el cual permite a los estudiantes la adquisición gradual de las habilidades y competencias en TIC's. La propuesta del proyecto para formar el entorno y formar las actividades propuestas para adquirir estas habilidades y competencias son las siguientes:

- Formación del grupo de trabajo y establecimiento de los primeros acuerdos
- Identificación de concreción de los temas a trabajar
- Planificación del trabajo del grupo en pro de los proyectos
- Autoevaluación del funcionamiento del grupo

CONSIDERACIONES FINALES

La presentación de la información en los entornos virtuales de aprendizaje debe atender a los principios de usabilidad, accesibilidad y adaptabilidad, como mecanismo para facilitar la visualización de los contenidos didácticos, por lo cual se necesita una serie de elementos que hagan del entorno formativo un escenario atractivo que propicie la permanencia del estudiante en el mismo:

- Organización de la información, Debe facilitar al estudiante visualizar rápidamente todos los contenidos, ofreciendo espacios que despierten la atención y el interés del usuario.
- Legibilidad, Se hace referencia a la claridad con la que se presenta el texto, atendiendo a una serie de principios, tales como el tamaño de la fuente suficientemente grande para que se pueda leer.
- Vinculación, los elementos hipertextuales deben de ser fácilmente reconocibles dentro del escenario formativo.
- Tiempo de respuesta, la presentación a los estudiantes de los contenidos en los entornos debe ser ágil, de tal manera, que no supere los diez segundos ya que el este es el límite de las personas para prestar atención mientras esperan.
- Elementos multimedia (imágenes, fotografías, video, sonido y animaciones); deben acompañar a la información si poseen cierta calidad técnica, evitando recargar la página web con este tipo de elementos, puesto que repercutirá negativamente en los tiempos de respuesta.
- La navegación; los interfaces de navegación deben ayudar a los usuarios a responder sus dudas.
- Accesibilidad, facilitar el acceso a la información a todos los estudiantes, debe de ser nuestro objetivo principal cuando diseñamos nuestra asignaturas. Para ellos debemos efectuar un breve repaso de todos los recursos que ofrecemos, para determinar en qué medida pueden ser empleados por aquellas personas que tienen algún tipo de dificultad.

- Adaptabilidad, este se centra en la adecuación estética de los escenarios de las características de los estudiantes, con el objetivo de ofrecerles un entorno de aprendizaje legible, amigable, fácil manejo que construya positivamente a facilitar su proceso formativo.

Los escenarios formativos deben permitir al usuario tener un dominio absoluto no sólo de los materiales, sino también del entorno formativo. En este sentido, la interacción en la formación de la red, debe propiciar la interrelación entre: Estudiantes, Docentes, Materiales y Entornos. Para ello, debemos ofrecer un sistema de navegación accesible e intuitiva que permita al estudiante interactuar libremente con el entorno y los materiales elaborados y recogidos en este, de tal manera que, se pueda acceder y profundizar en los contenidos de la asignatura con mayor facilidad. Mediante las diferentes herramientas de comunicación, es posible facilitar el intercambio de información y la participación activa, ya que pueden servir para desarrollar diferentes acciones formativas encaminadas a generar un trabajo colaborativo, potenciando con ello, las habilidades socio-afectivas entre los estudiantes (Del Moral y Villalustre, 2003).

Así es como surge la necesidad de adoptar nuevos modos de valorar los aprendizajes adquiridos por los estudiantes, alejados de los métodos de evaluación propios de la enseñanza convencional.

En este sentido autores como Dichy, Segers y Dierick (2002) plantean cinco métodos combinados de evaluación de los aprendizajes:

- 1.- Evaluación por portafolio; una carpeta individual donde cada estudiante va introduciendo aquellos trabajos más representativos de su progreso.
- 2.- Prueba General; se centra en la resolución de problemas, tanto a nivel individual como grupal.
- 3.- Autoevaluación; el estudiante valora el grado de consecución de sus propios aprendizajes.
- 4.- Evaluación de iguales; serán los discentes quienes valoren los conocimientos, actividades y aportaciones de sus compañeros
- 5.- Co- evaluación; la valoración de los aprendizajes adquiridos se realiza conjuntamente entre el docente y los estudiantes.

Las practicas evaluativas deben mantener una coherencia con el resto de elementos del diseño instruccional.

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PROYECCIÓN DEL PERFIL DE VALORES DEL LIC. EN NEGOCIOS INTERNACIONALES

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RESUMEN

En un mundo cambiante y lleno de retos se necesita del profesionista con conocimientos y capacidad para resolver la problemática que se le presente; sin embargo, en el mismo nivel de importancia están los valores con los que esté revestido y en los cuales cimienta sus decisiones. La búsqueda constante de la competitividad y del éxito hace parecer que existe una crisis de valores o que no hay valores. Identificar el perfil de valores del futuro profesionista permitirá a las universidades establecer estrategias que ayuden a formar una consciencia en la toma de las mejores alternativas con responsabilidad, ética, cuidado del medio ambiente, el compromiso y amor por el prójimo. Se aplicó un instrumento al total de la población estudiantil del programa de Licenciatura en Negocios Internacionales, que proporcionó información para establecer estrategias que permitan reforzar los valores de nuestros estudiantes para formar profesionistas que logren transmitir lo aprendido a su entorno familiar y laboral en beneficio de la sociedad.

LOS VALORES EN LOS ESTUDIANTES UNIVERSITARIOS, UN COMPROMISO DE LAS INSTITUCIONES DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR EN MÉXICO .CASO: ALUMNOS DE LA CARRERA DE LICENCIADO EN INFORMÁTICA, FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS ADMINISTRATIVAS

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RESUMEN

Los valores son los principios guías en la vida de las personas, seleccionan y justifican acciones, evalúan a las personas y a los eventos (Knafo A. y Schwartz, 2004). Si los valores son guías, principios y formas de actuar entonces juegan un papel muy importante en la vida del estudiante, en consecuencia el compromiso de las Instituciones de Educación Superior es fomentar los valores en sus estudiantes como una de las responsabilidades más trascendentales, se trata de formar profesionistas comprometidos con la sociedad y dispuestos a dar su mejor esfuerzo para el bienestar común. La Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas menciona en su Misión "formar integralmente a profesionistas altamente competitivos de acuerdo con la orientación humanista y social de la UABC". Con el propósito de conocer el perfil valorar de los estudiantes se realizó este estudio donde se encuestaron a 266 alumnos de la carrera de informática, para conocer que tan identificados con los valores de lealtad, respeto a la autoridad, solidaridad, tolerancia, respeto a las normas, auto exigencia y disciplina. El objetivo de es crear y fomentar acciones que permitan reforzar estos valores entre los alumnos y con ello cumplir con responsabilidad social de formar profesionistas socialmente comprometidos. Valores, Compromiso, Estudiante, Instituciones de Educación Superior

INTRODUCCIÓN

Unas preocupaciones de las Instituciones de Educación Superior no solo el aspecto profesional sino el aspecto valoral se trata de que en las universidades los alumnos no solo adquieran los conocimientos específicos de la actividad profesional que han elegido sino que desarrollen y fortalezcan sus valores como seres humanos. La Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California adopta el modelo de competencias en sus programas de estudios de las carreras de Licenciado en Contaduría, Licenciado Administración de Empresas y Licenciado en Informática a partir del año 2001. El modelo por competencias enfatiza el fortalecimiento de los valores, es decir promueve los valores en todas y cada una de las asignaturas de los diferentes planes de estudio. Puesto que el compromiso de la Universidad con la sociedad no es solo generar profesionistas con capacidades para solucionar los problemas que enfrente la misma. Sino profesionistas comprometidos con la sociedad y seres humanos que transmitan sus valores tanto a su entorno laboral como a su familia, seres cercanos y a la sociedad. La pregunta entonces es ¿Lo estamos haciendo bien?, para responder a esta pregunta es necesario conocer el perfil valoral de nuestros estudiantes y aun más allá sería deseable conocer su perfil

al ingreso y al egreso para medir el impacto en que la universidad como eje transformacional haya tenido en el alumno. La presente investigación tiene como objetivo conocer y describir el perfil valoral de los estudiantes de la carrera de Informática de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, así mismo describir el perfil valoral entre hombres y mujeres. Con el resultado de esta investigación se busca crear estrategias y programas que permitan fortalecer los valores de los estudiantes como parte de su formación integral así como cumplir con la responsabilidad de entregar a la sociedad individuos socialmente comprometidos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Primeramente se tiene que definir que son los valores, de acuerdo con los expertos los valores sirven como principios guías en la vida de las personas, seleccionan y justifican acciones, evalúan a las personas y a los eventos. El aspecto crucial que se distingue entre los valores es el tipo de meta motivacional que ellos expresan (Knafo A. y Schwartz, 2004). Para (Gellermann, Frankel, y Ladernsan, 1990) citado por Hultman, (2005), afirman: “un valor es un estándar de importancia básica sobre las creencias”. Un sistema de valores se encuentra dentro de un orden de valores a lo largo de un continuo de relativa importancia. Los valores juegan un rol ejecutivo en la personalidad y en la cultura organizacional, sirven como criterio para la toma de decisiones y ajustan prioridades. Los valores son para las personas, lo que los instintos son para los animales. Hultman, (2005: 33); “Sin la capacidad para formular y actuar sobre los valores, la vida desde el nivel humano no puede existir”. Si los valores son guías, principios y formas de actuar entonces juegan un papel muy importante en la vida del estudiante, en consecuencia el compromiso de la universidad de fomentar los valores, es uno de los más trascendentales, porque se trata de formar profesionistas comprometidos con la sociedad y dispuestos a dar su mejor esfuerzo para el bienestar común. El modelo por competencias adoptado por la Universidad, promueve los valores en cada una de las asignaturas de los diferentes planes de estudios de tal forma que estos sean parte integral de la formación de nuestros estudiantes.

El Modelo Educativo en la UABC es la base sobre la cual se diseñan y desarrollan sus planes y programas académicos. La finalidad del Modelo Educativo de la UABC es explicar la teoría en que se sustenta el proceso pedagógico de la institución. Este modelo posee un sustento en la educación a lo largo de la vida, un enfoque constructivista, es humanista, tiende a la preservación de los valores universales, valora el esfuerzo, la búsqueda permanente de la excelencia, la comunicación, la participación responsable, el liderazgo fundado en las competencias académicas y profesionales, una actitud emprendedora, creativa e innovadora, la pluralidad, la libertad y el respeto como espacio entre todos sus miembros, parte de la misión institucional, identificando las funciones de docencia, investigación, vinculación, extensión y gestión institucional. Existe una relación muy importante entre el Modelo Educativo y formación de valores entre algunas de las características que son importantes recalcar es que es un modelo que da una educación para toda la vida y al igual que los valores, se trata de que los estudiantes tengan las bases de su formación profesional y su formación como seres humanos y esta prevalezca a lo largo de su vida (Modelo de Competencias, Formación Básica UABC, 2001). El modelo curricular basado en competencias profesionales que actualmente priva en la UABC tiene como propósitos los siguientes:

- a) Centrar el aprendizaje en el alumno
- b) Alcanzar una formación integral del estudiante
- c) Favorecer la interdisciplinar en tránsito hacia la transdisciplinaria
- d) Mantener actualizados y pertinentes los contenidos
- e) Favorecer la movilidad estudiantil
- f) Cerrar brechas entre la universidad y la sociedad

Gracias a este modelo que promueve la formación valoral como tema y eje transversal a los planes de estudio. Se ha logrado cambiar el paradigma de que la educación superior son solo conocimientos

necesarios para realizar alguna actividad profesional como en antaño; y buscar la *formación integral para toda la vida* de los de nuestros estudiantes durante su paso por la universidad. (Modelo de Competencias, Formación Básica UABC, 2001).

METODOLOGÍA

Esta investigación es de carácter descriptivo. Se aplicó un instrumento 40 reactivos en la escala de Likert. Con una escala de 1 Nada, 2 Poco, 3 Regular, 4 Mucho y 5 Muchísimo. A un total de 266 alumnos que cursan la carrera de informática, con un margen de error del 5% y un nivel de confianza del 95%.

Los valores que se evaluarán son: *lealtad, respeto a la autoridad, solidaridad, tolerancia, respeto a las normas, auto exigencia y disciplina*. Instrumento elaborado por Dr. Ignacio Alejandro Mendoza Martínez, Universidad La Salle.

RESULTADOS

De acuerdo a los resultados obtenidos los cuales arrojan que los alumnos encuestados el 34.93% son sexo femenino mientras que el 65.07% son del sexo masculino. La edad de los jóvenes fluctúa entre los 18 y 32 años donde el 55.48% se encuentran entre 18 y 22 años de edad, el 43.84% están entre los 23 y 27 años y solo el .68 entre los 28 y 32 años.

Autoexigencia: Para medir la auto exigencia se cuestionó a los estudiantes, la pregunta, P2 Me esfuerzo por hacer todos mis trabajos escolares de forma excelente, donde el 21.23% indicaron que se esfuerzan muchísimo, el 43.84% contestaron que se esfuerzan mucho, el 32.88% regular y solo el 2.05% poco. De la pregunta: P5 En mis trabajos y tareas sobrepaso las expectativas de mis maestros, solo el .7% indicaron que nada, el 15.8% poco, el 53.4% regular, 27.4% se esfuerzan mucho por sobre pasar la exigencia de los maestros y el 2.7% se esfuerzan muchísimo. Por último de la pregunta P30 Voy más allá de lo esperado en mis actividades escolares, el .7% respondió nada, el 9.09% poco, el 33.66% regular, el 41.96% mucho y solo el 12.59% muchísimo.

Disciplina: Los jóvenes consideran que: P8 La mejor manera de alcanzar los objetivos escolares son con orden y perseverancia, 35.62% contesto muchísimo, el 39.73% mucho, el 21.23% regular y solo 3.42% lo considera poco importante. De la pregunta, Con Disciplina puedo terminar mis tareas y trabajos en forma y tiempo, el 30.14% contesto muchísimo, el 43.15% mucho, el 22.60% regular, el 3.42 poco y solo el .7% considero que no es necesario. Y de la pregunta P37 Soy ordenado en las actividades escolares con el fin de alcanzar rápidamente los objetivos, el 24.48% considera que es muchísimo muy ordenado, el 44.76% contesto mucho, el 25.17% regular y solo el 5.59% poco.

No Integridad: Respecto al anti valor No Integridad se aplicó la pregunta P1 Ante alguna gran oportunidad, puedo hacer a un lado mis principios. El 67.81% indico respondió nada, el 21.92% regular, 7.53% mucho y el 2.74% muchísimo. P4 Ante una propuesta indigna pero conveniente a mis intereses, puedo dejar de tomar en cuenta mis principios, para esta respuesta el 58.9% contestó nada, indicando que no dejarían atrás sus principios, no obstante el 23.29% contesto regular, el 13.70% mucho y el 4.11% muchísimo, afirmando que con ello si dejarían atrás sus principios por una buena oportunidad.

Lealtad: El valor de la Lealtad se midió con la pregunta p16 Muestro fidelidad con los principios y valores que rigen mi universidad, el 26.03% respondió muchísimo, el 28.08% regular, mucho contestaron un total de 40.41%. La siguiente pregunta de este valor es p25 La facultad donde estudio cuenta con toda mi lealtad. El 37.67 respondió muchísimo, el 38.36% mucho, el 20.55% regular, el 2.74% contesto poco y solo .7% nada.

Respeto a la autoridad: Para evaluar el respeto a la autoridad se pregunto a los estudiantes P9 Considero importantes las indicaciones de mis maestros en mi actividad académica, de los cuales el 34.93% contesto

muchísimo, el 44.52 mucho, 19.86% regular y solo .68% respondió poco. P26 En mi actuación escolar reconozco como importantes las tareas asignadas por mis maestros, donde el 50.35% respondió mucho, el 17.48% muchísimo, el 30.07% regular y el 2.10% poco.

Solidaridad: Para el valor de la solidaridad se cuestiono a los alumnos con las siguientes preguntas, P7 Soy solidario para apoyar a otros con sus necesidades por medio de las brigadas que realiza la FCA, el 11.64% se considera muy solidario, el 27.40% solidario, 41.78 regularmente solidario, 14.38% poco solidario y 4.78% nada solidario. P32 Estoy comprometido con los acuerdos y compromisos establecidos por la UABC, 20.28% contesto que está muchísimo muy comprometido, el 39.86% está muy comprometido, el 34.97% regularmente comprometido, el 3.50% poco comprometido y el 1.4% no está nada comprometido.

Tolerancia: Las preguntas 11, 21 y 22 se aplicaron para medir el valor de la tolerancia. Donde p11 Incluso cuando no estoy de acuerdo, respeto lo que otros piensan, el 39.73% respondió muchísimo, 36.30% mucho, el 21.23% regular y solo el 2.74% mostro poca tolerancia. P21 Cuando desarrollo proyectos con distintas personas, acepto otras formas de pensar, el 37.67% respondió muchísimo, el 42.47% mucho y el 18.49% regular y solo 1.37% contesto poco. Y P22 Soy capaz de entender a los demás aún cuando no comparta la misma idea, el 35.62% respondió muchísimo, el 41.10 mucho, el 19.18% regular, el 2.74% poco y nada el 1.4%.

Respeto a las normas: Sobre el respeto a las normas se cuestionó con P39 Es importante seguir las normas y lineamientos de la que universidad estipula el 30.77% respondió muchísimo, el 39.16% mucho, el 25.87% regular, poco el 3.50% y nada .7%. Y P29 Actuó bajo los lineamientos de la FCA establecidos para el bien común, 16.78% contestó muchísimo, el 43.36% mucho, el 35.66% regular y solo el 4.20% poco.

CONCLUSIONES

Con estos resultados podemos identificar el más de la mitad de los estudiantes se esfuerzan mucho por presentar sus trabajos de forma adecuada aunque solo un 14% de la muestra se exigen más allá de las expectativas de sus maestros y de lo esperado. Un valor que los jóvenes tienen fuertemente arraigado es el valor de la solidaridad, al menos un 65% de los alumnos tienen un compromiso social de solidaridad, sin embargo se espera que el 100% de los alumnos adquiera este compromiso para apoyar a los más desfavorecidos y habrá que trabajar con ese 35% que no está comprometido totalmente. También se pudo observar que los estudiantes comprenden y manejan el valor de la tolerancia más del 70% son capaces de aceptar otras ideas que no sean las propias. Además del 60% de los jóvenes consideran que la disciplina es un factor clave para alcanzar sus objetivos pero solo 25% de ellos son muy disciplinados y el 45% medianamente disciplinados. Un aspecto que sin duda es un foco de atención que más del 30% de los estudiantes dejaría sus principios a un lado por obtener un beneficio, ya que muchos de los delitos inician con una primera vez y después se vuelve costumbre. Del valor de respeto a las normas más del 60% se siente identificado con el respecto a las normas como un bien común.

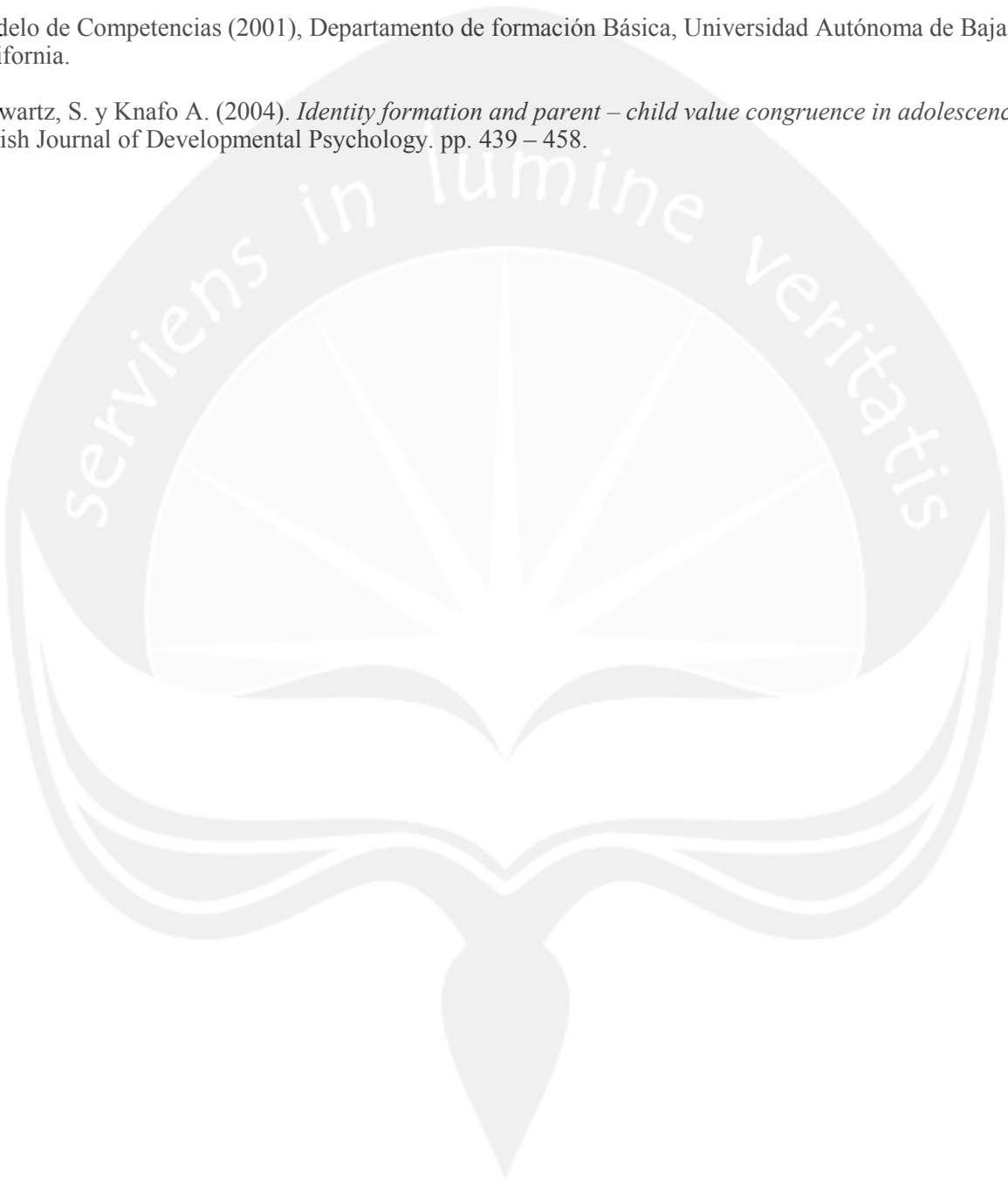
El 96% de los jóvenes realmente tienen un gran sentido de lealtad respecto de su universidad y facultad. Cabe mencionar que más del 78% de los jóvenes tienen respecto a la autoridad en la figura de sus maestros. Los valores son esenciales para una buena convivencia, la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas tiene el compromiso de fomentarlos en los jóvenes, los resultados de este estudio nos obligan a darle seguimiento y a fomentar los valores débiles y evaluar otros valores esenciales para un profesionista comprometido con la sociedad.

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SEGUIMIENTO A LOS EGRESADOS, FUNCIÓN SUSTANTIVA DE LAS DEMANDAS DE UN MERCADO LABORAL

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RESUMEN

El seguimiento a egresados, es de creciente interés por parte de las Instituciones de Educación Superior, la Secretaría de Educación Pública y la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior. Los principales aspectos que buscan conocer son: primeramente el nivel de inserción de egresados en el mercado laboral, enseguida el desempeño profesional de egresados y por último la opinión de estos respecto de la formación recibida y su utilidad en los espacios laborales. La Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas de la UABC, cuenta con sus programas de estudios acreditados, ésta exige la evaluación de los mismos, donde la forma de evaluarlos es a través de sus egresados y la opinión de estos. El presente estudio tiene como propósito indagar respecto de las trayectorias laborales, y las expectativas de nuestros egresados; se aplicó encuesta a los egresados titulados de las carreras: Informática y Negocios Internacionales en los periodos 2008 al 2010, recabando información que permitirá evaluar el plan de estudios, conocer si los egresados realmente ejercen su profesión, así como identificar las necesidades reales del mercado laboral, y por su puesto mantener contacto con ellos y establecer un vínculo entre el sector laboral y la universidad.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La Universidad Autónoma de Baja California al formar profesionales en todos y cada uno de sus diversos planteles, pretende responder a las diversas necesidades que los ámbitos empresariales, gubernamentales, políticos y de servicios de nuestro país requiere actualmente; Esta formación se encuentra directamente ligada a las actividades económico-social de la población, lo que conlleva a una educación profesional integral en constante movimiento y actualización tecnológica, científica y por supuesto con calidad humana; la Universidad en la búsqueda constante de apoyar e ir de la mano con la evolución del entorno mundial, ha realizado diversas adecuaciones en sus planes de estudio, donde no solo alimenta una formación humanista y crítica, sino también busca proporcionarles las herramientas tecnológicas y los conocimientos científicos mas actualizados que posibilite e impulse el desarrollo y evolución del profesionista, permitiéndoles obtener una visión mas real y clara del futuro laboral en el que participaran y que será el requerido para el desarrollo nacional.

El desarrollo de las habilidades estudiantiles, encuentran en el Plan de Desarrollo Institucional del 2003-2006 un sustento de existencia, es decir, la curricula profesional conformada por materias inherentes al perfil profesional se ven enriquecidas por conceptos humanísticos, sociológicos y filosóficos que aportan al alumno una preparación integral como profesional y como ser humano, esta modalidad que no es nueva, pero si innovadora en su aplicación ayuda a los jóvenes recién titulados a sentirse fortalecidos en

actitud, así como en la conjugación de sus conocimientos teórico-prácticos, mismos que los apoyaran en la integración laboral dentro y fuera de la comunidad a la que pertenecen.

Los sistemas de educación superior, reconocen las competencia desarrolladas por los alumnos que se encuentran en su formación profesional, actualmente la movilidad estudiantil que promueven las Universidades acreditadas, proveen a los estudiantes la posibilidad de ampliar su visión académica, laboral y social, La Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Institutos de Educación Superior (ANUIES) a partir del año de 1972, recomienda a la acreditación para estas Instituciones, logrando con esto beneficiar la educación de su alumnado.

La Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas (FCA), campus Mexicali, cuenta ya con la acreditación de las carreras analizadas en este estudio; Este logro, compromete a nuestros egresados y titulados a impactar en su desempeño profesional, existe la idea de que el gran número de profesionales dedicados a la Informática o a la administración de negocios no encuentran espacios laborales relacionados con su preparación profesional, este mito, podrá ser sustentado o bien desechado mediante este análisis. Esta información de trayectoria laboral egresados titulados otorgara la posibilidad de comparar el perfil de egreso de las Licenciaturas en Informática y Negocios Internacionales con las necesidades reales que viven los profesionales del ramo. Al mismo tiempo se pretende identificar el nivel de inserción de los egresados titulados de estas carreras, describir la opinión de estos respecto de la formación recibida y su utilidad en los espacios laborales. Con el resultado de esta investigación se busca “construir un plan de acción que exponga la importancia de coadyuvar los perfiles de los planes de estudio” y mantener un vínculo entre los egresados, el sector laboral y la universidad.

Planteamiento del Problema: La actividad desempeñada en el medio laboral, por los alumnos titulados de las licenciaturas en Informática y Negocios Internacionales, corresponde a la planeación del perfil de egreso académico de su área profesional.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La Educación Superior en México desarrolla planes de estudio encaminados a la preparación profesional de sus alumnos al concluir sus estudios y a la integración de estos en el mercado laboral de su competencia. “Debemos recordar que toda Institución de Educación Superior debe cumplir tres funciones fundamentales: de Input o entrada, de producción y de output o salida. (Ruiz Iglesias, Magalys, pg.16), enfocando mayor atención en el nivel de salida. Este nivel se concreta en la declaración de la Misión de cada Institución de Educación Superior; Misión que justifica la existencia en la sociedad de instituciones de esta envergadura.

Una Institución de Educación Superior inician la planeación de sus programas de estudio al relacionar las necesidades de su entorno con la preparación requerida para la solución de estas, sin embargo, los alumnos que participan en las comunidades universitarias ya cuentan, como individuos, con su esencia natural, inquietudes, anhelos, aspiraciones, habilidades, preparaciones previas, etc., mismas que deberá ser consideradas para concretar con éxito su formación profesional. "No podemos confundir el modelo de sociedad con el concepto de hombre. Del modelo social, surge un programa universitario, pero el concepto de hombre arranca la primera función de la universidad" (Llano Cifuentes, Carlos, 1994).

Luego entonces, entenderemos como currículo a la planificación, construcción o proceso que se ejecuta como contenidos que deben ser enseñados y aprendidos en un determinado curso. El curriculum se entiende como un “proyecto sistematizado de formación y un proceso de realización a través de una serie estructurada y ordenada de contenidos y experiencias de aprendizaje articulados en forma de propuesta

político educativa que propugnan diversos sectores sociales interesados en un tipo de educación particular con la finalidad de producir aprendizajes significativos que se traduzcan en formas de pensar, de sentir, valorar y actuar frente a los problemas complejos que plantea la vida social y laboral, en particular la inserción en un país determinado”. (González, 1995).

En este concepto se aprecia su enfoque globalizador, en tanto considera al currículo como proyecto y como proceso. Como un proyecto de formación educativo integral, concebido científicamente, que se articula coherentemente con un proceso de realización que responde a las necesidades reales del profesional y del medio laboral. El Currículum se define como; “el proyecto que determina los objetivos de la educación escolar, es decir, los aspectos del desarrollo y de la incorporación a la cultura que la escuela trata de promover y propone un plan de acción educativo para la consecución de esos objetivos” (DCB, pag.21).

"Las competencias profesionales definen el ejercicio eficaz de las capacidades que permiten el desempeño de una ocupación, respecto a los niveles requeridos en el empleo. Es algo más que el conocimiento técnico que hace referencia al saber y al saber hacer. El concepto de competencia engloba no solo las capacidades requeridas para el ejercicio de una actividad profesional, sino también un conjunto de comportamientos, facultad de análisis, toma de decisiones, transmisión de información, etc., considerados necesarios para el pleno desempeño de la ocupación". "La competencia profesional es la construcción social de aprendizajes significativos y esenciales para el desempeño productivo en una situación real de trabajo" (Ruiz, pag.46).

“La educación debe contribuir al desarrollo integral del ser humano y, por ello, la Universidad, como centro del conocimiento, debe otorgar la debida importancia a la investigación e innovación tecnológica para contribuir, en la medida de sus posibilidades, al proceso de la ciencia y la tecnología, propiciando mediante la función de extensión la posible cooperación para contribuir al crecimiento de la pequeña y mediana industria, como una opción adicional al desarrollo” (Dillon, 2000).

En el Siglo XXI ya no es suficiente con culminar un ciclo educativo en el que solamente se adquieren conocimientos de las disciplinas tradicionales, y menos aún si se abusa de la memorización de conceptos e información que a lo largo del tiempo se desvanecen. En el México de hoy, es indispensable que los jóvenes egresen con una serie de competencias que contribuyan a desarrollar su capacidad de desplegar su potencial, tanto para su desarrollo personal como para el de la sociedad. (SEMS, SEP 2008).

“Hay una gran distancia entre ese joven que está saliendo de la universidad y las exigencias que debe cumplir cuando va a las empresas, al proceso de trabajo”. Esto refleja claramente la situación que están viviendo los egresados de las instituciones universitarias dentro del mundo laboral, quienes constatan la existencia de un gran trecho entre un título, el aprendizaje verdadero y el desempeño laboral. (De López 2001).

METODOLOGÍA

Se aplicó un instrumento de medición de 54 reactivos a los egresados de las carreras de Licenciado en Informática y Licenciado en Negocios Internacionales mediante una investigación transversal que abarcara el periodo del 2008-1 al 2010-1. Para la aplicación de la encuesta se tomo el padrón oficial de egresados y se selecciono a los alumnos titulados de cada generación. Se aplicaron 37 para los Licenciados en Negocios y 46 encuestas para los egresados de la carrera de Licenciado en Informática.

Para realizar en análisis estadístico se utilizó el programa SPSS, donde se crearon una base de datos y se procedió a capturar las encuestas y se generaron las gráficas. Una vez que se generaron las gráficas se realizó el análisis de las mismas y las conclusiones de la investigación.

RESULTADOS

Como resultado de nuestra muestra podemos observar que el 85% son del sexo femenino, encontrándose que el 100% de la muestra se encuentran laborando desde su egreso y ejecutando su profesión; el 80% son empleados y el 20% son propietarios independientes de sus propios negocios.

El 45% tiene de antigüedad de 2 a 4 años en su espacio laboral, mientras el 55% de 2 años hasta 6 meses.

El sector económico o industrial en el cual se encontraron incrustados laborando es mayormente Comercial, de Industria y Ganadería, así como Bancaria, desempeñando el 50% actividades administrativas o de ventas, mientras el 45% se encuentra realizando asesorías especializadas o técnicas, capacitación o desarrollo de productos. La mayor parte (70%) ha obtenido su empleo por medio de recomendaciones familiares de amigos o en bolsas de trabajo, el 15% derivados de los espacios donde realizaron prácticas profesionales o estancias de aprendizaje y 13% tiene su negocio propio.

Es importante mencionar que el 55% señala que su actividad laboral coincide solo mediatamente con sus estudios de licenciatura; el 60% refiere que el contenido de su carrera fue insuficiente para darle una formación básica y un 95% coincide en que el haber realizado en su proceso académico las Prácticas Profesionales y las estancias de aprendizaje, contribuyeron en gran medida a su formación profesional.

Finalmente sugieren que dentro del proceso enseñanza –aprendizaje, debería aumentar el uso de material audiovisual de apoyo, así como los tiempos estipulados para realizar sus Prácticas profesionales y estancias de aprendizaje, así como disminuir las horas de teoría y pizarrón.

Por otro lado consideran que las áreas en que deben mejorar la carrera de LNI es en las aportaciones teórico-prácticas, que se generen especialmente en las materias de:

Legislación Aduanera, Interacción en empresas y empresarios, Proyecto del SAP y SPSS, Comercio y Procesos de negocios; dándole así el 4to. lugar a las áreas financieras y de logística, administración de proyectos, técnicas de negociación, simulador de negocios y materias en otro idioma y proponiendo como 5to. y 6to. lugar las áreas de programas en la industria, entorno económico y formas de pago internacional.

Respecto de los alumnos egresados titulados de la carrera Informática entrevistados el 61.54% es hombre, mientras que 38.46% son mujeres, de los cuales 2.56% viven en unión libre, 12.82 son casados y 84.62% son solteros.

Esta encuesta arrojó que el 100% de los entrevistados al igual que los egresados de los LI se encuentran laborando. El 76.92% es empleado, 15.38% es propietario mientras que el 7.69% es trabajador independiente. Mismos que indican que el 38.46 trabajan en el sector público mientras que el 6.54% trabajan en el sector privado. Cabe mencionar que de la forma que obtuvieron el trabajo fue gracias a su participación en los programas de estancias de aprendizaje, por recomendación cuando realizaron su servicio social profesional, por las relaciones de empleos anteriores, recomendación de compañeros de la generación y por bolsa de trabajo.

No obstante la coincidencia de su trabajo con su formación profesional, el 48.72% tiene coincidencia total con su trabajo, el 28.21% tiene mediana coincidencia, con baja coincidencia es el 15.38% y nula coincidencia el 7.69%. En las aéreas que se desempeñan son: analistas, maestros, programación, supervisión, soporte técnico, supervisión que son los relacionados con la carrera mientras que los no relacionados están subgerente de área, ejecutivo de cuentas, planeación y coordinador de área.

El 94.87% coincidió que las prácticas profesionales y el servicio social apoyo consideran que si contribuyeron en su formación profesional, mientras que solo el 5.13% consideran que no contribuyeron. También indicaron que debe haber aumentar los proyectos de investigación y prácticas dentro de la carrera con un 87.18% de los encuestados, en tanto que el 12.82% consideran que deben seguir igual. Con respecto al apoyo audiovisual el 84.52% sugieren que aumente y que el 15.38% consideran que debe seguir igual. Con referente al contenido teórico de las materias el 15.38% considera que debe aumentar, el 41.03% que debe seguir igual mientras que el 43.59% debe disminuir.

CONCLUSIONES

La muestra de jóvenes titulados de la carrera de LNI y LI, nos indica que se sitúan laboralmente en tiempos cortos después de titularse. Los egresados de LNI se encuentran laborando en alguna institución comercial, industria ó ganadera, mientras que los alumnos de LI, se encuentran laborando en espacios del sector público, despachos de servicios de redes y comunicaciones, empresas maquiladoras entre otros. Respecto la forma de obtener su empleo la mayoría de los egresados de LNI y LI, expresaron que fue por recomendación. Los LNI se encuentran desempeñándose en actividades administrativas y de ventas, seguidas por las de asesorías especializadas o técnicas, por otro lado los egresados de la carrera de LI desempeñan actividades de soporte técnico, instalación de equipo, análisis, desarrollo, empleado diseño y docencia.

La mayor de los egresados de LNI manifiesta que solo medianamente su actividad laboral coincide en sus estudios de licenciatura, en por lo contrario los LI consideran que tiene mediana y gran coincidencia con su actividad laboral, no obstante los egresados de ambas carreras expresaron que el contenido de su formación básica no logra ser suficiente, mientras que la parte práctica de su proceso académico donde se ensamblan las prácticas profesionales y las estancias de aprendizaje son muy valiosos para su formación profesional.

Sugieren aumentar en el plan de estudios la utilización actualizada de los medios audiovisuales de aprendizaje, primordialmente y en estos tiempos apegada a la realidad laboral, así como aumentar los espacios de tiempo a realizar de prácticas profesionales y estancias de aprendizaje, mismos que les permite incurrir en lo que será su espacio laboral al concluir sus estudios y les otorga una mayor confianza y seguridad al entrar en él.

Los egresados de LNI, proponen una mejora en contenido y actualización de algunas materias de su plan de estudios como son: Legislación Aduanera, Interacción en empresas y empresarios, Proyecto del SAP y SPSS, Comercio y Procesos de negocios; de igual forma las áreas financieras y de logística, administración de proyectos, técnicas de negociación, simulador de negocios y materias en otro idioma. Por su parte los egresados de la carrera de LI siguieron que se deben incluir en las materias para mejorar el plan de estudios las Certificaciones ISO, Administración Gerencial, Certificación Cisco, Dueño Web, Mercadotecnia, Redes, Comunicaciones, Moprosoft y docencia.

Con estos resultados se cuenta con elementos para hacer las adecuaciones necesarias en los planes de estudios y así contribuir fundamentalmente a formar y preparar a nuestros estudiantes para el entorno laboral actual en el cual incurran, de manera tal que les permita ser más competitivos y útiles a la sociedad. Además también se adquiere la responsabilidad de dar seguimiento a los egresados gracias a los datos recabados para poder ofértales los espacios para que sigan capacitándose. Sin duda los egresados siguen siendo responsabilidad de las instituciones de educación superior y son una rica fuente de información, vinculación y aportación para enriquecer los planes de estudios que ofertan las universidades.

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EVALUACIÓN DEL MEJORAMIENTO DE LOS INDICADORES FINANCIEROS EN LAS EMPRESAS DEL SECTOR CARBÓN Y SUS DERIVADOS EN COLOMBIA

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RESUMEN

En este artículo se presentan los resultados obtenidos durante el desarrollo del proyecto de Investigación, aplicación del análisis discriminante para evaluar el mejoramiento de los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia, en el que se realizó inicialmente una descripción detallada de la evaluación de los sistemas organizacionales, la evaluación de los indicadores financieros, los indicadores de liquidez, indicadores de actividad e indicadores de endeudamiento. El concepto de análisis discriminante en la evaluación del impacto de los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados a nivel nacional. Lo que permitió a través de una perspectiva cualitativa, descriptiva propositiva y cuantitativa analizar los indicadores que mejor discriminan como resultado de la evaluación de los indicadores seleccionados en los años 2004 y 2009. De la función discriminante obtenida y de los estadísticos analizados se puede concluir que los indicadores de Razón corriente y Razón líquida mejoran de un periodo a otro.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Análisis discriminante, indicador, liquidez, actividad, endeudamiento.

JEL: G17, M10

ABSTRACT

This article presents the results obtained during the research project development, application of discriminant analysis to evaluate the improvement of financial indicators in the coal companies and their derivatives in Colombia, which was initially a detailed description of evaluation of organizational systems, assessment of financial indicators, indicators of liquidity, activity indicators and debt indicators. The concept of discriminant analysis in evaluating the impact of financial indicators in the coal companies and their products nationwide. What allowed through a qualitative perspective, proactive and quantitative descriptive analysis of the indicators that best discriminated as a result of the evaluation of the indicators in 2004 and 2009. Discriminant function obtained and analyzed statistical indicators can be concluded that the current ratio and liquid ratio improved from one period to another

KEYWORDS: Discriminant analysis, indicator, liquidity, activity, debt.

JEL: G17, M10

INTRODUCCIÓN

En este artículo se presenta la definición y conceptualización de los sistemas organizacionales, la evaluación de los indicadores financieros, los criterios para la aplicación del análisis discriminante en la

evaluación del impacto de los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector carbón y su derivado en Colombia a través de la utilización de la técnica análisis discriminante. Para lo cual se seleccionaron los indicadores financieros tomando como referencia los años 2004 y 2009, comprobando si mejoran significativamente de un periodo a otro.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Para el desarrollo de este artículo de Investigación se trabajó con los referentes conceptuales asociados con Evaluación de Sistemas Organizacionales, evaluación de los indicadores financieros, indicadores de liquidez, indicadores de actividad e indicadores de endeudamiento. Los criterios para la aplicación del análisis discriminante en la evaluación del impacto de los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia y el análisis discriminante para evaluar el mejoramiento de los indicadores financieros.

Evaluación De Sistemas Organizacionales

La Evaluación de organizaciones supone un cuerpo de conocimientos teóricos y metodológicos, así como un conjunto de habilidades aplicadas. Para esta Investigación este cuerpo de conocimientos los constituye los fundamentos de Análisis Discriminante Multivariado (ADM), que permite analizar cómo se afectan los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia, en la evaluación de los indicadores seleccionados. Asimismo evaluación significa estimar la magnitud de un hecho, proceso o servicio, en el cual el análisis debe enfocarse hacia el estudio cuidadoso que animan a los involucrados en la situación problemática, a la evaluación de las variables controlables (internas al sistema), a la evaluación de las variables incontrolables (ambiente), al estudio de las interrelaciones entre variables y la superación de los límites del sistema en la empresa, en el proceso de la evaluación del mejoramiento de los indicadores financieros. (Martínez, 2002; Fernández, 2008).

Indicadores De Liquidez

Ortiz (2011, pp. 118), “señala que los indicadores de liquidez surgen de la necesidad de medir la capacidad que tienen las empresas para cancelar sus obligaciones a corto plazo. Sirven para establecer la facilidad o dificultad que presenta una compañía para pagar sus pasivos corrientes con el producto de convertir a efectivo sus activos corrientes”. Se trata de determinar qué pasaría si a la empresa se le exigiera el pago inmediato de todas sus obligaciones a menos de un año.

Razón Corriente: La razón corriente es uno de los indicadores financieros que nos permite determinar el índice de liquidez de una empresa. La razón corriente indica la capacidad que tiene la empresa para cumplir con sus obligaciones financieras, deudas o pasivos a corto plazo.

Razón de liquidez: Las razones de liquidez le señalan la capacidad de una empresa para cumplir con sus obligaciones financieras, incluyendo deudas, nominas de sueldos, pagos a proveedores. Etc.

Indicadores de actividad: Estos indicadores, llamados también indicadores de rotación, tratan de medir la eficiencia con la cual una empresa utiliza sus activos, según la velocidad de recuperación de los valores aplicados en ellos. Se pretende imprimirle un sentido dinámico al análisis de la aplicación de recursos, mediante la comparación entre cuentas de balance (estáticas) y cuentas de resultado (dinámicas).

Rotación de activos: La relación de rotación de activos está diseñada para medir la efectividad con la que una compañía maneja sus activos. Una empresa enfrenta decisiones fundamentales respecto a cuánto debe invertir en los activos como sus cuentas por cobrar, inventarios y activos fijos, y luego tiene la responsabilidad de usar de manera efectiva dichos activos.

Indicadores De Endeudamiento

Los indicadores de endeudamiento tienen por objeto medir en qué grado y de qué forma participan los acreedores dentro del financiamiento de la empresa. De la misma manera se trata de establecer el riesgo que corren tales acreedores, el riesgo de los dueños y la conveniencia o inconveniencia de un determinado nivel de endeudamiento para la empresa.

Apalancamiento A Largo Plazo

El apalancamiento a largo plazo indica la participación que tienen los pasivos no corrientes dentro del patrimonio de la empresa.

METODOLOGÍA

Esta es un trabajo de Investigación, en donde se utilizó un análisis cualitativo, descriptivo propositivo y cuantitativo, soportada en un Análisis Discriminante Multivariado (ADM). para contrastar si en dos periodos distintos se puede evidenciar la evolución de los estados financieros como resultado de la Gestión financiera, para lo que se estudiaron los rubros requeridos de los estados financieros de las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia. (Vuran, 2009). Asimismo, se tomó como fuentes de información la Superintendencia de sociedades de Colombia y las Cámaras de Comercio de Colombia, Características de las empresas y estados financieros de las empresas que los proyectaron. De donde se tomaron los diferentes rubros de los estados financieros de las organizaciones objeto de estudio. La población de esta Investigación está conformada por 14 empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia en los últimos cinco años, comprendido entre el segundo semestre del 2004 al primer semestre del 2009.

RESULTADOS

A continuación se estructura y propone el modelo para evaluar si existe mejoramiento de los indicadores financieros en las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia, en los años 2004 y 2009. A través de los indicadores de liquidez, actividad y endeudamiento determinando si los cambios que sufren son significativos de un año a otro. Y si los indicadores discriminan. La tabla 1 muestra las variables e indicadores utilizados para evaluar el mejoramiento de los indicadores financieros en las empresas sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia.

Tabla 1: Variable e indicadores utilizados para realizar el análisis de discriminante

Variable	Indicador
RC	Razón Corriente
RL	Razon de liquidez
RA	Rotación de activos
ALP	Apalancamiento largo plazo

Esta tabla muestra la relación de variables e indicadores para realizar el análisis discriminante en el sector Carbón y sus derivados a nivel nacional.

Selección De Las Variables Que Mejor Discriminan

Para determinar que variables independientemente discriminan mejor en el periodo seleccionado de “2004” y “2009” se estima la distancia D^2 de Mahalanobis y el *Lambda Wilks* para cada una de ellas, su correspondiente razón F y nivel de significancia para rechazar la hipótesis nula que las observaciones provienen de la misma población. Se va a considerar un nivel de significación de 0,05 para los estadísticos *F para entrar* y *F para eliminar*. Como se mencionó anteriormente el criterio de selección de las variables es el de la distancia D^2 de Mahalanobis, las variables que mejor discriminan en la evaluación de la gestión financiera de las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados en Colombia, son PA, RL, RA, APL (Razón corriente, razón de liquidez, rotación de activos, apalancamiento a largo plazo). Constituyendo está la función discriminante, el resultado final del modelo se muestra en la Ecuación siguiente.

$$Z = RC (0,394) + RL (1,321) + RA (-0,147) + ALP (-0,013) \quad (1)$$

La capacidad de clasificación del modelo fue buena dando como resultado un error Tipo I de 35,7 % y un error Tipo II de 28,6 % para una efectividad de clasificación de 67,9 %, se muestra en la Tabla 6.

Tabla 6: Resultados de la clasificación

		AÑO	Grupo de pertenencia pronosticado		Total
Original	Recuento		2004	2004	
		2004	9	5	14
	%	2009	4	10	14
		2004	64,3	35,7	100
		2009	28,6	71,4	100

La tabla muestra el resultado de la clasificación del modelo para los años 2004 y 2009 de las empresas del sector Carbón y sus derivados a nivel nacional

CONCLUSIÓN

En esta investigación se elaboró un modelo para establecer como mejoraron los indicadores financieros en los años 2004 y 2009 a través de los indicadores seleccionados. La precisión de clasificación del modelo es de 64,3% y del 71,4% para las empresas antes y después de la evaluación de los indicadores financieros mientras que presenta un 67,9 % promedio de clasificación correcta para los dos años analizados. Se pudo evidenciar que efectivamente los indicadores de Razón corriente (RC) y Razón de Liquidez (RL) mejoraron significativamente de un periodo a otro (2004 a 2009), lo que no ocurrió para los indicadores de Rotación de activos y Apalancamiento de largo Plazo. De igual forma la investigación permitió establecer una función objetivo para el sector Carbón en Colombia, con lo que se puede estudiar y analizar que indicadores discriminan mejor y así poder tomar acciones a futuro.

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PROYECTO DE MERCADOTECNIA TURÍSTICA PARA LA CREACIÓN DE UN AERÓDROMO DEPORTIVO EN LA REGIÓN VITIVINÍCOLA EN BAJA CALIFORNIA, MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

En la región comprendida por los municipios de Tijuana, Rosarito y Ensenada Baja California México, se han realizado varios intentos por contar con instalaciones en donde se pueda practicar la aviación ultraligera como deporte de aventura, estos han sido incipientes y sin una metodología fundamentada que permitan su desarrollo y crecimiento. Aunado a la falta de un estudio serio sobre el tema, se encuentra el aspecto de inseguridad y narcotráfico en la región que por su cercanía con los Estados Unidos de Norteamérica, ha propiciado un incremento en el uso de aeronaves y pistas clandestinas para el contrabando de drogas hacia ese país.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La presente investigación busca crear un instrumento que permita valorar la factibilidad para la creación de un aeródromo deportivo en una de las zonas turísticas de mayor relevancia como lo es la ruta del vino en el Valle de Guadalupe, en el Municipio de Ensenada, Baja California.

Las ventajas geográficas del Valle de Guadalupe derivan en el sentido de contar con un suelo propicio para la construcción de un aeródromo y a su vez contar con una protección natural contra las corrientes de viento provenientes de la costa del océano pacífico. Otra ventaja que tiene la zona es ser uno de los puntos turísticos más reconocidos en Baja California, ideal para la práctica de turismo de aventura y su alto flujo de turistas nacionales y extranjeros.

METODOLOGÍA

El mercado de los usuarios de aviones ultraligeros se estima en veinte y tres aviones ultraligeros localizados en los Municipios de Rosarito, Tijuana, Norte de Ensenada, Mexicali y San Felipe al sur de la frontera. Al norte de la frontera el mercado de aviones se estima en sesenta aviones ultraligeros y experimentales ubicados en los aeropuertos de Brown Field y Nichols Field. Existe un padrón de aproximadamente veinte y cinco a treinta pilotos de aviones ultraligeros al sur de la frontera y entre sesenta y setenta en el condado de San Diego y sus alrededores, quienes actualmente pagan entre ochocientos pesos y dos mil pesos mensuales por conceptos de renta de hangar, servicio de mantenimiento de nave y uso de pista.

Los ingresos por concepto de uso de pista, renta de hangar, reparación y feria anual de aviación deportiva, son muy significativos y justifica por tanto la creación de un espacio que atienda la demanda de ese mercado aeronáutico.

Como competencia directa, se encuentra en San Felipe, identificado como Aerodinamic de México, S. A. de C. V. en donde actualmente se encuentran volando dos aviones ultraligeros; asimismo y como competencia indirecta, se encuentra un grupo de pilotos aficionados de este deporte que se encuentran volando de manera no reglamentada en la región costera entre los municipios de Rosarito y Ensenada; asimismo, se encuentra el aeródromo privado de Nichols en Otay Lake, en donde existen algunos aviones ultraligeros volando, sin embargo, también se cuentan con restricciones para operación y vuelo de aeronaves ultraligeras.

CONCLUSIÓN

Si bien en la región existen instalaciones que brindan servicios aeroportuarios, de resguardo de aeronaves y reparación de las mismas, estos no se encuentran enfocados al sector de mercado perteneciente a la aviación deportiva del tipo ultraligero, por lo que la investigación muestra estrategias de mercadotecnia que sirvan de apoyo para determinar la viabilidad del proyecto.

Actualmente el organismo encargado de emitir permisos de operación para aeródromos privados es la Secretaría de Comunicaciones y Transportes, y tiene autorizados en el estado de Baja California, México únicamente nueve aeródromos, de los cuales ninguno se encuentra operando para la práctica de la aviación deportiva en la región

El hablar del Valle de Guadalupe en Ensenada Baja California, es hablar de una zona con gran potencial para el turismo por su geografía y su tradición vitivinícola, motivo por el cual puede ser acondicionado un aeródromo privado que proporcione servicios a la aviación deportiva en específico del tipo ultraligero.

En México existe un creciente interés por el turismo de aventura, por lo que instalaciones bien acondicionadas y en regla para la práctica de aviación deportiva, complementaría de manera adecuada la oferta turística de la región. Respecto a la región, existen algunos intentos por parte de pilotos y aficionados a la aviación deportiva por establecer instalaciones que permitan la práctica de este deporte en la región, específicamente en el área cercana a Rosarito, Baja California; sin embargo, estos no han sido formalmente establecidos ni cuentan con instalaciones y permisos adecuados para su operación.

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PLAN DE MERCADOTECNIA PARA DIVERSIFICACIÓN DE MERCADOS EN SERVICIOS LEGALES AMBIENTALES

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RESUMEN

El presente estudio de caso tiene por objeto la realización de un plan de mercadotecnia para diversificar la prestación de servicios legales que actualmente se ofertan, hacia otro sector del derecho. Se analiza la viabilidad para ofrecer servicios legales en materia de derecho ambiental; diversificación que va dirigida hacia un mercado meta previamente seleccionado por el Corporativo, el cual pertenece al sector electrónico de maquiladora. Dentro del presente estudio de caso, se identifican las necesidades propias de dicho mercado, tanto para la prestación de servicios legales en materia de derecho ambiental, como para identificar y determinar las características y variables que hacen al mercado meta seleccionar un determinado prestador de servicios legales ambientales.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En la actualidad las empresas en general enfrentan un ambiente altamente competitivo, lo que las ha obligado a estar mejor preparadas. Debido a ese ambiente cambiante y competitivo, además de asegurar una supervivencia dentro del mercado, es que surge la necesidad imperiosa de desarrollar planes y estrategias que contribuyan a mejorar, prever y superar los diferentes factores que pudieran generar situaciones adversas en la negociación y sus planes futuros.

Por otro lado, la situación económica por la que atraviesa México, obliga a que las empresas hagan un gasto inteligente de sus recursos financieros, materiales y humanos, aprovechando para ello las oportunidades y ventajas competitivas disponibles a su alcance. Precisamente por este motivo y en virtud de que la empresa se beneficia al conocer sus ventajas y oportunidades para ser más competitiva, se torna importante el presente estudio, que permita a las organizaciones tomar decisiones más asertivas, así como redirigir sus recursos en forma más eficiente e inteligentemente. El objetivo de la presente investigación es realizar un plan de mercadotecnia para el Corporativo sujeto de estudio, que permita la captación de clientes en el área del derecho ambiental, la cual sea viable, efectiva y eficiente, dirigida hacia un nicho de mercado meta previamente analizado.

LITERATURA REVISADA

Es importante mencionar que no se encontró literatura específica sobre estudios previos para diversificación de mercados en el área de prestación de servicios jurídicos en materia ambiental, por lo que la literatura revisada es sobre metodología, forma y procedimientos para realizar estudios de mercado, así como para la elaboración de planes de mercadotecnia. Armstrong (2001), Hartline (2006), Kotler (2003), Lambin (2002), Rendón (1996), Vargas (2005), Dankhe (1998), Hernández (2003), Canals (2001), Gool (1999), Kinnear y Taylor (1993), Código de Comercio y la Ley General de Sociedades Mercantiles.

METODOLOGÍA

Datos

La información obtenida sobre la organización se obtuvo directamente de la empresa objeto de estudio. La metodología empleada para la elaboración de este plan de mercadotecnia, se tomó de la bibliografía previamente citada.

Modelo

La presente investigación primordialmente se ha enfocado en la elaboración de un plan de mercadotecnia, analizando para ello a Armstrong (2001) para conocer las estrategias de crecimiento de mercado, las formas de penetración y desarrollo de mercado; a Hartline (2006) para conocer en qué consiste la toma de decisiones en la estrategias de marketing, conocer las diferentes estrategias de marketing y la segmentación de mercado meta; a Kotler (2003) para conocer las diferentes estrategias de marketing y sus elementos, así como diversos conceptos de la mercadotecnia; a Lambin (2002) para conocer y comentar el caso práctico de la empresa del Señor Luis Hernández; a Rendón (1996) para conocer y comentar el concepto de derecho corporativo; a Vargas (2005) para obtener la definición de derecho ambiental; a Dankhe (1998) para lo relativo a las características y perfiles importantes de personas, grupos y comunicaciones; a Canals (2001) y Gold (1999) para identificar lo que se entiende por crecimiento y la expansión que realiza una empresa hacia nuevos mercados; a Kinneer y Taylor (1993) quienes explican cómo se debe definir el tipo de muestra, así como la consulta de diversas leyes y códigos vigentes en México.

RESULTADOS Y CONCLUSIONES

La matriz B.C.G. (Boston Consulting Group) es una herramienta que sirve para identificar y planificar estrategias donde se analice la cartera del negocio, permitiendo a la Dirección del Corporativo, evaluar aquellos que son clave y que constituyen su cartera de negocios (ver tabla 2).

Tabla 2: Análisis de la cartera de negocios del Corporativo.

Matriz de Crecimiento - Participación		
tasa de crecimiento de mercado	alto	ESTRELLA Juicios Hipotecarios, debido a que siempre han generado alta participación.
	bajo	VACA LECHERA Convenios judiciales Generan mayor fondo y utilidad en corto plazo.
matriz b.c.g.		FUERTE
		DEBIL
CUOTA DE MERCADO: RELATIVA		
		DILEMAS Incursionar dentro en un nuevo nicho de mercado dentro del derecho ambiental, en la ciudad de Tijuana.
		PERROS Asuntos civiles en área familiar, y laboral.

Fuente: Elaboración propia, 2010

La Competencia

En este rubro el concepto de marketing establece que para lograr el éxito, una empresa debe satisfacer las necesidades y los deseos de los consumidores mejor que como la hacen sus competidores (ver tabla 3 y tabla 4).

Tabla 3: Análisis de competencia parte A.

Nombre del Competidor	Ubicación geográfica	Mercado Meta	Servicios que ofrece	Estrategia de venta	Precio
Eco Urbe Asesoría Ambiental	Colonia Chamizal, Tijuana	Pequeñas empresas, en su mayoría oficinas particulares	Asesorías y capacitación a empleados Asesoría en clasificación y disposición de Residuos peligrosos, descargas y ambiente laboral	Ofrece paquete empresarial	Mensualidad fija, por los servicios que se requieran.
ENT Asesorías Ambientales	Ave. Jalapa Col. Neidhart	Maquiladoras en general. Asesoría a nivel industrial	Asesoría solo en industria agropecuaria	Ofrece comisión por contratación	Pago por evento, a crédito, costo por servicio se desconoce.
Ecological, Asesoría Ambiental Asesores Ambientales, Martínez y Asociados Laboratorio Ambiental Sigma, Consultores ambientales	Otay, Tijuana Villa Fontana, Tijuana	Industria Agropecuaria Maquiladoras y Pymes	Asesorías de cumplimiento legal y auditorías normativas	Recomendación Calidad en servicio, atención, honestidad, seriedad, rapidez,	Pago por evento, servicio a crédito, Pago por evento, crédito
Despacho Luna	Garita de Otay Z. Centro Tijuana	Pymes y Maquiladoras Particulares en General	Análisis clínicos Asesoría cumplimiento normativo, auditorías legales Jurídicos a P. Físicas y Morales	Único laboratorio certificado por EMA, CRET, NOM-39, N/A	Pago por evento, crédito Se desconoce

*Pequeña; de 1 a 29 clientes ** Mediana; de 30 a 59 clientes*** Grande; de 60 o más clientes Fuente: Elaboración propia, 2010

Tabla 4: Análisis de competencia parte B.

Experiencia desde	Capacidad	Medios publicitarios	Canal de Venta	Fortalezas	Debilidades
2003	*Pequeña	Correo electrónico, tarjetas y Secc. Amarilla	Tijuana y Playas de Rosarito	Conocimiento del mercado	Ingenieros químicos y contadores que hacen servicios legales.
2003	*Mediana	Secc. Amarilla	Tijuana, Mexicali, Tecate, Playas de Rosarito	Clientes grandes, experiencia en mercado	Subcontrata servicios legales, no son abogados
2007	*Pequeña	Anuncio en Secc. Amarilla	Tijuana, Playas de Rosarito, Tecate.	Alta especialización en su área	No incluye servicios legales.
2002	*Pequeña	Ninguno	Tijuana, Tecate, Playas Rosarito	Experiencia, confianza de su mercado	ingenieros químicos, que prestan servicios legales
1998	***Grande	Secc. Amarilla	Estatat	Experiencia en el ramo	Es laboratorio su actividad principal.
1983	*Pequeña	Secc. Amarilla. Anuncia servicios legales en general e incluye D. Ambiental	Tijuana	Experiencia como abogado	No se enfoca a un mercado en específico en materia ambiental

*Pequeña; de 1 a 29 clientes** Mediana; de 30 a 59 clientes *** Grande; de 60 o más clientes Fuente: Elaboración propia, 2010

La tablas 3 y 4 proyectan cómo actualmente en la ciudad de Tijuana existe una demanda en la prestación de servicios legales en materia ambiental, tanto para asesorías como auditorías legales y cumplimiento de normatividad ambiental, servicios que no están siendo atendidos por profesionales en esta materia, siendo

quienes ofertan y cubren esta demanda de servicio, por laboratorios e ingenieros químicos, lo que representa una oportunidad para el despacho en cuestión.

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ESTUDIO DE FACTIBILIDAD PARA LA COMERCIALIZACIÓN DE ZARZAMORA EN MERCADOS INTERNACIONALES

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RESUMEN

La zarzamora es un cultivo que se ha venido expandiendo durante los últimos años en diferentes zonas del país, siendo la región de Michoacán, donde se ha alcanzado el mayor desarrollo, debido a lo favorable en sus condiciones climáticas, de suelo y agua que prevalecen en la región. Existen varias entidades federativas que aportan a la producción nacional de zarzamora, como Jalisco, México, Hidalgo, Guanajuato, Chihuahua y Baja California, los cuales produjeron junto con Michoacán más de 340 mil toneladas de zarzamora. El mercado de la zarzamora, es principalmente para uso en fresco, y su uso industrial se enfoca a la elaboración de mermeladas, vinos, concentrados, etcétera; por su alta demanda en los países desarrollados, se considera un producto altamente rentable. En ese sentido, se señalan y determinan los factores macroeconómicos y comerciales; así como las regulaciones en materia de comercio internacional que inciden en la comercialización de la zarzamora mexicana, en los mercados internacionales, como una fuente de oportunidad de negocios por su alta rentabilidad, versatilidad del fruto para su consumo y las grandes posibilidades de exportación.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Zarzamora, mercado, comercio, negocios, rentabilidad.

RESEARCH OF FACTIBILITY FOR THE COMMERCIALIZATION OF THE BLACKBERRY IN INTERNATIONAL MARKETS

ABSTRACT

Blackberry is a crop that has been expanding during the last years in different areas of our country, the region of Michoacan, where they have the greatest development, because of the good weather conditions, soil, and water that prevail in the region. There are other states that contribute to the national production of blackberry, like México, Hidalgo, Guanajuato, Chihuahua and Baja California, with Michoacán which altogether export more than 340 tons to the United States last year. The blackberry market is mainly to sell it fresh, and its industrial use focuses on the jelly elaboration, wines, and concentrated blackberry juice, etc; because of the increasing demand in first world countries, it is considered a highly rentable product.

This way, the macroeconomic and commercial elements are pointed; such as the regulations in the international commerce to influence in the commercialization of the Mexican blackberry, in the international markets, like an opportunity of business because of its rentability, the diversity of the fruit for its consume and the great possibilities of exportation.

JEL: L11, L17, M11, M21, M31

KEYWORDS: Blackberry, market, commerce, business, income.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El nombre científico de la zarzamora es *Rubus fruticosus* y pertenece a la familia de las Rosáceas (Blackberries o híbridos). Comercialmente, la frambuesa y zarzamora, conjuntamente con el arándano, moras, grosellas, zarzaparrilla y la fresa, pertenecen al grupo de los llamados berries, especies poco producidas en México, pero de gran popularidad en Norteamérica, Sudamérica y Europa. Los híbridos son el producto del cruzamiento entre varios *Rubus* de frutos nativos de Norteamérica y de Europa. Se les agrupa bajo el nombre de blackberries en inglés y Brombeeren en alemán y Zarzamora en México.

Los blackberries son claramente más productivos que las frambuesas; su producción se puede obtener desde octubre a junio y es considerada una fruta típica de climas templados fríos. A pesar de considerarse como clima óptimo para el cultivo de la zarzamora, los climas relativamente frescos, libres de lluvias en el período de cosecha, y con frío invernal de 800 a 1,200 horas-frío, se ha observado que este cultivo se distribuye ampliamente en distintas zonas agroclimáticas del mundo. El factor climático limitante para la zarzamora es el frío invernal, principalmente para las variedades híbridas. Actualmente, se está trabajando para desarrollar híbridos con mayor resistencia al frío y así, expandir el cultivo hacia áreas más frías. Una alta humedad atmosférica favorece el desarrollo de las plantas; sin embargo, esta especie, a diferencia de la frambuesa, presenta cierto grado de resistencia al déficit o exceso de agua debido a su mayor profundidad y extensión del sistema radical. En las zarzamoras, el efecto negativo del viento es menor que en el caso de las frambuesas. Esto se debe a que la zarzamora híbrida es más resistente y tiene un manejo cultural distinto. Las variedades que actualmente se encuentran, se han originado de interacciones genéticas entre varias especies que presentan características morfológicas heterogéneas, por lo que no es extraño que estas variedades difieran entre sí en cuanto a su hábito de crecimiento y al tipo de fruta. Por esta razón, las zarzamoras se han clasificado según su hábito de crecimiento (erecto, semierecto o rastrero) y la presencia o ausencia de espinas (característica que puede ser otorgada por la hibridación).

De la combinación de estas dos características morfológicas se han obtenido numerosas variedades que se agruparían en la siguiente clasificación: *Erect Thorny*, *Semierect Thonless*, *Western Tralling*, *Dewberries* o *Híbridos entre zarzamora y frambuesa*. Las variedades de zarzamora pertenecientes a la clasificación *Erect Thorny* (por ejemplo: Cherokee, Eldorado, Darrow) se caracterizan por ser erectas, algunas veces pueden ser arqueadas, presentan espinas en sus cañas y sus primeras cañas emergen de yemas adventicias de la raíz y corona. Los racimos de frutas son grandes y de fruta dulce. La mayoría de estas especies son resistentes al frío. El grupo de blackberries postrados, se caracteriza porque sus variedades tienden a desarrollarse arrastradas, son de hábito agresivo y poseen numerosas espinas, generalmente ganchudas. Entre las variedades más comunes se pueden encontrar las siguientes: Brazos; Comanche; Logan; Cheyenne; Cherokee; Autum Bliss; de las cuales las más comunes en México son: Brazos; Tupy y Cherokee. Crece silvestre en muchas zonas, llanuras, montañas, claros de bosques y sobre todo, en pendientes y márgenes soleados. Es un fruto constituido por pequeñas drupas o granos que se agrupan entre sí. Primero son de color verde, después rojas y cuando están maduras, adquieren un color negro brillante. Existen más de 300 especies, aunque sólo nueve tienen valor comercial.

A nivel mundial, las variedades de cultivo proceden de las especies *Rubus occidentalis* o de hibridaciones con *Rubus ideaus*. En Colombia, la especie cultivada comercialmente es la *Rubus glaucus* o mora de Castilla. Dentro de las moras cultivadas existen variedades e híbridos con espinas y variedades sin

espinas. Asimismo, dentro de esta clasificación se diferencian comercialmente en dulces y no dulces. Las tres variedades más comerciales de moras son: Logan: son un cruce entre una zarzamora y una frambuesa, son más ácidas que las zarzamoras y menos aromatizadas que las frambuesas. Presentan una coloración púrpura y están desprovistas de semillas; Young: resultantes del cruce entre una zarza de los rastrojos y una frambuesa. Tiene aspecto de zarzamora alargada. Su sabor es ácido y poco aromatizado; Boysen: cruce entre la variedad Young y la frambuesa. Son de gran tamaño y su aspecto es muy similar a la frambuesa y; Tay: es un cruce entre la zarzamora y la frambuesa originado en Escocia. Es grande, ácida y de un tono escarlata.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

La zarzamora se desarrolla excelentemente en las zonas cuya vegetación natural es de bosques de pino y encino, en donde el clima es templado, con veranos cálidos e inviernos fríos. Los requerimientos climáticos de la zarzamora corresponden a las condiciones que se presentan en los municipios de Zamora, Los Reyes, Tangancícuaro, Peribán y zonas altas de Uruapan; en ellos se presentan climas templados en los cuales el invierno tiene días y noches frescas sin que las temperaturas promedio del mes más frío sean menores a los 8°C. En estos lugares se presentan lluvias suficientes durante el verano y parte del otoño, lo que los hace lugares propicios para cultivar zarzamoras de excelente calidad durante los meses de noviembre, diciembre, enero y febrero. Cabe destacar, que esta región de Michoacán concentra el 98% de la producción nacional de zarzamora, seguida por el Estado de México con el 1%.

Los berries o frutillas, grupo al que pertenecen la zarzamora y la frambuesa, son productos agrícolas que han venido registrando un incremento sostenido en su cultivo, y una muestra es que la producción de frambuesa prácticamente se triplicó, al pasar de mil 138 toneladas, en el año 2000, a tres mil 44 toneladas, en el año 2004. Los estados productores más destacados son Jalisco, México, Michoacán, Hidalgo y Chihuahua, quienes registraron un valor comercial de esta frutilla de 24 millones 212 mil 590 pesos en el 2004, a diferencia de los 17 millones 573 mil 849 del año 2000.

Por su parte, la producción de zarzamora prácticamente se duplicó en este periodo, al pasar de 13 mil 534 toneladas, en el año 2000, a 26 mil 696 en el año 2004, siendo los estados de Michoacán, México, Guanajuato e Hidalgo los principales productores (SAGARPA 2006). De acuerdo a las estadísticas del organismo dependiente de la Secretaría de Agricultura, Ganadería, Desarrollo Rural, Pesca y Alimentación (SAGARPA), los cultivos que registraron aumentos más significativos en la producción fueron la fresa, con 24 mil 109 toneladas y el blueberry, con mil 445 toneladas. Las cifras del SIAP, señalan que durante el año 2009, el valor comercial de las frutillas ascendió a cinco mil 336 millones 432 mil pesos, un aumento de mil 78 millones 130 mil pesos con relación al año 2008, es decir, 25 por ciento más. Entre las entidades productoras de frutillas destaca Michoacán, donde se produjeron 230 mil 450 toneladas, con un valor en el mercado de tres mil 490 millones 269 mil pesos, seguido por Baja California que sumó 84 mil 963 toneladas de frutillas a la producción nacional. Del resto de estados dedicados al cultivo de fresas, zarzamoras, blueberries y frambuesas, que son Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Colima, Distrito Federal, Durango, México, Morelos, Nayarit, Puebla, Baja California Sur, Guanajuato, Sinaloa, Veracruz, Zacatecas, Hidalgo y Jalisco, este último, tuvo un incremento en su producción de 69 por ciento al pasar de las siete mil 710 toneladas a 13 mil 209 toneladas en un año.

Respecto de la zarzamora, el crecimiento del cultivo en suelo jalisciense fue de 400 por ciento al ubicarse la producción del año 2009, en mil 604 toneladas en comparación a las 364 logradas el año anterior. Pese a que la zarzamora y la frambuesa son dos frutas desconocidas en toda la región norte del país, Chihuahua

exporta anualmente 120 toneladas de cada una al estado de California, Estados Unidos. Esta industria que nació hace tres años en la región de Nuevo Casas Grandes, su éxito se debe a la ubicación geográfica del municipio, porque se puede exportar vía Juárez-El Paso o por Santa Teresa. Sin embargo, la producción del año 2007, fue exportada por Nogales, Sonora.

México ha mostrado un crecimiento explosivo en la producción de berries, principalmente zarzamoras y frambuesas, alcanzando crecimientos medios anuales del 40% (SAGARPA, 2008). En ese sentido, México en un periodo relativamente corto se ha convertido en el primer exportador de zarzamora fresca del mundo.

Sin embargo, la producción nacional centra sus actividades por la cantidad de producción en el estado de Michoacán, el destino de sus exportaciones es primordialmente Los Estados Unidos, realizando ventas esporádicas a la Unión Europea. El problema real de la comercialización de zarzamora en México, se centra en que la mayor parte de las exportaciones se generan a un solo mercado, como anteriormente se mencionó; los productores de esa región buscan exportar el fruto sin utilizar intermediarios para su venta, ya que evitando el gasto del intermediario el vendedor se queda con un margen de ganancia más amplio y le permite ser más competitivos con el precio final de producto. La gran ventaja que tiene México, es que la ventana de producción es de noviembre a junio, periodo importante que no es alcanzado por la mayoría de los países productores, salvo Guatemala, que tiene una ventana productiva que también inicia en noviembre, pero concluye en agosto.

Por otro lado, se puede mencionar los factores que impulsan la demanda de la fruta, como es su sabor y los aspectos relacionados con la salud y la conveniencia. Desarrollando cada uno de los factores que se mencionan, el sabor de la zarzamora es considerado dentro del grupo de frutas finas junto a las cerezas. El gusto por estas frutas está muy arraigado en países del hemisferio norte, principalmente Europa y América. En el resto del mundo, incluyendo México, la zarzamora es considerada como una fruta exótica.

En el segmento de la conveniencia; en otras palabras, producto de fácil consumo o utilización sin grandes complicaciones; en ese sentido, se le asocia por sus atributos como un ingrediente importante con otros tipos de productos, tales como yogurts, lácteos, entre otros. Por último, cada día se descubren en las berries más beneficios para la salud. Reducción de riesgo de cáncer y problemas cardíacos, disminución o reducción en los niveles de colesterol y otros efectos atribuidos a los antioxidantes y propiedades naturales de la zarzamora. En general, todos los berries contienen calcio, magnesio, potasio, fósforo, vitaminas A, B, C y E, por lo que su consumo es recomendado por los nutriólogos y especialistas de la salud.

SYSTEM PAY-BACK PERIOD FOR NEWLY CONSTRUCTED HOUSES

The estimated payback period (PBP) is given as (Chel and Tiwari, 2011):

The system PBP = (system total annual cost per house at certain discount rate * system lifespan in years) / current annual cost of electricity per house

Where: system annual cost at 0% discount rate is 1007.7 KD, system lifespan is 20 years and current annual cost of electricity per house is 2868 KD/house/yr.

$$\text{PBP at 0\% discount rate} = \frac{1,007.7\text{KD} \times 20}{2,868\text{KD}} = 7 \text{ years}$$

PBP at several discount rates is given in Figure (4). It is shown that at 6.7% discount rate the PBP is 14.8 years, and at the break-even discount rate of 10.36% it is 20 years.

Tabla 1: Información nutrimental de la zarzamora.

Nutrientes	Unidad	Valor por 100g de porción comestible
Agua	g	88.15
Energía	kcal	43
Proteínas	g	1.39
Grasa	g	0.49
Carbohidratos	g	9.61
Fibra dietética	g	5.3
Azúcar	g	4.88
Calcio	mg	29
Hierro	mg	0.62
Magnesio	mg	20
Fósforo	mg	22
Potasio	mg	162
Sodio	mg	1
Vitamina C (ácido ascórbico)	mg	21
Ácido pantoténico	mg	0.276
Vitamina A	ui	214
Vitamina E	mg	1.17
Betacaroteno	mcg	128
Luteína	mcg	118

La presente tabla muestra el contenido nutrimental de la zarzamora por cada 100 g de porción comestible. Fuente: USDA National Nutrient Database for Standard Reference, Release 24 (2011). Elaboración propia.

METODOLOGÍA

El diseño de la investigación partió de una investigación propiamente documental y descriptiva, por otro lado, se realizó una investigación de campo; es decir, se consultó a organismos oficiales y de Gobierno, para afianzar datos e información estadística sobre el tema investigado; así como también, sitios y/o bases de datos oficiales nacionales e internacionales, para el uso de la información estadística, económica y financiera de las exportaciones de zarzamora en los distintos mercados del mundo.

Por lo anterior expuesto, el análisis de los aspectos para determinar el perfil comercial de la zarzamora, se dividió en dos grandes áreas: El mercado mundial y el mercado nacional; en ese sentido y con la apertura comercial, las exportaciones se han incrementado favorablemente para los productos certificados, orgánicos y exóticos; entre estos últimos se encuentra la zarzamora. En el mercado internacional, la zarzamora mexicana se reconoce por su calidad en el sabor.

Para el estudio de la magnitud de mercado se analizaron las tendencias en producción, estacionalidad y comercio en México y en los mercados de Los Estados Unidos y Europa. Para la realización del perfil comercial internacional se analizaron las siguientes variables: Los importadores y exportadores mundiales de zarzamora. Para el análisis de las tendencias de la comercialización de zarzamora, se tomó en cuenta el crecimiento del mercado; así como también, su participación en las importaciones mundiales (fuente: COMTRADE, Febrero del 2011). La Tabla 2, contiene los principales importadores mundiales de zarzamora.

Tabla 2: Importadores mundiales de zarzamora

Importadores	Indicadores comerciales				
	Valor importada en 2009, en miles de USD	Cantidad importada en 2009, en toneladas	Valor unitario (USD/unidad)	Tasa de crecimiento anual en valor entre 2008-2009	Participación en las importaciones mundiales, %
Mundo	703,892	147,395	4,776	-4	100
Estados Unidos de América	197,479	52,159	3,786	3	28.1
Canadá	136,840	24,146	5,667	0	19.4
Reino Unido	104,721	13,400	7,815	-8	14.9
Alemania	54,550	17,566	3,105	-3	7.7
Francia	51,127	7,814	6,543	-4	7.3
Países Bajos (Holanda)	30,053	3,206	9,374	13	4.3
Italia	19,181	4,739	4,047	-34	2.7
Austria	18,657	10,319	1,808	-54	2.7
Bélgica	16,029	3,891	4,120	-17	2.3
Japón	11,138	444	25,086	-1	1.6
Irlanda	11,121	1,356	8,201	3	1.6
Suiza	10,058	1,028	9,784	7	1.4
España	9,285	2,407	3,857	53	1.3
Dinamarca	5,449	681	8,001	21	0.8
Suecia	3,893	355	10,966	3	0.6
Lituania	3,861	252	15,321	2	0.5
Federación de Rusia	2,030	794	2,557	10	0.3
República Checa	1,621	170	9,535	35	0.2

En la presente tabla se muestra los principales importadores de zarzamora a nivel mundial; así como participación en las importaciones mundiales. Fuente: Cálculos del CCI basados en estadísticas de COMTRADE, Análisis e Investigación de Mercados, Centro de Comercio Internacional (ITC); Genova Suiza, Febrero del 2011.

Como se puede observar, el principal comprador a nivel mundial en el periodo 2008-2009, son los Estados Unidos, las estadísticas de compra del país indican que hubo una variación porcentual que aumenta en tres puntos la compra del producto en este periodo, adquiriendo el 28.1% de la oferta mundial, con un crecimiento anual del 3%, seguido por Canadá, país que compra el 19% de la oferta en el mundo, con un crecimiento anual que quedo estático, por eso se deduce que ha manteniendo su producción en los últimos dos años. Estos dos mercados representan para los productores mexicanos viabilidad de venta, ya que por su cercanía y relación comercial facilitan la transportación del producto, si se considera que es un alimento perecedero con una vida de anaquel corta, los aspectos geográficos y climáticos contribuyen a que los productores de México seleccionen estos dos mercados como potenciales para la venta.

Sin embargo, no se debe descartar a otros compradores, los cuales se ubican en otros países, por ejemplo, Holanda tuvo un crecimiento interno del 13%; Irlanda tuvo un porcentaje de compra a nivel mundial del 1.6% y con un crecimiento interno del 3%; Suiza tuvo un crecimiento interno del 7% y una participación a nivel mundial del 1.4%; mientras que España tuvo un crecimiento interno considerable del 53% con una participación mundial del 1.3%.

Dentro de la actividad comercial que se genera a nivel mundial es de suma importancia ubicar a la competencia que tiene México en la exportación, para el análisis de este apartado se ha tomado como base la información estadística generada por el organismo internacional ICC (Centro de Comercio Internacional), con sede en Genova, Suiza. Como se puede observar en la Tabla 3, el principal exportador de zarzamora fresca en el mundo es Estados Unidos, con una venta del 28.4%, seguido por España con un 24.1% y en tercer lugar se encuentra México, con el 18% de la venta a nivel mundial. Los principales

competidores para nuestro país son: España (2do lugar a nivel mundial), Polonia y Holanda (fuente: COMTRADE, Febrero del 2011). La Tabla 3, contiene los principales exportadores mundiales de zarzamora.

Tabla 3: Exportadores mundiales de zarzamora.

Exportadores	Indicadores comerciales				
	Valor exportada en 2009, en miles de USD	Cantidad exportada en 2009 en toneladas	Valor unitario (USD/unidad)	Tasa de crecimiento anual en valor entre 2008-2009	Participación en las exportaciones mundiales, %
Mundo	546,664	169,000	3,235	-12	100
Estados Unidos de América	155,433	48,097	3,232	5	28.4
España	131,899	15,498	8,511	-1	24.1
México	98,453	36,309	2,712	-1	18.0
Polonia	34,437	26,476	1,301	-50	6.3
Países Bajos (Holanda)	29,373	2,725	10,779	-13	5.4
Portugal	14,817	1,648	8,991	39	2.7
Francia	12,421	1,909	6,507	-9	2.3
Bélgica	11,334	958	11,831	-21	2.1
Serbia	8,517	5,798	1,469	-56	1.6
Guatemala	6,204	3,470	1,788	29	1.1
Alemania	6,052	1,379	4,389	-1	1.1
Italia	5,417	818	6,622	31	1.0
Austria	4,665	2,082	2,241	-72	0.9
Chile	4,568	781	5,849	-70	0.8
Sudafrica	3,640	577	6,308	99	0.7
Marruecos	3,426	915	3,744	-32	0.6
Lituania	3,337	254	13,138	-17	0.6
Canadá	2,975	1,101	2,702	-62	0.5
Hungría	1,935	319	6,066	78	0.4
Bulgaria	1,916	541	3,542	-65	0.4
Irlanda	1,496	194	7,711	-18	0.3

En la presente tabla se muestra los principales importadores de zarzamora a nivel mundial; así como participación en las importaciones mundiales. Fuente: Cálculos del CCI basados en estadísticas de COMTRADE, Análisis e Investigación de Mercados, Centro de Comercio Internacional (ITC); Genova Suiza, Febrero del 2011.

RESULTADOS

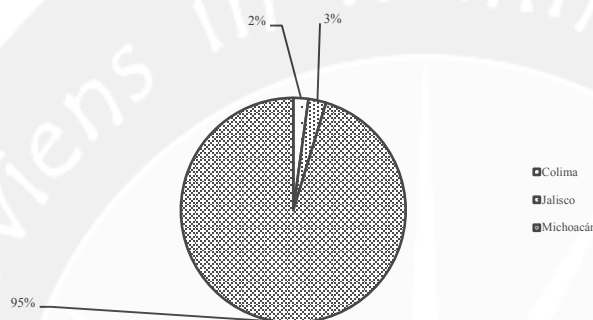
Con base a los antecedentes recopilados de fuentes estadísticas, en Norteamérica y Europa son requeridos estos productos, toda vez que tienen una amplia versatilidad para el consumo, incluso para la decoración de platillos. Cabe destacar, que los agricultores que envían en fresco estos productos para el consumidor internacional obtienen buenas ganancias, ya que pueden conseguir hasta un 300 por ciento más que lo que se logra exportándolos de manera congelada. En ese sentido, el Servicio de Información Agroalimentaria y Pesquera (SIAP), informó que en el año 2010, la producción nacional de zarzamora se destacó con un volumen de 61 mil 557 toneladas, lo que representó un valor de producción de de 1, 428,620.28 (en miles de pesos). Actualmente, se destaca que alrededor de 3 mil 750 hectáreas están ubicadas en Los Reyes, lugar que contiene la mayor superficie de cultivo de zarzamora de México y el mundo. La producción del ciclo anual del cultivo arrojó 30 mil toneladas de zarzamora, de éstas, el 90 por ciento fueron exportadas a Estados Unidos y el resto a Europa y Japón. Las exportaciones de las frutillas mexicanas se realizan de octubre a enero, lo que al país le representa una ventaja competitiva, pues en dicho periodo es en el que se alcanzan los más altos precios en el mercado mundial debido a la escasa oferta.

La producción del Valle de Los Reyes representa 95 por ciento de la producción estatal y 90 por ciento de la producción nacional de zarzamora, delante de Colima y Jalisco, tal y como se ilustra en la Figura 1, la cual referencia a la producción agrícola nacional del año 2010. Sin embargo, es importante resaltar que,

entidades como Guanajuato, Distrito Federal, México, Nayarit y Querétaro aportaron en su conjunto, la cantidad de 369.58 toneladas de zarzamora en el mismo año de referencia.

Partiendo del análisis descriptivo anterior, en el territorio nacional, particularmente en los estados antes mencionados, prevalecen las condiciones favorables del clima y suelo; así como la alta rentabilidad del cultivo de zarzamora, ha sido un atractivo que ha permitido su establecimiento comercial en México

Figura 1: Producción nacional agrícola de zarzamora, año 2010.



En esta figura se muestra la producción agrícola de zarzamora en el año 2010. Claramente se puede apreciar que la Región de Michoacán aportó un 95% a la producción nacional, la cual correspondió a 58,279 toneladas; mientras que Jalisco y Colima, aportaron el 5% restante, lo que correspondió a 2,284 toneladas de producto. Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de la información proporcionada por el SLAP.

CONCLUSIONES

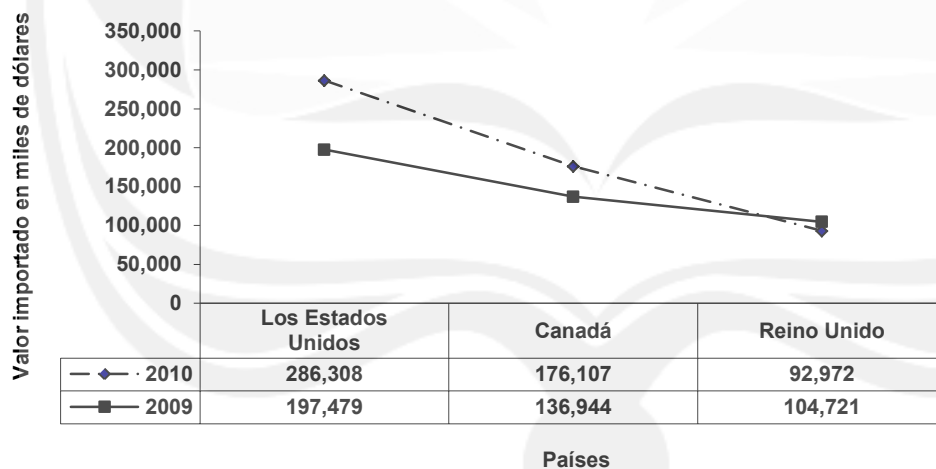
El cultivo de la zarzamora en nuestro país y el alto porcentaje en su comercialización en mercados internacionales, es sin lugar a dudas, una coyuntura en materia de comercio internacional y de negocios, la cual se ha venido apoyando e impulsando en los últimos años, por representar a la economía mexicana y a los inversionistas una gran oportunidad de negocios, por su alta rentabilidad, versatilidad y exportación; debido a la apertura comercial, la cual se ha incrementado favorablemente para los productos certificados y, la zarzamora mexicana se le reconoce por la calidad del fruto en su sabor. Si bien es cierto, los países que mayor demandan el producto de la zarzamora, son los países del norte; sin embargo, algunos países europeos también la demandan y tomando en cuenta su tasa de crecimiento anual y su índice de participación en las importaciones mundiales, México posicionado en el tercer lugar en exportaciones, deberá de gestionar su entrada a los mercados europeos como una alternativa de negocios y poder así, incrementar su índice de participación en las exportaciones mundiales y todo lo que para la economía mexicana y los empresarios significa.

Una vez plasmada esta situación, es importante para el productor enfocarse a la comercialización de la zarzamora a los mercados que han incrementado su crecimiento interno y que permanecen dentro de los principales importadores en el mundo. Otro indicador importante es que los agricultores que exportan este producto, obtienen buenas ganancias, ya que pueden conseguir hasta un 300% más de lo que se logra exportándolos de manera congelada.

Una situación importante es la capacidad de proveer los mercados internacionales por parte del productor y la factibilidad de cumplir con las regulaciones arancelarias y no arancelarias (ver anexo1), para la exportación de sus productos. En México la asistencia técnica en procesos de exportación se convierte en un factor importante para la toma de decisiones del empresario y en ese sentido, se recomienda producir y comercializar el producto en fresco solamente bajo un esquema que permita garantizar la venta del fruto a una fecha determinada, cumpliendo parámetros de calidad previamente acordados mediante el establecimiento de un paquete tecnológico, con miras a obtener un precio que de rentabilidad al cultivo.

Es importante que el productor mexicano dadas las condiciones económicas mundiales, reflexione en la importancia de la diversificación del riesgo en las exportaciones, por lo que debe de considerar el mercado europeo como una opción más de comercialización. En caso de tomar la decisión de exportar a Europa, deberá de tener en cuenta que la decisión de compra del consumidor europeo depende de la combinación del trinomio: Calidad-Sanidad-Precio. Por lo anterior, para poder exportar productos agrícolas mexicanos a la Unión Europea, es importante que el productor- exportador conozca y tenga presente que la calidad y la sanidad de los productos son factores claves para penetrar, permanecer y tener éxito en ese mercado. Promover y privilegiar la exportación de zarzamora, en función de su alto precio, ya que los mercados que más demandan el producto son Los Estados Unidos, Canadá y Reino Unido, por mencionar los más representativos (COMTRADE, 2011). Asimismo, se puede apreciar en la Figura 2, el incremento que tuvo en las importaciones de zarzamora en los países arriba mencionados, el cual oscila en un 38 por ciento en promedio con respecto al año 2009.

Figura 2: Comportamiento de las importaciones de los berries, años 2009 y 2010.



La presente Figura muestra un comparativo de las importaciones de fruta del grupo de los berries, durante los años 2009 y 2010, representados por los tres países más importantes por su valor importado en miles de dólares. Fuente: Elaboración propia, a partir de los cálculos del CCI basados en estadísticas de COMTRADE, Análisis e Investigación de Mercados, Centro de Comercio Internacional (ITC); Genova Suiza, Noviembre del 2011.

Hablando propiamente de valores en toneladas demandadas por los principales países importadores de zarzamora, se tiene que Los Estados Unidos importaron en el año 2010, la cantidad de 60,247 toneladas, lo cual representa el 37% de la importación mundial del fruto; mientras que Canadá importó 28,787 toneladas, lo que representó para el año 2010, una participación del 17.7% del total mundial y; el Reino Unido participó en las importaciones con la cantidad de 10,470 toneladas, lo que representó una participación del 6.43 por ciento del total del mundo.

Por otro lado, es importante promover la incorporación de valor agregado al producto, mediante la industrialización del fruto, como una alternativa comercial cuando por alguna razón no se puede acceder a los canales comerciales de alto valor, como lo es en fresco para la exportación. En ese sentido, se deberá de buscar y aplicar la estrategia de diversificación de productos y con ello, poder industrializar y comercializar la zarzamora a partir de la elaboración de jugos, congelados, pulpas concentradas, polvos deshidratados, ates, licores, helados, postres, bebidas, lácteos, dulces y mermeladas; lo anterior en función de que la fruta es altamente perecedera y de súbita madurez poca resistencia al manipuleo y al transporte.

También se debe de considerar los siguientes factores: El transformar la fruta para la elaboración de concentrado, proporciona mayores márgenes de utilidad, siempre y cuando no se enfrente a las barreras de ingreso en un segmento comercial con tanta competencia; mientras que el producto en fresco, esta sujeto a la especulación y la sobreoferta del mercado internacional, mismo que provoca volatilidad en el precio e incertidumbre para quien lo produce.

ANEXOS

Anexo 1. Medidas Arancelarias Cuantitativas Y Cualitativas Para La Exportación De Productos Mexicanos A Europa.

Cuantitativas: Permisos de exportación e importación, Cupos, Medidas contra prácticas desleales de comercio internacional.

Cualitativas: Regulaciones de etiquetado, Marcado de país de origen, Regulaciones sanitarias, Normas técnicas, Regulaciones de toxicidad, Normas de calidad, Regulaciones ecológicas, Empaque y Embalaje / Regulaciones Europeas: Idioma del país destino. En el caso de alimentos: nombre del producto, peso neto, fecha de caducidad, código de barras, indicaciones de uso y conservación, ingredientes, conservadores y aditivos utilizados y lugar de procedencia.

Etiqueta ecológica o verde: Tiene el objetivo de fomentar la utilización de productos con un impacto reducido en el medio ambiente durante toda su vida útil. La estética del empaque debe considerar valores, tradiciones y costumbres de cada país.

Certificación Europea. En la declaración de la CE de conformidad se incluirá lo siguiente: Nombre y dirección del fabricante o de su representante establecido en la Comunidad Europea, Descripción del material eléctrico, referencia a las normas armonizadas, si procede, referencia de los requisitos con los cuales se declara la conformidad, Identificación del apoderado que firme en nombre del fabricante o de su representante establecido en la comunidad.

Reglas de Origen. Los principales criterios para determinar el origen de un bien son: Totalmente originario, salto arancelario, De minimis (insumos menos del 7% u 8% del valor total del producto), valor del contenido regional.

Certificados de Origen. Los Tratados de Libre Comercio y Acuerdos Comerciales establecen preferencias arancelarias para mercancías que cumplen con regla de origen. El Certificado de Origen es el documento que avala que un bien que se exporte a territorio de la otra parte; cumple con regla de origen correspondiente. Certificado de Origen TLCUEM: a) Formato Controlado; b) Validación por la autoridad competente del gobierno exportador; c) Registro de Productos Elegibles; d) Opciones de Resoluciones.

Certificado de Origen en formato controlado, Número de exportador autorizado; Procedimiento de validación para la obtención de certificado de origen.

Los países que conforman la Unión Europea establecen sus regulaciones no arancelarias a nivel comunitario, a través de Directivas y otras disposiciones generales, que actúan como disposiciones marco. Esto no excluye la posibilidad de que cada país, a nivel interno, pueda establecer disposiciones adicionales que endurezcan o flexibilicen dicha normativa de referencia.

Aspectos sanitarios. El exportador mexicano deberá tener especial cuidado en que los frutos frescos no tengan alguno de los organismos nocivos (insectos, ácaros, nematodos, bacteria, hongos y virus) listados en la Directiva 92/103/CEE, relativa a las Medidas de protección contra la introducción en la Comunidad de organismos nocivos para los productos vegetales y contra su propagación en el interior de la Comunidad. Deberá procurarse y demostrar que el producto exportado está libre de enfermedades, magulladuras u otras desfiguraciones. Por lo anterior, corresponde al productor/exportador mexicano el garantizar que sus productos cuentan con las condiciones sanitarias requeridas en el momento de salir de México. Para ello se requiere el correspondiente Certificado Fitosanitario Internacional.

Calidad. Las normas de calidad quedaron claramente definidas desde octubre 1996 en la Política Agrícola Común (PAC). De esta manera, los productos que no cumplan con dicha normativa, no tendrán acceso al mercado europeo. Además, existen otras regulaciones específicas (EC 2200/96), que aplican para los siguientes productos: Frutas: Manzana, Albaricoque, Aguacate, Cereza, Uva, Kiwi, Limón, Mandarina, Melón, Nectarina, Naranja, Melocotón, Pera, Ciruela, Fresa, Zarzamora, Sandía.

Cuando hablamos de calidad en la Unión Europea, nos referimos igualmente a los estándares de Clasificación de los productos, esto es, la evaluación que sobre su tamaño, peso, medidas y madurez. Según este criterio la clasificación quedaría de la siguiente manera: Clase Extra: Productos de mayor calidad; Clase I: Productos de buena calidad; Clase II: Productos de calidad razonable que pueden ser comercializados; Clase III: Productos de menor calidad pero que aún pueden ser motivo de comercio, aunque normalmente no se admite un embarque que tenga más de un 15% de productos de esta clase. Eurepgap. Debido a la creciente preocupación de los consumidores europeos en relación a la seguridad de los alimentos, (conocer de dónde vienen y cómo están siendo elaborados los productos que consumen) y a raíz de importantes situaciones que causaron temor en la población, como la enfermedad de las vacas locas y la aparición de los organismos modificados genéticamente, surge en 1997 EUREPGAP.

EUREP es la sigla inglesa de «Grupo de trabajo de minoristas de producto en fresco» (Euro-Retail Produce Working Group). El objetivo de esta organización, de la cual son miembros importantes cadenas de distribución minorista europeas, es, según su propia declaración, «elevar los estándares sanitarios de la producción de fruta fresca y vegetales». Se trata, entonces, de un grupo de trabajo técnico cuyo objetivo es promover y apoyar el uso de las buenas prácticas agrícolas en la producción de fruta y hortaliza. Así, EUREPGAP son los estándares para las Buenas Prácticas Agrícolas (en inglés Good Agricultural Practice GAP), promovidos por el Euro Retailer Group (EUREP), que representa a las cadenas de supermercados líderes en el sector alimentario a nivel europeo. Desde este punto de vista, EUREPGAP es un conjunto de documentos normativos que se utilizan para certificar la producción de alimentos frescos y agrícolas. Inicialmente surgió como iniciativa del sector minorista, aunque la versión actual del documento EUREPGAP y sus procedimientos han sido desarrollados por representantes de todos los sectores de la industria de frutas y hortalizas.

El objetivo principal de EUREPGAP es acordar estándares y procedimientos para el desarrollo de buenas prácticas agrícolas (GAP o BPA) en temas claves de la producción de alimentos. En términos generales quedarían definidos de la siguiente manera: Responder al interés creciente del consumidor por el impacto

medioambiental; la sanidad y seguridad en los alimentos, y reflejar el deseo de mejorar constantemente los estándares de producción en cooperación con los productores. De lo anterior, se deduce que en la Unión Europea se están traspasando las normas de calidad convencionales ya conocidas, que obligan al envasado, calibrado, entre otros y, se están incluyendo nuevos parámetros, exigidos por el consumidor final y que se basan principalmente en la determinación de: Las características organolépticas y alimenticias del producto (tanto o más importantes que la presentación, envasado, entre otros); las técnicas de producción a las cuales se ha sometido el producto, las cuales deben ser respetuosas con el medio ambiente. Ello incluye los métodos de lucha contra las plagas con productos de bajo nivel de residuos e incluso métodos biológicos de lucha contra las plagas, abejorros para la fecundación, controles de calidad en origen; el registro y documentación de todos los nuevos atributos de los productos y; la certificación de los productores por parte de organismos públicos o privados de reconocida solvencia, como garantía.

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CONFIANZA, COMPROMISO E INTENCION PARA COMPARTIR: ¿VARIABLES INFLUYENTES PARA TRANSFERIR CONOCIMIENTO DENTRO DE LAS ORGANIZACIONES?

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RESUMEN

La evidencia disponible indica que no se conoce la totalidad de factores requeridos para que la transferencia de conocimiento intra-organizacional sea exitosa y eficiente. En este trabajo se estudia la influencia de la confianza - en la habilidad- así como del compromiso- afectivo-, sobre la intención y disposición para compartir, y el efecto de esta última sobre la transferencia de conocimiento. La investigación fue de tipo cuantitativa y la información empírica se examinó en dos etapas: en la primera a través de un Análisis Factorial Confirmatorio (AFC), y en la segunda mediante un Sistema de Ecuaciones Estructurales basado en Covarianzas (CBSEM). Los resultados confirman que: 1) existe una relación directa, positiva y significativa entre la transferencia de conocimiento y la intención y disposición para compartir, 2) la confianza en la habilidad y el compromiso afectivo afectan positiva, directa y significativamente a la intención y disposición para compartir, y 3) la confianza en la habilidad y el compromiso afectivo inciden de forma indirecta, positiva y significativa sobre la transferencia de conocimiento dentro de las empresas.

JEL: C39, M14, M19

PALABRAS CLAVE: Transferencia de conocimiento, confianza en la habilidad, compromiso afectivo, intención y disposición para compartir.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El desempeño organizacional se explica a partir de lo que una organización sabe, es decir, se basa en su conocimiento (Argote & Ingram, 2000), y gracias a su transferencia se renueva la capacidad productiva de la empresa (Liao & Hu, 2007). En gran medida, los problemas existentes en la gestión del conocimiento se relacionan con seres humanos -son producto de su complejidad y de sus diferentes necesidades psicológicas (Bollinger & Smith, 2001)-. Los antecedentes teóricos disponibles indican que es más probable que los trabajadores con un fuerte compromiso organizacional y altos niveles de confianza en sus compañeros, estén altamente motivados, y tengan una mayor disposición para hacer esfuerzos extraordinarios y para compartir su conocimiento tácito (Hislop, 2003; Lin, 2007). El compromiso y la confianza son necesarios para que las personas valoren la relación, y estén dispuestos a ser vulnerables (Yilmaz & Hunt, 2001).

Con base en los antecedentes y en el reconocimiento de la naturaleza estratégica el conocimiento organizacional (Hafeez & Abdelmeguid, 2003), en esta investigación se analizó la influencia que la confianza sustentada en la habilidad, y el compromiso afectivo, ejercen sobre la intención y disposición a

compartir el conocimiento tácito, y el efecto indirecto de dichas variables, sobre la transferencia de conocimiento intra-organizacional.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

Confianza. Para algunos (Collins & Hitt, 2006; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998) la confianza es un estado psicológico que comprime la intención de aceptar la vulnerabilidad bajo condiciones de riesgo e interdependencia, teniendo como soporte la valoración positiva de las expectativas sobre las intenciones o comportamiento de un tercero. La confianza reduce la necesidad de que exista una congruencia perfecta de valor en un intercambio único, ya que existe la expectativa de que el balance se alcanzará conforme ocurran una serie de intercambios; además, disminuye la necesidad de compensación instantánea ya que cada parte es confidente de que los compromisos se cumplirán en el futuro (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003). A partir de lo anterior, se propone la siguiente hipótesis de investigación:

H1 La confianza basada en la valoración positiva de la habilidad o competencia de los compañeros de trabajo incide positivamente sobre la intención y disposición para compartir conocimiento.

Compromiso Organizacional. El compromiso es una fuerza que une al individuo a un curso de acción relevante para que se realicen uno o más objetivos (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001); comúnmente esta variable se clasifica en tres tipos: afectivo, normativo y de continuidad (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Cuando existen altos niveles de compromiso afectivo, existe una probabilidad mayor de que los empleados se adhieran a las políticas organizacionales, actúen de conformidad con las decisiones estratégicas internas y correspondan de diversas formas a la organización (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Sin embargo, no obstante que se afirma que el compromiso organizacional puede afectar sustancialmente la disposición de los empleados para compartir conocimiento, es relativamente poca la investigación realizada en el área (Lin, 2007). Dados los elementos teóricos disponibles, se plantea la siguiente hipótesis de investigación:

H2 Fundamentándose en la reciprocidad, el compromiso afectivo incide positiva y significativamente sobre la intención y disposición para compartir conocimiento.

Intencion Y Disposicion Para Compartir Conocimiento. La reciprocidad es un compromiso entre partes que se manifiesta en una forma de obligación moral frente a una gratificación individual recibida previamente. La reciprocidad amplía la gama de recursos a ser intercambiados resultando en la adquisición de nueva información, habilidades y experiencias (Muthusamy & White, 2005). La reciprocidad en términos de personal y activos también mejora las conexiones de conocimiento entre partes interesadas; además, dichas conexiones facilitan el intercambio y la comunicación en la transferencia de conocimiento. La intención de compartir es un predictor inmediato del comportamiento para compartir conocimiento (Bock & Kim, 2002). La fuente proporcionará su *know-how* si al compartir se ve afianzada su expectativa de beneficios futuros (Kachra & White, 2008). A partir de lo anterior, es posible plantear la siguiente hipótesis de investigación:

H3 La intención y disposición para compartir conocimiento incide de forma positiva y significativa en la transferencia de conocimiento dentro de las organizaciones.

METODOLOGÍA

Se diseñó una investigación empírica, cuantitativa, y de sección transversal, basada en la revisión de la literatura de las variables. El estudio se desarrolló en empresas industriales ubicadas en las ciudades de Juárez y Chihuahua, en el estado de Chihuahua, México. La muestra fue no probabilística, e incluyó a gerentes, supervisores, analistas, ingenieros y técnicos. En total se contó con 278 instrumentos válidos.

La contrastación de las hipótesis del modelo propuesto se llevó a cabo a través de un Sistema de Ecuaciones Estructurales basado en Covarianzas –CBSEM-. Para el análisis de los datos se siguió el procedimiento de dos etapas recomendado por Anderson y Gerbing (1988): en la primera, se llevó a cabo un Análisis Factorial Confirmatorio (AFC); en la segunda, se agregaron las relaciones estructurales propuestas entre las variables, analizándose mediante un CBSEM. Tanto el AFC como el CBSEM se estimaron con apoyo del software estadístico EQS 6.1. (Bentler 1985 - 2005), utilizándose el Método de Máxima Verosimilitud (ML) con la corrección estadística de Satorra y Bentler (1994). El modelo de medida mostró un buen ajuste, ya que los indicadores cumplen con los criterios de corte convencionales (BBNFI=0.922; BBNNFI=0.974; CFI=0.979; IFI=0.979; MFI=0.941; RMSEA=0.035).

En lo relativo a la fiabilidad y validez convergente, los resultados indican que: 1) todas las relaciones de los ítems con sus factores son significativas, 2) la magnitud de las cargas estandarizadas exceden el valor crítico de 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) y 3) el promedio de éstas en cada factor supera 0.70. Respecto a la consistencia interna: 1) en todos los casos los valores alfa de Cronbach exceden 0.70; 2) los índices de fiabilidad compuesta (IFC), superan 0.60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) y 3) todos los índices de varianza extraída (AVE) son mayores de 0.50. Con respecto a la validez discriminante, los resultados sugieren que existe ya que: 1) ninguno de los intervalos de confianza, para $\pm 2 \lambda$ comprenden la unidad y 2) los valores de los AVE son mayores a los cuadrados de los coeficientes de correlación entre los factores. En resumen, se confirmó la fiabilidad, y la validez convergente y discriminante del modelo global de medida.

RESULTADOS

Modelo estructural

Una vez establecida la fiabilidad y validez del modelo de medida se procedió a realizar la contrastación de las hipótesis a través del CBSEM correspondiente (tabla 1), empleando también estadísticos robustos (Satorra & Bentler, 1994). Las tres hipótesis planteadas resultaron significativas para un nivel de $p < 0.01$. En consecuencia, no fue posible rechazar ninguna de ellas.

Tabla 1: Resultados del SEM para la contrastación de hipótesis

Hipótesis	Relación estructural propuesta			λ (estandarizada)	Resultado		
H ₁	Confianza → Intención y disposición para compartir			0.280**	No rechazada		
H ₂	Compromiso afectivo → Intención y disposición para compartir			0.403***	No rechazada		
H ₃	Intención y disposición para compartir → Transferencia de conocimiento intra-organizacional			0.507***	No rechazada		
Indicadores de bondad de ajuste:		BBNFI	BBNNFI	CFI	IFI	MFI	RMSEA
S-B χ^2 (100gl) = 160.5004***		0.905	0.954	0.962	0.962	0.897	0.047
** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$							

De acuerdo con los resultados obtenidos, tanto la *Confianza en la habilidad* como el *Compromiso Afectivo* influyen directa, positiva y significativamente sobre la *Intención y disposición para compartir* conocimiento, aunque de forma comparativa, la segunda variable tiene una influencia mayor. En el caso de la variable *Confianza en la habilidad*, los resultados muestran que existe una relación estadísticamente significativa mostrando un valor *path* 0.280 con un nivel $p < 0.01$. Para la variable *Compromiso afectivo*, los valores resultantes indican un valor *path* 0.403 con un nivel $p < 0.001$. En lo que respecta a la relación entre la *Intención y disposición para compartir* y la *Transferencia de conocimiento intra-organizacional*, los hallazgos confirman la relación significativa, directa y positiva con un valor *path* de 0.507 a un nivel $p < 0.001$.

CONCLUSIONES

De acuerdo con los resultados empíricos obtenidos se confirma que la transferencia de conocimiento intra-organizacional es influida positiva y significativamente por la intención y la disposición de las personas para compartir su conocimiento. Luego, la empresa cuyo propósito sea la creación de ventajas competitivas sustentadas en dicho activo, requiere desarrollar mecanismos que faciliten las condiciones para que la intención y la disposición para compartir ocurran, además de que deberá generar un entorno que minimice las barreras y riesgos inherentes a la transferencia de este activo intelectual.

Tanto la confianza en la habilidad, como el compromiso afectivo, inciden sobre la intención y disposición para compartir conocimiento. No obstante, es de recalcar que comparativamente, el compromiso afectivo ejerce una influencia mayor que la confianza en la habilidad. El compromiso afectivo mutuo tiene la capacidad de servir como un reductor de la incertidumbre y un facilitador para la intención y disposición para compartir, ya que se encuentra cimentado sobre la disposición de actuar en beneficio de la organización y de los involucrados en ésta. Aspectos como la empatía y el afecto hacia la organización o hacia ciertas personas pueden ser elementos relevantes en la evaluación de la fuente hacia la generación de una predisposición positiva a la intención a compartir el conocimiento. En ese sentido, los resultados obtenidos confirman la existencia de una influencia directa, positiva y significativa del compromiso afectivo sobre la intención de compartir conocimiento, así como una influencia indirecta sobre la transferencia de conocimiento dentro de las fronteras organizacionales.

En este trabajo se estudió la relación indirecta entre el compromiso afectivo y la confianza en la habilidad, respecto de la transferencia de conocimiento. Se recomienda que en estudios posteriores se analicen modelos que estudien tanto las relaciones directas como las indirectas. Además, resultaría también relevante analizar las relaciones aquí planteadas, en estudios longitudinales ya que las relaciones propuestas pudieran resultar en círculos virtuosos.

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PLATAFORMA MOODLE: INNOVACION EDUCATIVA EN ESTUDIOS DE POSGRADO

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RESUMEN

En el presente trabajo se describen las actividades de innovación educativa realizadas mediante la utilización de la Plataforma Moodle, relacionadas con el diseño y desarrollo de metodologías en la enseñanza/aprendizaje aplicadas a un Curso Propedéutico de Contabilidad de la Maestría en Administración, de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez, con el objetivo de contrastar la hipótesis de que la enseñanza a través de la citada Plataforma virtual, motivará mucho más a los profesionistas que provienen de diversos campos disciplinarios, como la medicina, ingeniería, administración, economía, etc., de forma que los conocimientos y competencias obtenidos en éste Curso Introductorio se verán ampliamente potenciados, asimismo, a través de éste recorrido virtual, se pretende fomentar la autonomía en el aprendizaje y la reflexión crítica por parte del alumno. Es de señalar que hasta ahora el Curso Propedéutico de Contabilidad se ofrece únicamente en forma presencial pero está considerado que en un futuro muy próximo, los alumnos tengan la opción de cursarlo en forma virtual a través de la citada Plataforma Moodle.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Plataforma Moodle, enseñanza-aprendizaje, innovación educativa.

PLATFORM MOODLE: EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION IN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

ABSTRACT

This paper describes the educational innovation activities carried out through the use of the Moodle platform, related to the design and development of methodologies in the teaching/learning applied to an introductory course in accounting of the MBA, the Autonomous University of Ciudad Juarez, in order to test the hypothesis that the above-mentioned platform for virtual education, it will motivate more professionals who come from diverse disciplinary fields, such as medicine, engineering, administration, economy, etc., in such a way that the knowledge and skills gained in this introductory course will be widely enhanced also through this virtual tour will encourage autonomy in learning and critical part of the student reflection. It should be noted that so far the introductory course in accounting is offered solely in a face-to-face manner but it is considered that, in the very near future, students have the option of studying in virtual form through the aforementioned Moodle platform.

JEL: I23, I29

KEYWORDS: Moodle platform, Education-apprenticeship, innovation activities

INTRODUCCION

En el presente trabajo se analiza la definición, las características, módulos y recursos de la Plataforma Moodle, asimismo, se describe el Curso Propedéutico de Contabilidad de la Maestría en Administración de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez y la metodología empleada para su preparación.

REVISION LITERARIA

Moodle es un Ambiente Educativo Virtual, sistema de gestión de cursos, de distribución libre, que ayuda a los educadores a crear comunidades de aprendizaje en línea. Este tipo de plataformas tecnológicas también se conoce como LMS (Learning Management System).

Moodle fue creado por Martin Dougiamas, quien fue administrador de WebCT en la Universidad Tecnológica de Curtin. Basó su diseño en las ideas del constructivismo en pedagogía que afirman que el conocimiento se construye en la mente del estudiante en lugar de ser transmitido sin cambios a partir de libros o enseñanzas y en el aprendizaje colaborativo. Un profesor que opera desde este punto de vista crea un ambiente centrado en el estudiante que le ayuda a construir ese conocimiento con base en sus habilidades y conocimientos propios en lugar de simplemente publicar y transmitir la información que se considera que los estudiantes deben conocer.

La primera versión de la herramienta apareció el 20 de agosto de 2002 y, a partir de allí han aparecido nuevas versiones de forma regular. Hasta julio de 2008, la base de usuarios registrados incluye más 21 millones, distribuidos en 46.000 sitios en todo el mundo y está traducido a más de 85 idiomas.¹

METODOLOGIA

Para el diseño y desarrollo de metodologías de enseñanza/aprendizaje del Curso Propedéutico de Contabilidad de la Maestría en Administración, de la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez, fue necesario llevar a cabo las siguientes tareas:

Definición de los elementos de aprendizaje: El Plan Temático del curso fue desmenuzado en elementos de aprendizaje teniendo en cuenta que cada elemento tuviera bien definidos sus objetivos en base a las habilidades y/o competencias a formar en el estudiante, así como el alcance en cuanto a contenidos a tratar..

Elaboración del sistema de evaluación: El curso virtual propedéutico de contabilidad tiene definido un conjunto de actividades de evaluación que conforman un sistema en el que están indicadas las actividades que deben ser realizadas por los estudiantes para poder cumplir con los objetivos de formación de habilidades y/o competencias.

El Sistema de Evaluación consta de actividades que puedan ser planificadas y ejecutadas por medio del sistema de educación virtual; los tipos de actividades son:

- Tareas
- Cuestionarios
- Foros calificados

Para cada actividad están definidos el(los) objetivo(s) en término de la(s) habilidad(es) y/o competencia(s) evaluada(s), así como una descripción clara de lo que debe realizar el estudiante.

Elaboración del banco de preguntas: Para las autoevaluaciones de los elementos de aprendizaje se elaboraron un conjunto de preguntas previamente definidas conocidas en la Plataforma Moodle como Banco de Preguntas, el cual consta de interrogantes de los siguientes tipos:

Verdadero/Falso
Opción múltiple con selección simple.
Respuesta corta.

Diseño del curso virtual: El curso se diseñó teniendo en cuenta los siguientes aspectos: Se planificó por semanas en virtud de ser de duración específica (inicio y fin con fecha calendario). El contenido del curso fue esparcido equitativamente en las dos semanas que dura el mismo. En cada semana constan los recursos y actividades suficientes para garantizar la formación de las habilidades y/o competencias requeridas en los estudiantes. Dentro de las actividades se incluyen Foro general de noticias y novedades así como el foro propio del curso. El sistema de evaluación de los elementos de aprendizaje, está integrado por preguntas de autoevaluación que permiten al estudiante conocer el estado de los conocimientos, habilidades y/o competencias que ha obtenido.

RESULTADOS

El Curso Propedéutico de Contabilidad es uno de cuatro cursos introductorios de 30 horas cada uno que se imparte durante dos semanas a los alumnos que inician el estudio de la Maestría de Administración en la Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez y cuya docencia la tiene asignada el Departamento de Ciencias Administrativas. El mencionado curso actualmente es ofrecido a los alumnos en forma presencial y próximamente tendrán la opción de cursarla a través del campo virtual mediante el uso de la Plataforma Moodle.

El objetivo del curso es que los alumnos conozcan la importancia de la información financiera y que sean capaces de interpretar aquella que proporcionan tanto el Estado de Situación Financiera ó Balance General como el Estado de Resultados ó Estado de Pérdidas y Ganancias de una empresa. Lo anterior se pretende lograr a través de dos etapas, la primera de ellas teórica y la segunda práctica. En la etapa teórica se proyecta que los alumnos sean capaces de:

- Identificar los tipos de Organizaciones económicas, usuarios y contabilidades
- Deducir el tipo de decisiones al que corresponden las diversas situaciones que se dan en las empresas.
- Identificar las características, los postulados, los conceptos y los Estados Financieros básicos que rigen la información financiera.
- Analizar el concepto, objetivo, estructura, cuentas que intervienen, su manejo y significado así como las formas de presentación de un Estado de Situación Financiera ó Balance General.
- Analizar el concepto, objetivo, estructura, cuentas que intervienen, manejo y significado de un Estado de Resultados.

En la etapa práctica se tratará que los alumnos sean capaces de:

- Preparar el Estado de Situación Financiera o Balance General
- Preparar el Estado de Resultados ó Estado de Pérdidas y Ganancias
- Interpretar la información financiera que proporcionan tanto el Estado de Situación Financiera o

Balance General así como el Estado de Resultados ó Estado de Pérdidas y Ganancias.

CONCLUSIONES

La innovación educativa en estudios de posgrado a través del uso de la Plataforma Moodle: Dará a los estudiantes la opción de auto administrarse el tiempo, consiguiendo que les sea posible mayor independencia y autonomía. Facilitará la comunicación bidireccional de los alumnos, tanto con sus profesores como con sus pares, ya que no se sujetarán a un horario de clase. Hará posible disponer de recursos didácticos constantemente actualizados en gran variedad de formatos y a un menor costo que los tradicionales libros impresos. Permitirá al docente llevar un registro y seguimiento completo de los accesos de sus alumnos, ya que dispone de informes de actividades de cada estudiante, con gráficos y detalles sobre su paso por cada módulo, así como también una detallada historia de cada una de sus participaciones.

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BIOGRAFIA

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ESTRATEGIAS Y RENDIMIENTO DE LAS MICRO, PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES (AGUASCALIENTES MÉXICO)

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RESUMEN

Muchos estudios han considerado la relación de las variables estrategia-rendimiento con diferentes tipos de empresas familiares. En este estudio se usó la tipología de Miles, Snow et al. (1977) y el modelo de Quinn y Rohrbaugh (1983) para medir el rendimiento de las MiPymes de Aguascalientes, tomando como referencia su tamaño y edad. Los resultados indican que la estrategia analizadora es la predominante, no existiendo diferencia entre la estrategia y su edad; la analizadora predomina en los tres tamaños, la exploradora es menos predominante para las pequeñas y la reactiva es la menos referida para las micro y medianas; en cuanto a los indicadores del rendimiento, el análisis factorial indica que la imagen, rentabilidad y rotación del personal, son los más saturados sin importar el tipo de estrategia utilizado; en cuanto a rendimiento, se desprende que el tamaño influye positivamente y el impacto del rendimiento es mayor que la edad o la estrategia definida. Estos resultados generan un modelo que muestra la relación entre los modelos de rendimiento, sus indicadores y las Configuraciones estratégicas de las MiPymes familiares de Aguascalientes.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Estratégicas, Modelos de Rendimiento, Indicadores de Rendimiento, MiPymes Familiares.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En México el interés por el estudio de las Micro, Pequeña y Mediana empresas [Mipymes] Familiares proviene de la importancia que tienen en el entorno y por sus contribuciones tanto a la generación de empleos, como de riqueza en el país, ya que cubren el 95.5% del total de las empresas a nivel nacional y son generadoras del 45% del PIB INEGI (2004), lo cual implica que se les conceda mayor atención, sin embargo, en los últimos años han sido producto de un deterioro paulatino, a consecuencia de la pérdida de competitividad y de rendimiento por la falta de apoyos para mantener el crecimiento y el desarrollo, lo que ha traído como resultado la pérdida de empleos y el cierre de empresas de dicho sector, debido a la competencia internacional y a la globalización de los mercados; siendo la pérdida de empleos una problemática social de manera general en México, y en particular para Aguascalientes dado que presenta niveles de desempleo por debajo de la media nacional, por lo que es factor prioritario a considerar tanto por las empresas como los responsables de la política pública.

Las preguntas en esta investigación se centraron en responder ¿en qué tipología de estrategia empresarial se ubican las MiPymes familiares en el estado de Aguascalientes? y ¿cómo es la relación entre el tipo de estrategia y los diferentes indicadores del rendimiento de las empresas según su tamaño y antigüedad?. Las hipótesis que se derivan de estos cuestionamientos son:

H1: No existe un tipo de estrategia predominante en las MiPymes familiares de Aguascalientes;

H2: Los tipos de estrategia empresarial en las MiPymes familiares siguen un patrón definido para cada indicador del rendimiento

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

Estrategia Organizacional: Las organizaciones cuentan con una estrategia aún cuando no sea de modo explícito, para responder a las condiciones cambiantes del ambiente. Como lo señalan Stoner y Wankel (1989) la concepción de estrategia puede hacerse en dos sentidos, la perspectiva de lo que una organización intenta hacer, donde la estrategia es “el programa general para definir y alcanzar los objetivos de la organización y poner en práctica su misión” y la perspectiva de lo que eventualmente se hace, sin importar si en un principio se deseaba realizar esas acciones, así la estrategia es el “patrón de las respuestas de las organizaciones a su ambiente a través del tiempo”. Esta última conceptualización de estrategia hace referencia a como las organizaciones van adaptando a los cambios ambientales, es decir, no son estáticas, sino cambiantes, atraviesan por diferentes momentos y problemáticas que hacen realizar cambios en sus estrategias; estos aspectos han sido teorizados por Miles, Snow, y Pfeffer (1974).

Miles y Snow et. al (1977) desarrollaron un modelo general denominado ciclo adaptativo, consistente con el enfoque de elección de la estrategia para el estudio de las organizaciones, señalan que el modelo se basa en ideas paralelas planteadas por teóricos como Chandler (1962), Child (1972), y Cyert y March (1963), en: Miles & Snow et al. (1977) entre otros argumentan que el comportamiento organizacional esta sólo orientado parcialmente por las condiciones medioambientales y que las decisiones que toman los gerentes son determinantes críticos de los procesos y la estructura organizacional. Aunque estas decisiones son numerosas y complejas, pueden situarse como tres amplios problemas: en primer lugar, el conjunto de problemas empresariales enfocados en definir el producto de la empresa y el mercado dominante; en segundo lugar el conjunto de problemas de ingeniería relacionado con la decisión de la tecnología que es utilizada en producción y distribución; finalmente, el problema administrativo implica la selección y el desarrollo de la estructura organizacional y el proceso de las políticas de la empresa. Ante estas problemáticas la pregunta es ¿qué estrategias usan las organizaciones para resolver estos problemas?, las investigaciones que han realizado y la interpretación de la literatura muestra que hay tres tipos de estrategias prospectivas (exploradoras), defensivas y analizadoras y que un cuarto tipo son las reactivas, que son una forma de estrategia “fracasada” ya que hay inconsistencia entre la estrategia, la tecnología, la estructura y los procesos.

Las Prospectivas o exploradoras: (entusiastas). Miles, Snow, y Pfeffer (1974) las conceptualiza como organizaciones donde sus gerentes perciben o crean continuamente cambios o incertidumbre en el ambiente. Su fuerza es la identificación y explotación de nuevos productos y más oportunidades en el mercado Parnell y Wright (1993). Las organizaciones defensivas (*defender sus dominios*) según Miles, Snow, y Pfeffer (1974) son organizaciones donde sus gerentes perciben poco o ningún cambio en el medio ambiente haciendo el mínimo ajuste a su estructura y proceso organizacionales. Para Parnell y Wright (1993) son casi lo contrario de las prospectivas. Las *organizaciones analizadoras* (ansiosas) son organizaciones donde sus gerentes perciben una oportunidad de cambio y de incertidumbre en el medio ambiente y esperan que los competidores desarrollen una respuesta viable y adoptarla Miles et al. (1974). Parnell y Wright (1993) consideran que enfatizan la estabilidad y la flexibilidad e intentan sacar provecho a lo mejor de ambos tipos de estrategias preliminares. Las *organizaciones reactivas* (reacios) para Miles, Snow, y Pfeffer (1974) son organizaciones donde sus gerentes perciben algún cambio o incertidumbre en el medio ambiente, no harán ningún ajuste a menos que se vean forzados a hacerlo. En cambio para Parnell y Wright (1993) representan una estrategia residual, carecen de coherencia en la elección estratégica y se desarrollan de forma carente y pobre.

Rendimiento Organizacional: El rendimiento de las organizaciones, es un indicador muy amplio que deberá considerar las medidas financieras y no financieras Harold & Darlene (2004); Kaplan & Norton (1992); Rajendar & Jun Ma (2005), y puede incluir la productividad, la calidad, la consistencia, los resultados, los comportamientos (basados en criterios) y medidas normativas, la educación y la capacitación teórica y práctica, incluyendo el desarrollo de la gestión y la capacitación de los líderes para desarrollar las habilidades y actitudes necesarias para la gestión del rendimiento Richard (2002). Las variables de rendimiento utilizadas en este trabajo se basan en la clasificación propuesta por Quinn y Rohrbaugh (1983), que establecen un marco para el análisis organizacional y señalan que el criterio de eficiencia organizacional tiene tres ejes o dimensiones. La relación entre los ejes de los modelos de rendimiento y los indicadores para cada uno de ellos, se presentan conforme propuesta de Quinn y Rohrbaugh (1983). El primero relacionado con el *enfoque de la organización*, desde un punto de vista interno (basado en una visión micro sobre el buen entendimiento y el desarrollo del personal) a uno externo (énfasis a nivel macro del éxito de la empresa); el segundo, se centra en la *estructura organizacional*, haciendo hincapié desde la estabilidad/control hasta la flexibilidad; y la tercera dimensión, se relaciona con los *medios y fines organizacionales*.

De la combinación de estas tres dimensiones surgen cuatro modelos de rendimiento y sus indicadores, son la base para la obtención de la información sobre esta variable: Modelo de rendimiento de procesos internos (MRPI), Modelo de rendimiento como Sistema Abierto (MRSA), Modelo de rendimiento de Metas Racionales (MRMR), Modelo de rendimiento de Relaciones Humanas (MRRH)

Evidencias empíricas de la relación Estrategia y Rendimiento: Investigaciones previas muestran la relación entre la estrategia y el rendimiento organizacional desde el ámbito financiero o de rentabilidad Snow y Hrebiniak (1980); Floyd, y Zahra (1990); Das, Zahra, y Warkentin (1991); Zahra y Covin (1994); Parnell, Wright, y Tu, H. (1996); García y Gallego (2006); Jusoh, y Parnell (2008). Sólo algunos estudios relacionan la Tipología de estrategia organizacional con la innovación y el rendimiento Zahra (1990; 1999). Con Parnell y Wright (1993) inician estudios empíricos sobre el rendimiento y las estrategias genéricas, son continuadas por ellos mismos y otros autores Parnell (1994); Parnell, Wright, y Tu (1996); Parnell (1997), Nicholas, y Abby (2006); Parnell (2006); Jusoh, y Parnell (2008); Lester, Parnell, Crandall, y Menefee (2008). Algunos estudios relacionan las estrategias y el rendimiento con el tamaño de las empresas en particular con las pequeñas empresas Floyd y Zahra (1990); Miles, Covin y Heeley (2000); Nicholas y Abby (2006). Diferentes investigaciones relacionan el estudio de la estrategia y el rendimiento con variables como la flexibilidad Parnell (1994), las características del ejecutivo Thomas y Ramaswamy (1989) las características ambientales Zahra y Bogner (2000) y recientemente hay interés en la relación de la estrategia-rendimiento y el rol de la suerte ("*Luck*") como factor estratégico entre administradores Parnell y Dent (2009).

No se han encontrado en la literatura revisada estudios que relacionen la tipología de Miles y Snow y los modelos de rendimiento de Quinn y Rohrbaugh, por lo que éste trabajo busca relacionar ambos con la finalidad de generar conocimiento en relación a estas variables y ver su comportamiento en las MiPymes en Aguascalientes.

METODOLOGÍA

El presente estudio empírico es de corte cuantitativo, descriptivo y correlacional. Para determinar la muestra, se utilizó el Directorio Empresarial del Sistema de Información Empresarial de México SIEM (2008), de la Secretaría de Economía (SE, el cual tenía 8,661 empresas registradas al 31 de agosto de 2008, de los diferentes sectores y tamaños. Para efectos de este estudio, se tomaron únicamente aquellas empresas del Estado de Aguascalientes que tenían entre 5 y 250 trabajadores (MiPymes), quedando un total de 1,342 empresas García Pérez de Lema y Martínez Serna (2009). Para el diseño general de la

muestra se consideraron los principios del muestreo estratificado en poblaciones finitas, segmentando en función del tamaño de la empresa y su actividad empresarial. El error muestral obtenido fue $\pm 4.1\%$ con un grado de fiabilidad del 95%, quedando constituida por 400 empresas: 228 micro empresas (180 familiares), 134 pequeñas empresas (98 familiar) y 38 medianas empresas (18 familiar). La variable estrategia organizacional se midió a través de cuatro ítems a partir de la tipología de configuraciones estratégicas de Miles y Snow Miles et al. (1977) que considera: *Empresas Exploradoras (A)*, *Empresas Analizadoras (B)*, *Empresas Defensivas (C)* y *Empresas sin Estrategia Definida o Empresas Reactivas (D)*; la medición se hizo a partir de la elección de una de ellas que a consideración del gerente identifica a su empresa atendiendo a la actuación en los últimos dos años. La variable de rendimiento contempló en total doce ítems partiendo del instrumento de Quinn y Rohrbaugh (1983) que presenta cuatro modelos (3 ítems para cada uno), medidos en una escala tipo likert de 5 puntos, que va de muy desfavorable a muy favorable. La información obtenida a partir de las encuestas se incorporó a una base datos de SPSS ver.17, con ella se trabajó para analizar los siguientes procedimientos estadísticos: Tablas de Contingencia y Análisis Factorial.

RESULTADOS Y DISCUSIÓN

Los resultados sobre los Tipos de configuraciones estratégicas de empresas los resultados indican (como se muestra abajo) que en Aguascalientes predomina la estrategia empresarial Analizadora (Tipo B) que mantiene una base relativamente estable de productos y mercados y de manera selectiva desarrolla nuevos productos con un 39.0 por ciento, le siguen en orden decreciente la defensiva con un 28.5%, la exploradora en menor grado con 18.8% y la reactiva es la menos referida con un 13.8%.

Tabla 1: Análisis Factorial de Indicadores de Rendimiento vs. Tipos de Estrategias

indicadores de rendimiento (quinn & rohrbaugh, 1983)		exploradoras	analizadoras	defensivas	sin estrategia definida
		a	b	c	d
proceso interno	calidad de producto				.819
	eficiencia		.818		
	organización del trabajo	.789		.837	
sistema abierto	satisfacción del cliente				
	adaptación a mercado				
	imagen de la empresa	0.671	0.751	0.806	0.903
metas racionales	cuota mercado		0.847		
	rentabilidad	0.733		0.863	0.904
	productividad				
recursos humanos	motivación				
	rotación de personal	.908	.900	.895	
	ausentismo				.819
medida de adecuación kaiser meyer o.(kmo) > 0.6		0.842	0.888	0.879	0.779
variabilidad explicada		77.66%	79.81%	80.5%	87.07%

Los resultados del Análisis Factorial de Indicadores de Rendimiento vs. Tipos de Estrategias (Tabla 1) confirman parcialmente la H₂. Para interpretar la información obtenida de las encuestas, se procedió a realizar un análisis de factores de manera que se pudiera observar el comportamiento natural de la variable estrategia, con respecto a los indicadores de la variable rendimiento, al saturar cada uno de los factores.

El análisis de factores se elaboró determinando cuatro Factores Fijos (que coinciden con el tipo de estrategia), con el método de rotación por máxima variación y los valores de saturación se expresan en la tabla 3. La variabilidad explicada en cualquiera de las columnas supera el 77% de variabilidad explicada. En la parte izquierda se ubica la variable Rendimientos en sus modelos (Procesos Internos, Sistemas abiertos, Metas racionales y Recursos Humanos). La expectativa era que para cada modelo de la variable, las saturaciones factoriales coincidieran en su mayoría con algún indicador. Se obtuvo lo siguiente:

El análisis de los resultados en cuanto a la H₂ *Los tipos de estrategia empresarial en las MiPymes siguen un patrón definido para cada indicador del rendimiento*, mostró que de los doce indicadores del rendimiento solo ocho son elegidos por las empresas estudiadas, y de estos uno “Imagen de la empresa” presenta un patrón definido para las cuatro estrategias, y dos elegidos por tres de las cuatro estrategias “Incremento en la rentabilidad” y “Reducción de la Rotación de Personal”, por lo tanto se confirma parcialmente la hipótesis, ello representa que sin importar cual estrategia utilice la empresa los indicadores mencionados son considerados fundamentales por encima de Satisfacción del cliente / Adaptación a mercado, Cuota de mercado / Productividad, Motivación / Ausentismo.

CONCLUSIONES

Como los señala la literatura la elección de la estrategia organizacional está relacionada con aspectos como el ciclo de adaptación y el tipo de problemática con que se enfrenta la empresa Miles, Snow, Meyer y Coleman (1977); también se relacionan la estrategia y el rendimiento con las características de los ejecutivos como lo propone Thomas (1991) a partir de su modelo que se orienta con la proposición de que la co-alineación entre las características de los ejecutivos y la estrategia organizacional tiene implicaciones en el rendimiento de la organización. De manera que esta investigación permite reflexionar que las argumentaciones empíricas no pueden ser generalizables a todos los contextos empresariales y que, por lo tanto, para poder entregar lineamientos más cercanos a la realidad de las empresas, cada empresario debe ubicarlos en su contexto específico.

Para futuras investigaciones sería el hacer un estudio más amplio sobre el Modelo de Rendimiento y sus Indicadores, visto desde la estructura organizacional (Estabilidad/Control-Flexibilidad), el enfoque organizacional (Mico/Interno-Macro/Externo) y los objetivos organizacionales (Medios o fines), para identificar si las empresas están “conscientes” cómo es su estructura organizacional, dónde están ubicadas y cómo los indicadores de rendimiento contribuyen a los medios o fines organizacionales.

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MEDICIÓN DEL POTENCIAL DE ASOCIATIVIDAD ENTRE EMPRESAS EMPLEANDO EL MÉTODO MACTOR

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RESUMEN

La asociatividad empresarial es una estrategia para enfrentar los mercados globalizados y la creciente competencia proveniente de otras empresas tanto del país como del exterior. Es considerada hoy día como un mecanismo para el logro de la competitividad partiendo de la premisa de que, a mayor nivel de organización y cooperación, mayor efectividad en el logro de los objetivos comunes. El presente artículo tiene la finalidad de mostrar las ventajas de aplicar el método Mactor para medir el nivel de potencialidad entre un grupo de empresas, basado en la definición de objetivos financieros, operacionales, comerciales, entre otros. Con este método se podrá realizar un análisis detallado de las posibles alianzas, teniendo en cuenta los intereses comunes entre las empresas que desean iniciar un proceso asociativo. El artículo propuesto finaliza con los resultados alcanzados en dos casos exitosos aplicados en empresas del sector turístico en la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias – Colombia.

Palabras clave: Asociaciones, Asociatividad, competitividad, cooperación, Método Mactor.

ABSTRACT

The managerial associativity is a strategy to face the included global markets and increased competition from other companies both at home and abroad. It is considered today as a mechanism for achieving competitiveness, based on the premise that a higher level of organization and cooperation, more effective in achieving common objectives. This article is intended to show the advantages of applying the method to measure the level MACTOR of potential between a group of companies, based on the definition of financial targets, operational, commercial, among others. This method can perform a detailed analysis of possible alliances, taking into account the common interests between companies wishing to start a partnership process. The proposed article ends with the results achieved in two cases successfully employed in the tourism industry in the city of Cartagena de Indias - Colombia

JEL: D70, C02

KEYWORDS: Associations, Associative, competitiveness, cooperation, Method MACTOR.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Ante la apertura económica, las empresas locales se han visto en la necesidad de buscar estrategias que contribuyan a aumentar su competitividad, dando así respuesta a los diferentes desafíos a los que se enfrentan en un entorno cada vez más competitivo y exigente. Se ha encontrado que las pymes son aún más propensas a la competencia por aspectos como la falta de organización interna, financiamiento, limitación de recursos, costos elevados y falta de innovación tecnológica, es por esto que desde hace

varios años se está proponiendo la asociatividad como una estrategia para su supervivencia empresarial (Liendo y Martínez, 2001).

Mucho se viene hablando de asociatividad, en círculos académicos, gubernamentales y hasta entre los empresarios mismos. Y no es para menos, el concepto seduce, por su simplicidad y atractivo, como un medio de supervivencia empresarial. Para nadie es un secreto que la competencia que enfrentará el empresario Latinoamericano será cada vez más fuerte, tanto a nivel doméstico como del comercio internacional facilitado, en parte, por los tratados de libre comercio suscritos y por suscribir con algunos países y regiones; de suerte que la competencia internacional que se avecina ya no será exclusivamente contra el competidor doméstico, sino contra el competidor externo.

La asociatividad definida como un mecanismo de cooperación entre organizaciones, empresas o territorios (manteniendo su independencia jurídica y autonomía), permite que un grupo de voluntarios unan esfuerzos, para la búsqueda de objetivos, oportunidades y metas comunes (Rosales, 1997)

En Colombia se han dado casos exitosos de asociatividad como ASIMECAR, ANIPAN y L'Alianza, (Clavijo, 2009) pero se evidencia la poca cultura de la cooperación existente entre las Pymes, con un supuesto énfasis en considerar las empresas del sector como competencia y en la creencia de la desaparición del otro para poder crecer en el mercado, en la poca inclinación hacia las formas asociativas y particularmente cooperativas; a pesar de ello, existen en el país más de 60.000 empresas que han adoptado formas asociativas (Villegas, 2002).

Si bien se ha usado este modelo estratégico para enfrentar el mercado globalizado, se han dado casos fallidos de asociatividad debido a la falta de cooperación, honestidad y accesibilidad por parte de las empresas a su información interna, procesos y procedimientos (León, Victoria y Vergara, 2004). Por esta razón la asociatividad se debe dar entre actores que puedan generar objetivos comunes, donde cada uno pueda cooperar de manera activa y eficaz en la consecución de dichos objetivos, para el progreso de todos los asociados.

Teniendo en cuenta la dificultad de establecer estrategias comunes entre empresas que podrían dar pie a la creación de una asociatividad, el presente artículo propone la aplicación del Método Mactor como herramienta idónea para medir el potencial de asociatividad, a partir de la definición de una serie de objetivos estratégicos enmarcados en el pensamiento asociativo.

Este artículo incluye las experiencias abstraídas de dos casos aplicados en empresas del sector turístico de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias (Colombia), que dan ejemplo del potencial en el uso del método Mactor para establecer posibles alianzas entre un grupo de empresas. Las características geográficas, sus atractivos naturales y culturales, su riqueza histórica, instalaciones hoteleras, sus vías y puertos, entre otros, convierten a Cartagena de Indias D.T. y C. en uno de los destinos principales de veraneo y negocios en el mar Caribe, principal motivante para la realización de este estudio en el sector.

EL MÉTODO MACTOR

El método de análisis de juego de actores, Mactor, busca valorar las relaciones de fuerza entre los actores y estudiar sus convergencias y divergencias con respecto a un cierto número de posturas y de objetivos asociados (Godet, 2003). La utilización del método Mactor consiste en suministrar a los actores una ayuda para la decisión de la puesta en marcha de su política de alianzas y de conflictos, permitiendo

describir el sistema gracias a una matriz que une todos sus componentes. El método ofrece la posibilidad de obtener información basada en matrices matemáticas, donde se relacionan actores y objetivos, denotando el origen de posibles alianzas e identificación de conflictos, lo que originará posibles hipótesis sobre el estado del futuro.

El análisis de las relaciones entre actores (empresas voluntarias) y los objetivos estratégicos planteados, permite destacar aquellas variables clave que justificarían la creación de una figura asociativa. Este método estimula la reflexión dentro del grupo de actores (Arcade, *et al.* 2004).

Aplicación del Método Mactor

Medir la viabilidad de asociación (o potencialidad de asociatividad), entre un grupo de empresas provenientes del mismo sector, mediante la aplicación del método Mactor implica el desarrollo de una encuesta estructurada y un conjunto de herramientas matemáticas que concluyan en tácticas, objetivos y recomendaciones.

A partir de este análisis, el objetivo de la utilización del método Mactor consiste en facilitar a un actor una ayuda para la decisión de la puesta en marcha de su política de alianzas y de conflictos. El método Mactor comprende 7 fases:

Fase 1 - Construir el cuadro de "estrategias de los actores": Se requerirá de un acuerdo inicial de un grupo de empresas (de un sector en común o con razón social similar, usualmente identificadas en el método con la letra A más un consecutivo numérico), que voluntariamente, deciden aceptar participar en una indagación sobre intereses y objetivos que desean compartir con los posibles aliados.

Fase 2 - Identificar los retos estratégicos y los objetivos asociados: Uno de los mayores atractivos de ésta figura consiste en la posibilidad de fortalecer el brazo comercial de una empresa (Cerdán, 2004). Según Liendo y Martínez (2001), los requisitos más importantes para que las empresas puedan asociarse son:

Proyecto común, compromiso mutuo, objetivos comunes y riesgos compartidos sin abandonar la independencia de cada uno de los participantes.

En función del objetivo que persigue el grupo, pueden generarse relaciones más o menos duraderas. En el largo plazo una asociación puede concluir en la formación de una empresa con personalidad jurídica y patrimonio propio pero, en este caso, ya deja de ser un modelo asociativo. De acuerdo al Ministerio de Comercio, Industria y Turismo (2005), el proceso asociativo exige la identificación de intereses comunes de trabajo y una oportunidad de negocio que lo dinamice. De manera general, los objetivos usualmente consisten en compartir riesgos y disminuir costos.

Según Ramón Rosales (1997) y Rodrigo González (2008), algunos de los propósitos por los cuales se recurre a estos modelos son:

- **Financieros:** Acceso a financiamiento, cuando las garantías que se requieren no pueden ser cubiertas por cada actor en forma individual, pero en grupo son cubiertas proporcionalmente por parte de cada uno de los participantes, compras conjuntas e inversión conjunta.
- **Organizacionales:** mejora en los procesos productivos, aplicación de nuevas formas de administración, implantación de planeamiento estratégico, intercambio de información productiva

o tecnológica, capacitación conjunta, generación de economías de escala, acceso a recursos o habilidades críticas, acceso a tecnologías de productos o procesos, aumento del poder de negociación, investigación y desarrollo

- De comercialización: Lanzamiento de nuevos productos al mercado, apertura de nuevos mercados, intercambio de información comercial, investigación de mercados, alianzas para vender, servicios post venta conjuntos, inversión conjunta, logística y distribución.

Una aplicación de los objetivos asociativos propuesta por los autores Vergara, Maza y Fontalvo (2010) incluyen 7 componentes estratégicos: Financieros, comerciales, administrativos, operativos, estratégicos, mejora de servicios y asociativos (ver Tabla 1)

Tabla 1: Listado de objetivos (Cada objetivo fue codificado mediante la letra O seguido de un consecutivo numérico.)

TABLA DE OBJETIVOS	
O1	FINANCIEROS
O2	COMERCIALES
O3	ADMINISTRATIVOS
O4	OPERATIVOS
O5	ESTRATÉGICOS
O6	MEJORA DE SERVICIOS
O7	ASOCIATIVOS

Los objetivos planteados anteriormente están estrechamente relacionados con los siguientes conceptos:

FINANCIEROS: Dificultades para la consecución de financiación, tipo de financiamientos, créditos anteriores.

COMERCIALES: Relaciones comerciales, confianza en el sector.

ADMINISTRATIVOS: Intercambio de información gerencial.

OPERATIVOS: Compartir, analizar y mejorar los métodos y procedimientos actuales.

ESTRATÉGICOS: Capacitaciones conjuntas, logística y distribución. La logística y la distribución buscan gerenciar estratégicamente la adquisición, el movimiento, el almacenamiento de productos y el control de inventarios.

MEJORA DE SERVICIOS: Diseño y complementación de servicios. Programas de investigación y desarrollo.

ASOCIATIVOS: Creación formal de la asociatividad entre restaurantes, alianzas de ventas, designación de responsabilidades y tareas.

Fase 3 - Situar cada actor en relación con los objetivos estratégicos (matriz de posiciones): contempla la elaboración de la matriz de valoración de posición por objetivos, la cual proporciona la información acerca de cómo se encuentra la empresa con respecto a los objetivos contemplados (a favor, en contra, neutral o indiferente), simplificados mediante una escala numérica, así:

- 1: A la empresa no le interesa alcanzar el objetivo
- 0: A la empresa le es indiferente alcanzar el objetivo.
- 1: A la empresa le interesa alcanzar el objetivo

En la siguiente Figura se muestra un ejemplo de una matriz de posiciones donde participaron 15 actores en relación a 7 objetivos asociativos.

Figura 1: Matriz de valoración de posición

2MAO	Q	Q	Q	Q	Q	Q	Q
A1	1	1	1	-1	1	1	1
A2	-1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A5	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
A6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A7	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
A8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A9	1	1	1	-1	1	1	1
A10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A12	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1
A13	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
A14	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A15	0	1	1	1	0	1	1

©LIPSOR-EPITA-MACTOR

Fuente: elaboración de los autores. Tomado del software Lipsor-Epita-Mactor

Fase 4 - Jerarquizar para cada actor sus prioridades de objetivos (matriz de posiciones evaluadas): Se identifican los objetivos prioritarios por cada actor y sus posibles relaciones (convergentes y divergentes) con otros actores.

Fase 5 - Evaluar las relaciones de fuerza de los actores: Se establece una matriz o gráfico de influencia directa e indirecta entre los actores participantes. Se identifican los actores dominantes, autónomos, dominados y de enlace.

Fase 6 - Integrar las relaciones de fuerza en el análisis de convergencias y de divergencias entre actores: Se establecen los diagramas finales de convergencia y divergencia incluyendo los objetivos prioritarios por actor y las relaciones de fuerzas, aclarando las posibles alianzas y conflictos.

Fase 7 - Formular las recomendaciones estratégicas: En esta última fase se establecen las recomendaciones y sugerencias relacionadas en torno a la creación de una figura asociativa, delimitada por los objetivos prioritarios y aquellos actores que mantienen una actitud de cooperación con los demás.

CASOS DE APLICACIÓN DEL MÉTODO MACTOR

A continuación se referencian las conclusiones y recomendaciones propuestas en dos casos aplicados a empresas del sector turístico.

Valoración del Potencial de Asociatividad en un Grupo de Hoteles

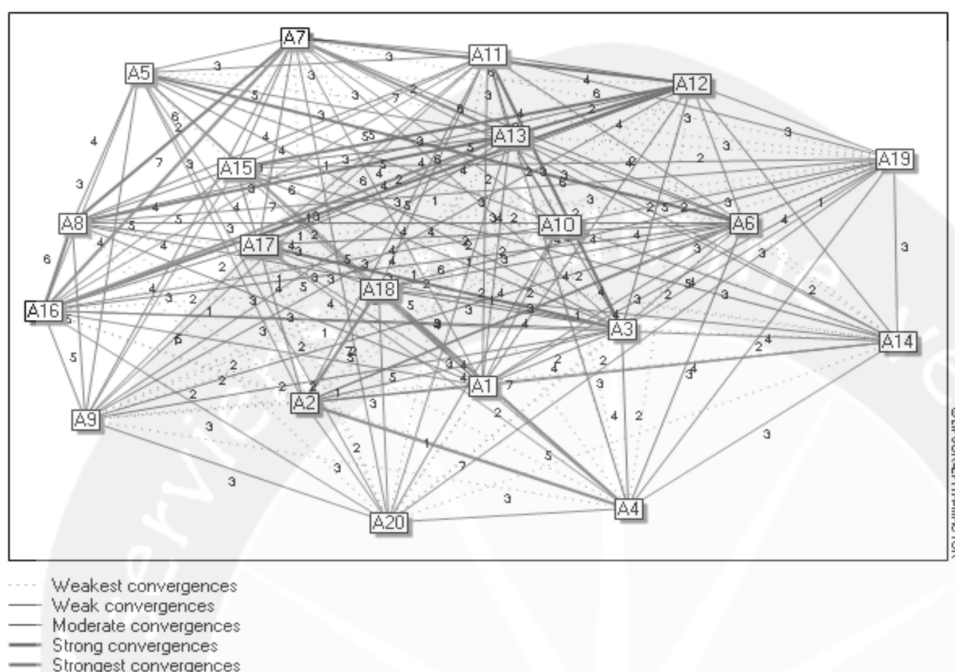
Para el estudio se recolectaron datos provenientes de veinte (20) hoteles clasificados como Pymes (de una población de 27 hoteles identificados para un error máximo de $\pm 5\%$), ubicados en la zona turística de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias (Colombia). El proceso de recolección de información primaria se desarrolló durante el primer semestre de 2010, periodo en el cual fueron contactados los gerentes de dichos establecimientos, quienes voluntariamente aceptaron ser entrevistados y respondieron una encuesta estructurada enfocada en los 7 objetivos de asociatividad (ver Tabla 1).

El empleo de la metodología Mactor como herramienta para el análisis de objetivos entre actores para la creación de asociaciones, permitió establecer los lazos fuertes y débiles a partir de los intereses comunes entre los actores. El análisis de los mapas de convergencia lleva a la conclusión de que, si bien no se apreció un escenario factible de alianza entre todos los actores examinados, ésta resultaría viable por lo menos entre dos grupos: los identificados como A2, A4 y A18, de una parte, y de otra, A7, A13 y A16 (ver Figura 2).

La recomendación del estudio concluyó en la creación de una figura asociatividad entre los hoteles evaluados en este estudio de acuerdo a los objetivos estratégicos, centrados en aspectos de capacitación del talento humano y logística y distribución, áreas de gran impacto en la competitividad de estas organizaciones; en lo comercial, al mejoramiento y ampliación de la oferta de servicios turísticos y conexos.

En síntesis, a la luz de los resultado de aplicación del método Mactor, se podría afirmar que el conjunto de los 20 hoteles involucrados en el estudio presenta un potencial de asociatividad del 60%, a pesar de reconocer, sus directivas, el poco conocimiento que tienen respecto a las ventajas de una asociación en los términos contemplados en el estudio, lo que invita a un trabajo de socialización de tales mecanismos de asociación para llegar a resultados concretos. Es probable que por esta vía se reduzca la resistencia a compartir información gerencial, y mejore la disponibilidad a emprender conjuntamente el análisis para la mejora de los métodos y procedimientos actuales.

Figura 2: Gráfico de convergencia entre actores



Fuente: elaboración de los autores. Gráfico arrojado por el software Lipsor-Epita-Mactor

Valoración del Potencial de Asociatividad en un Grupo de Restaurantes

Para este estudio se recolectaron datos provenientes de quince (15) restaurantes clasificados como Pymes (de una población de 17 restaurantes identificados para un error máximo de $\pm 3\%$), ubicados en la zona turística de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias (Colombia). El proceso de recolección de información primaria se desarrolló durante el primer semestre de 2010, periodo en el cual fueron contactados los gerentes de dichos establecimientos, quienes voluntariamente aceptaron ser entrevistados.

En caso de crearse una asociatividad entre los restaurantes evaluados en este estudio, el análisis arrojó que se debería optar por incluir todos los objetivos: En lo estratégico, centrados en aspectos de capacitación del talento humano y logística y distribución, áreas de gran impacto en la competitividad de estas organizaciones; en lo comercial, al mejoramiento y ampliación de la oferta de servicios turísticos y conexos. En cuanto a mejora de servicios, es sabido que la referenciación competitiva (benchmarking) es un factor que coadyuva estos procesos, los cuales se facilitan si existe la asociación, pues se evitarían los celos entre empresas; así, las firmas asociadas podrían entrar en un círculo virtuoso de mejora continua.

El mapa de convergencia (Figura 3), identificó, para un par de actores, el número de posiciones comunes que tienen en los objetivos (favorables o contra). Este mapa se deriva de la matriz simétrica de convergencia, y muestra las empresas que persiguen objetivos comunes. Se puede observar que los actores que fueron identificados como A3, A4, A6, A8, A10, A11 y A14 comparten muchos de los objetivos asociativos; igual sucede con A9 y A1, así como con A13 y A5.

objetivos prioritarios, desvirtuando aquellos actores que supondrían ser un obstáculo para lograr la asociatividad.

Esta valoración se hace necesaria antes de iniciar cualquier proceso de creación de una figura asociativa. Si se conocen los fines comunes y potenciales, se podrán encaminar de mejor forma los esfuerzos de cooperación.

Finalmente, se invita a la comunidad académica en general a que desarrollen nuevos casos donde se aplique el método en distintos sectores económicos, continuando con la evaluación de las ventajas del método y estandarizando el proceso de análisis.

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EL GRADO DE COMPETENCIAS DEL EGRESADO DE LA LICENCIATURA EN TURISMO VERSUS LAS CAPACIDADES GENÉRICAS EXIGIDAS POR EL MERCADO LABORAL

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RESUMEN

El presente trabajo parte de la experiencia del proceso de acreditación internacional del Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur (CUCSUR) de la Universidad de Guadalajara, México, realizado por la agencia europea AQU Catalunya (AQU). En el cual se establecieron los indicadores de calidad bajo parámetros internacionales y se constituyó un Plan de Mejora para el aseguramiento de la calidad, donde se establece como prioridad el seguimiento de egresados y su retroalimentación en los procesos de innovación curricular, así como el estudio de opinión de empleadores. En razón de ello se llevó a cabo un Estudio de Seguimiento de Egresados, como una herramienta que permitió contrastar las competencias profesionales demandadas a los egresados por el mercado laboral, complementándose con el Estudio de Opinión a Empleadores, indagando sobre las mismas competencias del egresado. En ambos se incorporaron variables como situación laboral, satisfacción con el empleo e identificación de competencias genéricas y específicas por parte de los egresados de la carrera de turismo bajo la percepción tanto de egresados como de empleadores. Se discute también la metodología empleada, los resultados obtenidos y sus implicaciones para el diseño curricular por competencias de la carrera.

PALABRAS CLAVE. Egresados, empleadores, capacidades, turismo, mercado laboral.

ABSTRACT

This work is based on the experience of international accreditation process of the Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur (CUCSUR) at the University of Guadalajara, Mexico by the European agency AQU Catalunya (AQU). In which the quality indicators established under international standards and constituted an Improvement Plan for quality assurance, establishing priority alumni tracking and feedback in the process of curricular innovation and study views of employers. Because of this took place a Follow-Up Study of Graduates, as a tool that allowed contrast the skills graduates demanded by the labor market, complemented by the Employer Opinion Survey, inquiring about the same powers of the graduate. In both variables were included as employment status, job satisfaction and identification of specific and generic skills by graduates of the tourist rush under the perception of both graduates and employers. It also discusses the methodology, results and their implications for curriculum design skills of the race.

KEYWORDS: Graduates, employers, skills, tourism, labor market.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur (CUCSUR) de la Universidad de Guadalajara, México, ha implementado durante los últimos seis años una política de compromiso con la calidad, que lo ha llevado a buscar la mejora continua de su oferta educativa, mediante la acreditación nacional e internacional de sus programas.

A finales de 2006 se inició el primer contacto con la Agencia per a la Qualitat del Sistema Universitari de Catalunya (AQU Catalunya), la cual es una agencia pública e independiente creada en 1996 y reconocida por la Asociación Europea para la Garantía de la Calidad de la Enseñanza Superior (ENQA), cuya principal función es efectuar evaluaciones del sistema universitario de Cataluña, pero también evaluar a instituciones universitarias de otros países, estando capacitada para acreditar, con los estándares reconocidos por la Unión Europea, a instituciones, programas educativos y profesores (AQU, 2009).

En marzo de 2008 la agencia AQU realizó por primera vez una evaluación de programas educativos en Latinoamérica. Fueron seis carreras de licenciatura impartidas por el CUCSUR las que se sometieron a este proceso. El resultado de esta evaluación generó seis planes de mejora avalados por la agencia AQU (Casas Rius, et al., 2008).

Como segunda etapa de este proceso, la agencia AQU propuso al CUCSUR la realización de una segunda evaluación, en busca de la acreditación como institución de impartición universitaria. El resultado del proceso condujo a una acreditación internacional inicial de la calidad del CUCSUR. Este reconocimiento tiene una validez de dos años, a partir del 1 de enero de 2010, y podrá ser extendido hasta 2015, si el Centro ofrece evidencias sobre ciertas acciones recomendadas por la agencia catalana. Dentro de las cuales sobresale el seguimiento de egresados y su retroalimentación en los procesos de innovación curricular. Así como los estudios de opinión de los empleadores.

Además, una de las preocupaciones que tienen actualmente las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES) es la búsqueda de la opinión de los empleadores con respecto a los aspectos de formación del estudiante más demandados por las empresas (López F., & Montañés G., 2003).

La relación educación-empleo está determinada por estructuras sociales y políticas, situada en espacios geográficos determinados, donde mercado local e internacional se convierte en uno de los indicadores más importantes en la orientación de las demandas hacia la educación superior. En este sentido Díaz Barriga señala que “el adecuado funcionamiento del sistema educativo se refleja en la preparación puntual de sus egresados, de acuerdo con las exigencias de cada puesto en el mercado de trabajo” (Díaz Barriga, 2000).

La pertinencia de la educación superior con el mercado laboral es un elemento imprescindible, para analizar la congruencia entre la formación que ofrece la universidad y los requerimientos del sector productivo. Para contribuir a la mejora institucional y buscando la relación con el entorno, los estudios de seguimiento de egresados y de opinión a empleadores, deben permitir evaluar el aporte e impacto real del CUCSUR en la sociedad; además de la identificación, ubicación laboral y demás variables vinculadas al mercado laboral y el campo profesional de los egresados, que ayudarán a evaluar la pertinencia social de la formación de los Licenciados en Turismo en la institución.

Es importante señalar que ambos estudios pasarán a un proceso de análisis y reflexión por los grupos académicos universitarios, con el objeto de elevar la calidad académica y efectividad de los planes de estudio, fortaleciendo así la formación integral del estudiantado y los egresados.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Los estudios de seguimiento de egresados surgieron hace tiempo con el objetivo de analizar la relación entre el gasto en educación y el crecimiento económico así como los vínculos entre la inversión en educación y los beneficios que obtienen los individuos. Aunque muchas universidades empezaron a realizar estudios parciales de egresados, dos proyectos financiados por la Comisión Europea realizaron un estudio a nivel general en Europa: CHEERS (1998, financiado por el IV Programa Marco de la UE) y REFLEX (2004, VI Programa Marco de la UE), ambos proyectos de reconocida notoriedad internacional (PROFLEX, 2010).

La valiosa experiencia que adquirieron los investigadores de estos proyectos en su desarrollo hizo que pasara a ser uno de los grupos de investigación con mayor prestigio internacional en el seguimiento de egresados, acreditados por el éxito de ambos proyectos y la producción científica derivada de los mismos, traducida en cientos de publicaciones, informes y contratos. Como consecuencia, estos investigadores coordinaron un proyecto ALFA bajo el nombre de PROFLEX que realizó un estudio de egresados en universidades latinoamericanas basado en la misma encuesta que se había pasado en países europeos (PROFLEX, 2010).

Según datos PROFLEX, un correcto seguimiento de egresados induce a los gestores universitarios a plantearse las siguientes cuestiones: ¿Conocemos los puntos fuertes y las áreas de mejora en la formación de sus graduados?, ¿Sabemos si sus competencias son las que el mercado requiere?, ¿Conocemos la trayectoria laboral de sus egresados?

El nuevo enfoque sobre el seguimiento de egresados plantea la posibilidad de realizar un seguimiento continuo que permita no sólo conocer la situación de los mismos en un momento determinado de tiempo sino comparar su evolución en el tiempo de acuerdo con su perfil académico y la situación del mercado laboral. (PROFLEX, 2010).

En el año de 1998 la Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Institutos de Educación Superior (ANUIES) publicó el documento Esquema Básico para Estudios de Egresados convirtiéndose en una guía fundamental para el desarrollo de los instrumentos y metodologías que las IES utilizan para realizar sus estudios de seguimiento de sus egresados, además de permitir generar información estandarizada para comparar los resultados del desempeño entre IES.

La propuesta de ANUIES sustenta que la evaluación de la calidad es un tema central de la política educativa superior por lo que elementos centrales de análisis es evaluar la correspondencia entre los perfiles de formación profesional y los tres tipos de pertinencia: profesional, científico-técnica y social. Además, la calidad de los servicios educativos está en función de la capacidad de las IES para ajustarse a los cambios en los ámbitos disciplinarios y en los perfiles profesionales, así como a las nuevas exigencias de formación profesional que se conforman en el mundo de trabajo al que se enfrentan los egresados. Por tal motivo el estudio de seguimiento de egresados se convierte en una estrategia fundamental para el autoconocimiento y la mejora de las IES. A partir de estos estudios se genera valiosa información para

apoyar los procesos de evaluación y actualización de los planes y programas de estudios así como el diseño de la nueva oferta educativa.

Instrumento importante integrado en la publicación del Esquema Básico para Estudios de Egresados es el Cuestionario Tipo para el Estudio de Egresados, ya que establece una base metodológica que puede ser aplicada en su totalidad por las IES o en su caso, ser modificada conforme los requerimientos, alcance y propósitos del estudio de seguimiento de egresados a realizar.

En cuanto a los estudios de opinión de empleadores, y desde la perspectiva educativa, son una técnica metodológica que permiten recabar información del sector productivo, particularmente de los empleadores, acerca de las necesidades y las competencias que requieren los egresados universitarios, para incorporarse al ámbito laboral; con base en ello se pueden tomar decisiones en el diseño de estrategias de enseñanza aprendizaje, nuevos planes de estudio o reestructuración de los currículos existentes.

En los estudios del mercado laboral de los profesionistas se analiza la relación entre el mercado de trabajo y la IES, ya que éstas actúan como intermediarias catalizadoras de las necesidades de demandantes y oferentes de oportunidades laborales a nivel profesional (Navarro, 1998). Estos estudios permiten conocer aspectos tales como la aceptación de los profesionistas de cada una de la IES en el mercado laboral, las áreas de conocimiento a nivel profesional con mayor demanda, las características más valoradas por las empresas, las relaciones utilizadas para la contratación de los profesionistas, entre otras.

Por lo tanto, el CUCSUR busca con estos estudios, generar información que contribuya a mejorar la pertinencia de los planes de estudio de los Programas Educativos, además de construir mejores condiciones para la inserción laboral de sus egresados, proporcionando: conocimientos, habilidades y destrezas, formando valores y demás herramientas que permitan impactar positivamente en la comunidad.

METODOLOGÍA

Para el presente estudio se tomó como sub-universo a los egresados y empleadores del Programa Educativo de Licenciado en Turismo del CUCSUR, cubriendo a 10 carreras con un total de 140 egresados y 119 empleadores de la región.

La información fue tomada de la base de datos elaborada por la Coordinación de la Carrera, misma que cumplía con las características de validez y confiabilidad. La técnica de muestreo empleada fue no probabilística, de tipo por conveniencia. (Gutiérrez, 2005). La cuota fue de 22 egresados y 18 empleadores, validando la información mediante el paquete estadístico Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) versión 15.0 (BVSDE, 2009).

Para el diseño del cuestionario se tomó como referencia el establecido por PROFLEX, que utiliza un cuestionario con más de 150 preguntas, estructurado en 9 secciones que cubren aspectos relacionados con la formación recibida, transición al mundo laboral, competencias y satisfacción, entre otros. Este cuestionario ha sido desarrollado por expertos internacionales de reconocido prestigio y ha sido adaptado a los distintos contextos universitarios, tanto en América como en Europa. El cálculo de la confiabilidad total a través del Alpha de Cronbach, fue de 0.740. La escala a utilizarse fue la de Likert (McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S., 2005:240).

Dado que la aplicación del cuestionario se realizó en la mayoría de los casos por vía telefónica, se consideró que los entrevistados podrían tener dificultad para recordar la lista de aspectos, expectativas o limitaciones que enfrentaron al contestar el cuestionario, por lo que se optó por manejar ítems en formato cerrado (McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S., 2005:135). Las llamadas telefónicas se realizaron en diversas franjas horarias, para evitar sesgos relacionados con las jornadas de trabajo.

Respecto al apartado de competencias, cabe señalar que Hartog (1992) define las competencias como las aptitudes, destrezas y capacidades de los graduados en educación superior que contribuyen a aumentar su productividad desde una perspectiva multidimensional. Se resalta la importancia del carácter multidimensional como elemento novedoso en el concepto actual de competencia.

Al evaluar el nivel de desarrollo de competencias en los graduados universitarios es importante definir con precisión el indicador adecuado que refleje fielmente el grado de adquisición de cada individuo. Tanto el nivel educativo como el número de años de educación no resultan adecuados puesto que la finalización de los estudios no supone en determinados casos la adquisición de competencias e incluso aunque sea así, éstas pueden quedar obsoletas con el tiempo. Asimismo el nivel educativo no considera las fuentes de aprendizaje informal que tan relevantes pueden ser para determinadas áreas de estudio (Allen, 2003).

El cuestionario PROFLEX plantea a los egresados una reflexión sobre las competencias que poseen así como las que necesitan en sus puestos de trabajo y la contribución de la universidad a su aprendizaje. De la misma manera se diseñó el cuestionario para empleadores.

Para analizar los resultados de los estudios de opinión de egresados y empleadores se utilizó un análisis numérico a partir de la estadística descriptiva y los porcentajes, además de un análisis estadístico no paramétrico donde se utilizó la prueba de U Mann -Whitney para dos muestras independientes y ordenadas en escala ordinal. Este procedimiento es una buena alternativa cuando no se puede utilizar la prueba t de Student (Lehmann, 1975).

Hipótesis estadística:

Ho → Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado = Nivel requerido en el mercado laboral según el empleador.

Ha → Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado \neq Nivel requerido en el mercado laboral según el empleador.

Ho → Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación = Perfil del egresado según el empleador.

Ha → Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación \neq Perfil del egresado según el empleador.

RESULTADOS

El sondeo de opinión de egresados y empleadores de la Licenciatura en Turismo arrojó importantes resultados, donde se observa que ciertas capacidades que son consideradas como puntos débiles por los graduados, son muy requeridas en su trabajo.

En el análisis gráfico de los resultados se contrasta la percepción de los egresados versus la de sus empleadores, tanto en el nivel requerido en el mercado laboral como en su perfil de formación. Se presentan los resultados en porcentajes para cada una de las capacidades estudiadas. A continuación se discuten los resultados de este análisis:

Respecto a la capacidad para comunicarse en un segundo idioma (CCSI), se observa que para los empleadores el nivel requerido en el trabajo es relativamente alto, así lo demuestra el 66.6% de los encuestados, que lo ubican entre el nivel mucho y en gran medida. Asimismo, los empleadores señalan que el nivel de esta competencia que poseen los egresados es regular, con un 55.5%. Por otra parte, los egresados consideran que el nivel demandado en el trabajo es menor con relación a la opinión de los empleadores, sólo el 27.27% lo ubican entre un nivel mucho y en gran medida. Mientras que los egresados se autoevalúan con un nivel alto en esta competencia – 63.63%-. Siendo contraria a la percepción que tiene los empleadores.

Al medir la capacidad de razonamiento lógico matemático (CRLM), se observa lo siguiente; los empleadores consideran esta competencia como básica en el desarrollo profesional de los egresados; muy requerida y en gran medida, así lo expresó el 94.4%. Para los empleadores el nivel de competencia que poseen los egresados lo ubican entre regular y muy bien, el 88.8%, un tanto menor a lo requerido en el mercado. En la opinión de los egresados se encontró que la competencia es poco requerida en el mercado laboral -36.36%-, y al autoevaluarse respondieron estar capacitados un poco más bajo al nivel requerido en el mercado — 31.8% —.

Sobre la variable capacidad de pensamiento analítico (CPA), los empleadores opinaron que el requerimiento del mercado laboral de la competencia es alto, 72.2%, en tanto que el desempeño de los egresados es mayor, así lo expreso el 77.7%. Los egresados coinciden con el grupo de empleadores al evaluar el requerimiento con un valor entre mucho y en gran medida por el mercado laboral, un 77.2%. Mientras que en la autoevaluación el egresado se ubica en un nivel menor que lo requerido por el mercado laboral -59%-. Demostrando ser contraria su visión a la del empleador.

Al medir el ítem redacción de documentos (RD), la opinión del empleador se inclinó hacia ser muy requerida por el mercado laboral —83.3%—, contraria a la visión de los egresados, —63.6%—. Sin embargo, el empleador considera que el egresado tiene el mismo nivel de demanda en el plano profesional —83.3%—. En tanto que los egresados consideran tener un nivel de habilitación similar al solicitado por el mercado —81.8%—.

El requerimiento para el dominio de otros conocimientos de su área y/o de otras áreas (DCA), resultó con un nivel alto para el mercado laboral y el empleador con un porcentaje de —94.4%—. Siendo similar el nivel de competencia que tienen los egresados —88.8%—, desde la perspectiva del empleador. Mientras que en la evaluación de los egresados, el nivel requerido en el trabajo lo consideran menor con un 63.6%, en el nivel mucho y en gran medida. Y se autoevalúan mejor capacitados que el mercado laboral —68.1%—, pero menor que la opinión del empleador.

Respecto de la dinámica exigida por el entorno empresarial para adquirir con rapidez nuevos conocimientos, dicha competencia es evaluada por el empleador como muy importante, así lo expresa el 77.7%, resultado que coincide con la autoevaluación del egresado. En tanto que la competencia que demuestra el egresado, en la opinión del empleador es mucho mayor; 94.4%. Dicho valor no es coincidente con la autoevaluación del egresado, ya que en su opinión se otorgan un valor menor; 77.27%. Con relación al ítem capacidad para negociar de forma eficaz (CNFE), el empleador la evalúa como importante y demandada en el entorno laboral, 66.6%, similar a lo expresado en la autoevaluación del egresado, 68.18%. Sin embargo, para el empleador el perfil del egresado está en mejor nivel, expresado

con el 77.7%, contrario a la autoevaluación del egresado quien expresa no poseer la competencia en buen nivel, demostrado con un 54.54%.

Sobre la competencia de trabajar bajo presión (TBP), para el empleador fue considerada como muy importante y muy demandada en el entorno laboral, así lo indicó el 94.44%, pero además señala que el egresado tiene el mismo nivel a lo requerido en el mercado, presentando el mismo porcentaje. Resultado contrario a lo expresado por los egresados encuestados, pues la consideran de menor importancia y demanda en el mercado con el 77.27%, y además de que se autoevalúan en un nivel más bajo —72.7%—.

La capacidad para detectar nuevas oportunidades (CDNO), resultó ser alto para el mercado laboral con un porcentaje de 88.8% un tanto mayor al perfil del egresado —83.3%—, según la percepción de los empleadores. Con relación a la autoevaluación del egresado, la exigencia del mercado es menor a la opinión del empleador —59%— y el nivel que expresó tener en su perfil de esta capacidad es el más alto con el 63.6%.

Referente a la competencia para coordinar actividades (CA), el nivel requerido por el mercado es relativamente alto, así lo expresan los resultados de empleadores, 94.4%. Caso contrario a la opinión del egresado —59%—. De igual forma para los empleadores el nivel que tienen los egresados es bueno —77.7%—, pero menor al exigido en el trabajo. En tanto en la autoevaluación de los egresados expresan tener un nivel muy bueno de esta competencia, reflejado con el 72.7%, pero menor a la evaluación del empleador.

Al medir la competencia de uso de tiempo de forma efectiva (UTFE), los empleadores la consideran importante en el trabajo —88.8%—, pero menor a la expresada por el egresado —95.4%—. Sin embargo, en cuanto al perfil del egresado tuvieron una percepción similar tanto empleador y egresado con el 83.3% y 86.3%.

En relación al ítem capacidad para trabajar en equipo (CTE), el mercado laboral la establece como muy importante —100%—, pero ubica el nivel de competencia en el egresado en un nivel menor —77.7%—. Por otra parte, resulta ser diferente la percepción de de los egresados, ya que en la autoevaluación, expresan con un 81.8% la importancia que tiene en el mercado laboral, menor al otorgado por el empleador. Similar al nivel que manifiestan de esta capacidad —77.2%—.

Respecto a la capacidad para movilizar las capacidades de otros (CMCO), los empleadores la consideran de mucha importancia en el mercado —100%—, contrario a lo expresado por los egresados —68.1%—. Por otra parte, para los empleadores el nivel de competencia de los egresados es bueno, pues el 88.8% lo ubicó en un nivel bueno y muy bueno. En tanto, los egresados se autoevalúan peor, pues sólo el 68.1% se ubica entre un nivel bueno y muy bueno.

En relación a la capacidad para hacerse entender (CHE), para los empleadores el nivel requerido de esta competencia en el trabajo es relativamente alto —100%—. Asimismo, los empleadores señalan que el nivel que poseen los egresados es bueno con un 88.8%. Sin embargo, los egresados evalúan la exigencia en el mercado más baja con el 81.8%, igual al nivel que ellos manifiestan presentar.

Al medir el ítem Capacidad para hacer valer su autoridad (HVA), los resultados expresaron que para los empleadores, esta competencia es muy importante —94.4%—. Diferente a lo expresado por los egresados, que la consideran menos requerida en el trabajo —68.1%—. Por otra parte, el empleador considera que el

egresado tiene un perfil más bajo que el necesario – 77.7%–. Contrario a lo expresado en la autoevaluación del egresado, pues el 81.8% se evalúa en un nivel alto.

Sobre el uso de la informática (UI), el empleador consideró la capacidad como muy importante, 100%; diferente a la percepción del egresado, 72.7%. Pero han determinado que el egresado cuenta con un nivel alto de la competencia, 100%. Mientras que el egresado en su autoevaluación, se considera con una habilitación buena en la utilización de la herramienta, 77.2%.

Al analizar la capacidad para encontrar nuevas ideas y soluciones (CENIS), se observa lo siguiente; los empleadores consideran esta competencia como básica para el desarrollo profesional de los egresados, posicionándola en muy requerida, así lo expresó el 100%. De igual forma, para los empleadores el nivel que poseen los egresados de esta competencia es menor al requerido, 83.3%. Referente a la opinión de los egresados, si la consideran importante en el trabajo – 90.9%–, pero menor que los empleadores. Además de que se evalúan más bajos de lo demandado en el mercado – 72.7%–.

La capacidad de cuestionar ideas propias o ajenas (CCIPA), que los empleadores consideran deben de contar los profesionistas, es importante 77.7%, y perciben en el perfil de los egresados, un nivel bueno pero menor al requerido, 72.2%. Asimismo, se observa en los resultados que el egresado determina que esta habilitación no es tan importante 54.5% y con base a esto determinan que su competencia es superior a lo exigida, 68.1%.

Finalmente, sobre la habilidad para la presentación de productos ideas o informes (HPII), el empleador señaló ser importante para el desarrollo de actividades en el puesto de trabajo, 88.8%, similar a la visión de egresado, 81.8%. Mientras que la percepción de éstos sobre dicha capacidad con el perfil de la fuerza laboral es regular, 77.7%; mayor a la autoevaluación de los egresados, 72.7%.

El análisis estadístico se realizó de acuerdo a las técnicas que se expresaron en el segmento correspondiente de la metodología. Se presentará en dos partes; 1) las necesidades del mercado laboral y 2) sobre el perfil del egresado. De él se derivan la coincidencia o no coincidencia en la percepción de los egresados y sus empleadores en cada una de las capacidades estudiadas.

Si el valor de p es ≤ 0.05 “Rechazo H_0 ”; esto significa que el “Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado es \neq el Nivel requerido en el mercado laboral según el empleador”, es decir, “La opinión del egresado es diferente a la opinión del empleador”, lo que es lo mismo que “No coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores”.

De igual manera si el valor de p es ≥ 0.05 “No rechazo H_0 ”; esto significa que el “Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado es = el Nivel requerido en el mercado laboral según el empleador”, es decir, “La opinión del egresado es igual a la opinión del empleador”, lo que es lo mismo que “Si coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores”.

De acuerdo a los resultados del análisis estadístico en 11 competencias el valor de p es ≤ 0.05 por lo tanto “Rechazo H_0 ”; y esto significa que el “Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado es \neq el Nivel requerido en el mercado laboral según el empleador” en estas 11 competencias. En consecuencia “No coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores” de la Licenciatura de Turismo.

En las otras ocho competencias el valor de p es ≥ 0.05 por lo tanto “No Rechazo H_0 ” y esto significa que el “Nivel requerido por el mercado laboral según el egresado es = el Nivel requerido en el mercado

laboral según el empleador” para estas competencias, es decir, “Si coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores” de la Licenciatura de Turismo.

En la Tabla 2 se presentan los resultados de la prueba no paramétrica de U de Mann-Whitney para perfil del egresado de la Carrera de Licenciado en Turismo con un nivel de confianza de 95% o nivel de significancia del 0.05 (5%).

Tabla 1. Resultados de la prueba no paramétrica de U de Mann-Whitney para necesidades de mercado laboral de la Carrera de la Licenciatura en Turismo

Estadístico de contraste			
Necesidades del mercado laboral			
Nombre de la variable	U de Mann-Whitney	Valor p	Coincidencia
a. Capacidad para comunicarse con un segundo idioma	190.5	0.83167975	Si
b. Capacidad de razonamiento lógico y matemático	102	0.00648339	No
c. Capacidad de pensamiento analítico	180.5	0.79861539	Si
d. Capacidad para redactar documentos	139	0.0833991	Si
e. Capacidad para dominar conocimientos de su área o de otras áreas	81	0.0005964	No
f. Capacidad para adquirir con rapidez nuevos conocimientos	135	0.05091092	Si
g. Capacidad para negociar de forma eficaz	159	0.37089186	Si
h. Capacidad para trabajar bajo presión	121	0.01515681	Si
i. Capacidad para detectar nuevas oportunidades	106	0.00767786	No
j. Capacidad para coordinar actividades	88	0.00252611	No
k. Capacidad para usar el tiempo de forma efectiva	111	0.00444996	No
l. Capacidad para trabajar en equipo	108	0.00379028	No
m. Capacidad para movilizar las capacidades de otros	129	0.03825088	No
n. Capacidad para hacerse entender	126	0.02010681	No
o. Capacidad para hacer valer su autoridad	94.5	0.00174598	No
p. Capacidad para utilizar herramientas informáticas	105	0.00385489	No
q. Capacidad para encontrar nuevas ideas y soluciones	98	0.00101324	No
r. Predisposición para cuestionar ideas propias o ajenas	164.5	0.46656651	Si
s. Capacidad para presentar en público productos, ideas o informes	147	0.13021445	Si

Esta tabla explica la relación de opiniones coincidentes entre las muestras analizadas con relación al requerimiento del mercado.

e acuerdo a los resultados del análisis estadístico en 8 de las 19 competencias el valor de p es ≤ 0.05 por lo tanto “Rechazo H_0 : Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación = Perfil del egresado según el empleador”; y esto significa que el “Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación \neq Perfil del egresado según el empleador” en estas ocho competencias. En consecuencia “No coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores” porque no existe unidad desde el punto de vista estadístico entre las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores.

En las otras 11 competencias el valor de p es ≥ 0.05 por lo tanto “No Rechazo H_0 : Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación = Perfil del egresado según el empleador” y esto significa que el “Perfil del egresado según su autoevaluación = Perfil del egresado según el empleador” para estas competencias, es decir, “Si coinciden las opiniones de los egresados y los empleadores”.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados del análisis gráfico indican que las 19 capacidades estudiadas son valoradas como importantes en el mercado laboral de los egresados de la carrera de Licenciado en Turismo del CUCSUR, de acuerdo con la percepción de los empleadores. Lo que indica que el presente estudio está

documentando competencias que tienen un significado específico en el ámbito de trabajo de los licenciados en Turismo dentro de la región Costa Sur. Por lo tanto, sus resultados tendrán un impacto positivo para mejorar el diseño curricular de la carrera.

Sin embargo, no en todos los casos se valora con un nivel alto el perfil que presentan los egresados para dichas capacidades. De hecho, en algunas capacidades el egresado se evalúa con un desempeño elevado, mientras que su empleador lo evalúa con un bajo nivel de desempeño, tal es el caso de capacidades como: capacidad para comunicarse en un segundo idioma, dominio de otros conocimientos de su área y/o de otras áreas, capacidad para detectar nuevas oportunidades y para hacer valer su autoridad.

Tabla 2. Resultados de la prueba no paramétrica de U de Mann-Whitney para perfil del egresado de la Carrera de Licenciatura en Turismo.

Nombre de la variable	Estadísticos de contraste Perfil del egresado		Coincidencia
	U de Mann-Whitney	Valor p	
a. Capacidad para comunicarse con un segundo idioma	145	0.13526632	Si
b. Capacidad de razonamiento lógico y matemático	75.5	0.00053145	No
c. Capacidad de pensamiento analítico	123.5	0.05145109	Si
d. Capacidad para redactar documentos	151.5	0.1644259	Si
e. Capacidad para dominar conocimientos de su área o de otras áreas	91.5	0.00190273	No
f. Capacidad para adquirir con rapidez nuevos conocimientos	150	0.14403061	Si
g. Capacidad para negociar de forma eficaz	135.5	0.11139697	Si
h. Capacidad para trabajar bajo presión	108.5	0.00851251	No
i. Capacidad para detectar nuevas oportunidades	128.5	0.04528327	No
j. Capacidad para coordinar actividades	115.5	0.02663662	No
k. Capacidad para usar el tiempo de forma efectiva	122.5	0.02439808	No
l. Capacidad para trabajar en equipo	168	0.52336619	Si
m. Capacidad para movilizar las capacidades de otros	131.5	0.05395471	Si
n. Capacidad para hacerse entender	92	0.00170195	No
o. Capacidad para hacer valer su autoridad	151	0.16900293	Si
p. Capacidad para utilizar herramientas informáticas	87.5	0.00098044	No
q. Capacidad para encontrar nuevas ideas y soluciones	157	0.31810897	Si
r. Predisposición para cuestionar ideas propias o ajenas	173.5	0.64424939	Si
s. Capacidad para presentar en público productos, ideas o informes	152	0.18387164	Si

Esta tabla explica la relación de opiniones coincidentes entre las muestras analizadas con relación al perfil del egresado.

Por otra parte, el análisis estadístico arroja como resultado que para el caso de la importancia para el mercado laboral, las percepciones de los egresados y los empleadores coinciden en 8 capacidades: Capacidad para comunicarse con un segundo idioma, capacidad de pensamiento analítico, para redactar documentos, para adquirir con rapidez nuevos conocimientos, para negociar de forma eficaz, para trabajar bajo presión, cuestionar ideas propias o ajenas y capacidad para la presentación en público de productos, ideas o informes.

Y en lo referente al perfil del egresado, las opiniones de los egresados y sus empleadores coinciden en 11 capacidades: Capacidad para comunicarse en un segundo idioma, pensamiento analítico, redacción de documentos, para adquirir con rapidez nuevos conocimientos, negociar de forma eficaz, trabajar en equipo, para movilizar las capacidades de otros, para hacer valer su autoridad, para encontrar nuevas ideas y soluciones, para cuestionar ideas propias o ajenas y capacidad para presentar en público productos, ideas o informes.

Las capacidades en las que coinciden las percepciones de egresados y empleadores, tanto para la importancia del mercado laboral como del perfil del egresado son las que deben ser cuidadosamente consideradas durante el proceso de la reforma curricular de la carrera de licenciado en turismo, a fin de mejorar la pertinencia de la misma con el campo profesional en la región.

Los resultados del presente estudio contribuyen a la calidad de la información que las academias analizan para la toma de decisiones en el rediseño curricular, y particularmente para asegurar la adquisición de competencias genéricas que hagan más competitivos a los egresados de la carrera.

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VICIOS Y VIRTUDES DEL MODELO DE ACREDITACIÓN EN EL SISTEMA DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR CHILENO

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RESUMEN

En el año 2006 entró en vigencia el Sistema Nacional de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior en Chile. Éste fue fijado y regulado por la ley 20.129, cuerpo normativo que observa, especialmente los aspectos que dicen relación con: (i) generación de información pública sobre educación superior, (ii) autorización para el funcionamiento de nuevas instituciones educativas de nivel superior y (iii) el otorgamiento de acreditación a las instituciones integrantes del sistema (considerando, separadamente, a las carreras y programas que éstas ofertan). Este trabajo profundiza respecto a este último elemento: acreditación. El sistema de acreditación fue concebido como un mecanismo a través del cual se efectúan revisiones y análisis a las prácticas desarrolladas por las instituciones y/o las carreras y programas que ellas imparten, acciones que tienen por objetivo verificar que se han incorporados los medios y mecanismos necesarios para generar instancias de comprobación y autorregulación en las acciones emprendidas y resultados que generan. En el contexto de este proceso y a la luz de la experiencia adquirida es razonable sostener que de su implementación han surgido vicios, buenas prácticas e instancias para la mejora.

PALABRAS CLAVES: educación superior, calidad en la educación, acreditación.

VICES AND VIRTUES OF THE CHILEAN ACCREDITATION MODEL IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM

ABSTRACT

In 2006 the National System for the quality assurance in Higher Education in Chile entered into force. This was fixed and regulated by law 20.129, normative body that observes, specially the aspects that are related to: (i) generation of public information about higher education (ii) authorization for the operation of new institutions of higher education and (iii) to award accreditation to the institutions that are members of the system (considering, in a separate manner, the careers and programs that they offer). This work takes a deeper look at this last element: accreditation. The accreditation system was conceived as a mechanism through which revisions and analysis are carried out to the practices that are developed by the institutions and/or careers and programs that they give, actions that have as objective to verify that the necessary means and mechanism have been incorporated so as to generate confirmation moments and auto-regulation in the actions undertaken and results that they generate. In the context of this process and in light of the acquired experience it is reasonable to sustain that from its implementation several vices, good practices and opportunities for improvement have emerged.

JEL: A20, M20.

KEYWORDS: Higher education, quality in education, accreditation.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El sistema de aseguramiento de la calidad aplicable al sistema de educación superior chileno, está regulado por la ley 20.129. Entre los elementos considerados durante el proceso de elaboración y discusión de este cuerpo normativo destacan(1):

- a. Los cambios experimentados por el país en materia del educación superior, particularmente: (i) incremento en la matrícula, (ii) surgimiento de nuevas instituciones y (iii) ampliación de la oferta formativa.
- b. Los avances del programa de Mejoramiento en la Calidad de la Educación Superior (MECESUP)(2), en sus dos fases de implementación.
- c. El trabajo desarrollado por Comisión Nacional de Acreditación de Postgrado (CONAP)- institución responsable de acreditar programas de magíster y doctorado.
- d. El trabajo desarrollado por la Comisión Nacional de Acreditación de Pregrado (CNAP)- entidad responsable de: (i) apoyar la capacidad de autorregulación en las instituciones de educación superior(3), (ii) diseñar protocolos (experimentales) para el desarrollo de procesos de acreditación, y (iii) elaborar el proyecto del sistema nacional de aseguramiento de la calidad.

Cada una de estas actividades se desarrolló con la participación de diversos actores, los que provenían del mundo universitario (académicos y directivos), profesionales y expertos tanto del sector público como del privado.

Éste proyecto consideró cuatro objetivos:

- a. Dar garantía pública de la calidad de las instituciones de educación superior y de los programas que imparten.
- b. Promover y apoyar el mejoramiento continuo y sistemático de las instituciones de educación superior y de los programas que ofrecen.
- c. Establecer una instancia de coordinación del conjunto de funciones y actividades que apuntan al desarrollo de la calidad de la educación superior.
- d. Mejorar las condiciones para el desarrollo de una educación superior capaz de responder a estándares de validez nacional e internacional

Finalmente estos objetivos se tradujeron en tres áreas(4): (i) desarrollar un sistema de aseguramiento de la calidad de la educación superior, (ii) crear la Comisión Nacional de Acreditación para la Educación Superior(5), y (iii) complementar el sistema de información sobre educación superior(6).

Entre abril de 2003 y julio de 2006 se desarrolla la totalidad del proceso legislativo, el que culmina en octubre de 2006 fecha en que el Congreso Nacional remite al ejecutivo el texto aprobado, para su promulgación y publicación(7).

Ley 20.129 Y La Comisión Nacional De Acreditación (Cna)

Este cuerpo normativo establece el Sistema Nacional de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Educación Superior, el que incluye las siguientes funciones: (i) de información, (ii) de licenciamiento de instituciones nuevas de educación superior, (iii) de acreditación institucional, y (iv) de acreditación de carreras y programas. Este trabajo refiere sobre los dos últimos puntos. Con el propósito de llevar adelante las actividades que deriven de la implementación de este sistema y particularmente en lo referido a los procesos de acreditación, se crea en Chile la Comisión Nacional de Acreditación (en adelante CNA). Institución que heredó las funciones de la Comisión Nacional de Acreditación de Pregrado y la Comisión Nacional de Acreditación de Postgrado, y asumió otras nuevas. Se trata de un organismo autónomo que goza de personalidad jurídica y patrimonio propio y que se relaciona con el Presidente de la República a través del Ministerio de Educación.

Integran esta Comisión un total de dieciséis personas, incluido el Secretario Ejecutivo; entre ellos académicos e investigadores de reconocido prestigio y trayectoria, el Jefe de la División de Educación Superior del Ministerio de Educación, un representante del sector productivo y otro de una asociación profesional o disciplinaria y dos representantes estudiantiles. Los requisitos y criterios de elegibilidad para cada uno de los integrantes, están contenidos en el artículo 7° de la citada ley (20.129).

El artículo 8° letra b) de la misma ley, establece que es función de la Comisión: “Pronunciarse acerca de las solicitudes de autorización que le presenten las agencias encargadas de la acreditación de carreras y programas de pregrado, programas de Magíster y programas de especialidad en el área de la salud, y supervigilar su funcionamiento...”. “Las agencias de acreditación son las instituciones responsables de acreditar carreras y programas de pregrado, magíster y especialidades del área de la salud, en aquellas áreas y niveles en las que sean autorizadas...”

En virtud de lo dispuesto en el artículo 12° de la ley 20.129, la Comisión está facultada para crear comités consultivos, encontrándose en funcionamiento- a 2011- un total de seis, integradas por entre cuatro y siete miembros, quienes representan a un total de catorce universidades, cuatro instituciones no universitarias.

Adicionalmente forman parte de la estructura de la CNA un conjunto de unidades administrativas y de gestión, entre los que se encuentra el registro de evaluadores externos. Sobre este punto cabe señalar que éste registro está dividido en tres grupos: evaluadores institucionales, evaluadores de pregrado y evaluadores de postgrado; en cada caso, se dispone de un registro nacional y uno de evaluadores extranjeros.

El Modelo Chileno De Acreditación

Como se ha mencionado antes, el modelo chileno distingue tres tipos de acreditación: (i) institucional(10), (ii) de pregrado(11) y (iii) de postgrado(12); a partir de las cuales establece qué organismo puede actuar como entidad acreditadora. En este punto es necesario mencionar que son entidades acreditadoras la CNA

y las agencias privadas (nacionales o extranjeras) que la propia CNA, en virtud de la legislación vigente, autorice para actuar como tal. En lo referido a procesos de acreditación institucional y acreditación de programas de doctorado, sólo la CNA puede actuar como entidad acreditadora. La resolución exenta 165-3 del 14 de noviembre de 2007, establece que las agencias privadas: *“podrán desarrollar procesos de acreditación en los siguientes niveles de formación: carreras de técnico de nivel superior, carreras profesionales, programas de pregrado, programas de magister y especialidades del área de la salud, conforme a la solicitud y autorización otorgada por la CNA”*.

Sin embargo, y cualquiera sea el caso, los protocolos que deben completarse para llevar adelante el proceso de acreditación son:

- a. Solicitud de acreditación y proceso de autoevaluación. Esta fase inicia con la expresión formal por parte de la institución, carrera o programa de incorporarse al proceso de acreditación. Por lo que la etapa I.a.) corresponde a la determinación, si corresponde, de qué entidad acreditadora conducirá el proceso. La fase I.b.) corresponde al período de tiempo que la institución, carrera o programa destinará al desarrollo del proceso de autoevaluación. Éste se desarrolla a través del análisis de la información disponible y del levantamiento de información nueva a través de consultas a partes relacionadas, típicamente: estudiantes, profesores, graduados, empleadores y otros informantes clave(13). El proceso de autoevaluación pretende que se efectúe una mirada crítica a los acciones y actividades emprendidas por la institución, carrera o programa, y que ésta(e) a su vez sea capaz de identificar fortalezas, debilidades y oportunidades de mejoramiento. Uno de los elementos especialmente relevantes es la capacidad que se tiene para satisfacer, oportunamente, los propósitos definidos; y por tanto, dar cuenta de la capacidad de autorregulación que se tiene. La tercera sub-etapa o fase I.c.) corresponde a la instancia en que se forma el convenio de acreditación, se acuerdan los plazos para la entrega de la documentación, y la entidad acreditadora proporciona la información relevante para el desarrollo del proceso (criterios de evaluación, plazos y aranceles).
- b. Evaluación (verificación) externa. Esta segunda fase también puede descomponerse en sub-etapas, a saber: II.a.) Entrega del informe de autoevaluación (y demás documentación requerida) a la entidad acreditadora. Éste informe debe contener al menos un análisis crítico del proceso (autoevaluación), cumplimiento y ajuste a los criterios de evaluación correspondientes, identificación de las fortalezas y debilidades; y el o los planes de mejoramiento que compromete la institución, carrera o programa, a propósito de los antecedentes resultantes de esta autoevaluación. II.b.) Una vez que la entidad acreditadora recepciona la documentación correspondiente al proceso en cuestión, ésta a partir de su registro de pares evaluadores, propone al Comité que desarrollará la visita; no obstante, la institución, carrera o programa objeto de acreditación podrán rechazar a uno o más de los integrantes del Comité propuesto, sin expresión de causa. Una vez acordado el Comité de Pares, la entidad acreditadora remite a cada uno de ellos una copia de la totalidad el material proporcionado por la institución, carrera o programa, y luego se establece la fecha para la visita. La extensión de ella dependerá de qué se esté acreditando. Una vez finalizada la visita, el Comité de Pares deberá elaborar un Informe de Visita de Pares, el que deberá ser remitido a la entidad acreditadora en los plazos establecidos para ello. III.c.) una vez que la entidad acreditadora recepciona el Informe de Visita, éste es enviado a la institución, carrera o programa en acreditación; quienes disponen de un plazo acotado (cinco días hábiles, prorrogables por otros cinco) para generar una Respuesta al Informe de Visita, documento en que

la institución, carrera o programa efectúa observaciones al Informe de Visita y además puede proporcionar información adicional si lo considera oportuno.

- c. Pronunciamiento (acuerdo) de acreditación. Esta etapa es la que generará como resultado el acuerdo de acreditación (o acuerdo de no acreditación, si fuese el caso). La entidad acreditadora se pronunciará sobre la base de la información contenida en los siguientes documentos: Informe de Autoevaluación, Informe de Visita de Pares y Respuesta al Informe de Visita. Luego de revisar en detalle estos documentos, la entidad acreditadora deberá determinar si: (i) la institución, carrera o programa cumple/ satisface íntegramente los criterios de acreditación, en cuyo caso acordará un período de acreditación de siete años a cercano a él(14); (ii) si se observa un cumplimiento más bien parcial de los criterios, pero existe evidencia de que éstos se dan en niveles aceptables, la entidad acreditadora otorgará un período de acreditación inferior a siete años- e inferior a diez en el caso de los programas de postgrado-; y (iii) cuando la entidad acreditadora considere que los niveles de cumplimiento de los criterios de acreditación son inaceptables, ésta otorgará la acreditación y emitirá las observaciones correspondientes.

- i. III.a. Instancias de apelación.

- *Solicitud de Reposición*: una vez adoptado el acuerdo de acreditación éste es informado a la institución, carrera o programa (según corresponda); quienes disponen de 5 días (extensibles a 10) desde la notificación del acuerdo para presentar una solicitud de reposición(15). Esta solicitud pretende que la entidad acreditadora reconsidere alguno(s) de los puntos incluidos en el acuerdo.
- *Recurso de Apelación*: este recurso se dirige a la entidad inmediatamente superior a la entidad acreditadora que ha conducido el proceso(16). Cuando se trata de acreditación institucional, este recurso sólo procede cuando se rechaza la acreditación. En cuyo caso, la institución dispone de 15 días hábiles desde la notificación para apelar ante el Consejo Nacional de Educación. En procesos de acreditación de pregrado, la carrera en acreditación dispone de 30 días desde notificación del acuerdo para apelar ante la instancia que corresponda. En procesos de acreditación de postgrado, este recurso sólo procede si se ha rechazado la acreditación. En este caso el programa dispone de 15 días hábiles desde que fuera notificado, para presentar la Apelación(17).
- l. *Mejoramiento continuo*. Aún cuando es razonable sostener que el proceso concluye con el envío formal del Acuerdo de Acreditación (o Acuerdo de No Acreditación, según corresponda) a la institución, carrera o programa; en la práctica y dado que los procesos de acreditación están enmarcados en un sistema mayor, de aseguramiento de la calidad en la educación superior, esta etapa resulta de especial importancia, dado que es en este período en que se implementa, ajustan y evalúan los planes de mejora comprometidos; y dada la ciclicidad de los procesos de acreditación los avances en esta etapa resultarán claves a la hora de emprender un nuevo proceso.

Aranceles Asociados al Proceso

Los costos asociados al proceso antes descrito implican un desembolso directo para las instituciones. Estos aranceles son fijados, anualmente mediante una resolución exenta que emite la Dirección de Presupuestos del Ministerio de Hacienda. Los valores correspondientes al año 2011 están contenidos en la resolución 711 de octubre de 2010. El costo dependerá del tipo de acreditación que se solicite, así, cuando se solicita un proceso de acreditación institucional, se considerará el número de sedes y el número de áreas que se solicita acreditar(18). pregrado o postgrado) y el número de sedes. El desembolso total oscilará entre trece y dieciocho millones de pesos chilenos (equivalente a entre veintiséis mil y treinta y cinco mil quinientos dólares americanos), monto que podrá incrementarse según número y ubicación de las sedes. En el caso de las carreras o programas de pregrado(19), los valores variarán entre seis y ocho millones de pesos chilenos (esto es, entre doce mil y dieciséis mil dólares americanos), los que igualmente pueden incrementarse por número de sedes en que se imparte (la carrera o programa) y la ubicación geográfica de éstas. El ítem programas de postgrado incluye magister, doctorado y especialidades médicas; los primeros (cuando el proceso es desarrollado por la CNA) tienen un costo cercano a seis millones de pesos chilenos (equivalentes a unos doce mil dólares americanos, los segundos (doctorado) siete millones de pesos chilenos (unos trece mil cuatrocientos dólares americanos), y las especialidades médicas implican un costo que borde los cuatro millones y medio de pesos, esto es, unos nueve mil dólares (americanos). Sin embargo, y tomando como referencia la información contenida en los sitios web oficiales, las agencias han establecido aranceles diferentes a los fijados por la mencionada resolución. De manera que, dependerá de la agencia elegida el costo que tendrá asociado el proceso. La siguiente tabla muestra los valores publicitados por las agencias en sus respectivos sitios web (cabe señalar que algunas de ellas no publicitan esta información, en cuyo caso se optó por incluir la sigla S/I- sin información-).

Tabla 2: Aranceles de acreditación, según Agencia Acreditadora

	pregrado		magister	
	clp	usd	clp	usd
acredita ci	\$7,500,000	\$15,010	\$5,000,000	\$10,007
akredita	s/i	s/i	s/i	s/i
acreditacion	\$9,900,000	\$19,813	s/i	s/i
qualitas	\$8,140,000	\$16,291	\$5,610,000	\$11,228
aadsa	\$7,700,000	\$15,410	\$7,700,000	\$15,410
apice	s/i	s/i	\$3,380,000	\$6,765
a&c	\$8,140,000	\$16,291	s/i	s/i
aacs	s/i	s/i	s/i	s/i

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a información disponible en los sitios web de cada Agencia.

Sistema de Verificación Por Pares Evaluadores

Como se detalló en el punto anterior, la segunda fase del proceso de acreditación considera una instancia de verificación desarrollada por pares evaluadores externos(20), quienes se encuentran debidamente individualizados en el registro nacional de la CNA o bien en los registros de alguna de las agencias habilitadas para desarrollar este tipo de procesos.

Evaluadores Institucionales

Este registro nacional de evaluadores institucionales administrado por la CNA, incluye ciento ochenta nacionales y cincuenta y cuatro extranjeros; esto es una relación de 77% y 23% respectivamente. Considerando sólo el número de evaluadores nacionales, de ellos el 76% (o sea, ciento treinta y siete) están adscritos o directamente vinculados con alguna de las sesenta universidades que existen en nuestro país, el 24% restante corresponde a evaluadores cuya actividad laboral principal se desarrolla en el sector productivo, en CFT, en IP, en consultoras privadas, entre otros. En cuanto a quienes provienen del mundo universitarios, la dependencia institucional de ellos se presenta en la siguiente tabla (sólo se incluyen nueve instituciones, las que en conjunto representan al 51% de los evaluadores institucionales nacionales):

En relación a los evaluadores extranjeros, los antecedentes disponible permiten sostener que: (i) el 78% del total proviene de instituciones universitarias (sector en que desarrollan su actividad laboral principal), (ii) el 76% del total proviene de países hispanoparlantes, el 73% del total son de origen latino, (iii) el 13% proviene de Estados Unidos y Canadá, los demás corresponden a nacionales de: Francia, Holanda e Italia.

Tabla 3: Evaluadores institucionales nacionales, según universidad de procedencia

Universidad de Chile	10%
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile	9%
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso	7%
Universidad de Santiago de Chile	5%
Universidad Austral de Chile	4%
Universidad de Concepción	4%
Universidad San Sebastián	4%
Universidad Andrés Bello	4%
Universidad de La Frontera	4%

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a los datos disponibles en el sitio web: www.cnachile.cl.

Evaluadores de Pregrado

Este registro incluye a los evaluadores habilitados para participar de los procesos de acreditación de carreras impartidas por universidades, centros de formación técnica e institutos profesionales. Integran este registro un total de setecientos ocho evaluadores, de ellos seiscientos treinta y ocho, el 90% corresponden a evaluadores nacionales, y de ellos alrededor del 88% representan a instituciones universitarias. Cabe aclarar que de acuerdo a la normativa vigente en Chile, el rol de evaluador de pregrado es compatible con el de evaluador institucional y de postgrado, por lo que, el mismo individuo puede estar incluido en los tres registros (además de integrar las nóminas de evaluados de una o más agencias). Sin duda las universidades aportan el mayor número de evaluadores, las otras áreas de procedencia son: el sector productivo, consultoras privadas, CFT e IP. Del 88% de los evaluadores que provienen de instituciones universitarias, el 10% corresponde a académicos de la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso, 8% proviene de la Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, 7% de la Universidad de Concepción y otro 7% de la Universidad de Chile. Ocho universidades suman al 50% de los evaluadores nacionales de pregrado, elemento que da cuenta de una fuerte concentración.

Tabla 4: Evaluadores de pregrado nacionales, según universidad de origen

Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso	10%
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile	8%
Universidad de Concepción	7%
Universidad de Chile	7%
Universidad de Santiago de Chile	5%
Universidad de Valparaíso	4%
Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana	4%
Universidad Austral de Chile	4%

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a los datos disponibles en el sitio web: www.cnachile.cl.

En cuanto a los evaluadores extranjeros, ellos representan el 21% de los evaluadores de esta área, y de ellos el 86% proviene de países latinos. Nuevamente se observa una fuerte presencia de ellos frente a evaluadores de origen anglosajón. En este ítem sólo se contabilizan como evaluadores no hispanoparlantes canadienses, franceses y brasileiros.

Evaluadores de Postgrado

El registro de evaluadores de postgrado (que incluye a los pares habilitados para evaluar programas de magíster y/ o doctorado), se constituye por ochocientos cuarenta y nueve miembros, de los cuales seiscientos cuarenta y uno corresponden a evaluadores nacionales y doscientos ocho son extranjeros. En este caso se observa un número de evaluadores extranjeros mucho mayor, dado que los procesos de acreditación de programas de doctorados siempre requerirán de un evaluador de este tipo. Obsérvese que incluso el origen de ellos resulta más diverso, así, el 73% proviene de países hispanoparlantes y el 27% restante corresponde a evaluadores provenientes, principalmente de Estados Unidos (13% del total de extranjeros), Brasil (8% del total de extranjeros), Francia y Alemania (2% del total de extranjeros, cada uno). Sin duda, este es el registro que considera mayor número de evaluadores foráneos.

Además y dados los requisitos exigibles a estos evaluadores, se observa que el 96% de ellos proviene de universidades, siendo especialmente llamativo el que sólo tres instituciones concentren al 51% de ellos. La siguiente tabla muestra como la predominancia en este ítem está en las universidades de Chile, Católica de Chile y Concepción.

Tabla 5: Evaluadores de postgrado nacionales, según universidad de origen

Universidad de Chile	20%
Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile	17%
Universidad de Concepción	14%

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a los datos disponibles en el sitio web: www.cnachile.cl.

En cuanto a los evaluadores extranjeros, sus orígenes nacionales se distribuyen como muestra la siguiente tabla:

Tabla 6: Evaluadores de postgrado extranjeros, según país de procedencia

México	23%
Argentina	23%
España	17%
Estados Unidos	13%
Brasil	8%
Uruguay	3%

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a los datos disponibles en el sitio web: www.cnachile.cl.

Finalmente, resulta oportuno presentar, en valores agregados el número de evaluadores que registran las nóminas de las agencias autorizadas por la CNA para desarrollar procesos de acreditación en Chile (cabe recordar que estas agencias sólo puede evaluar programas o carreras de pregrado y/ o programas de magíster; y en cualquier caso precisan de la autorización expresa de la CNA).

Tabla 7: Registro de evaluadores por agencia

	Total	UN(21)
acredita ci	448	331
akredita	379	301
acreditacion	404	s/i
qualitas	549	453
aadsa	92	81
apice	215	s/i
a&c	637	473
aacs	197	s/i

Fuente: Elaboración propia en base a los datos disponibles en el sitio web: www.cnachile.cl.

Como se mencionó antes, dado que no existe impedimento alguno para que un evaluador esté formalmente registrado en más de una entidad acreditadora, en la práctica es frecuente observar que muchos de los evaluadores forman parte de los registros de dos o más entidades, de manera que el universo total de evaluadores en ningún caso resulta de la sumatoria algebraica de los evaluadores registrados en la CNA más los registrados en agencias. Aún cuando no ha sido posible determinar con precisión el número de evaluadores, a partir de los datos recolectados, se estima que ellos no superan el millar.

Consideraciones Finales

En 2011 integraban el sistema de educación superior chileno: sesenta universidades(22), cuarenta y cuatro institutos profesionales y setenta y tres centros de formación técnica. Del total de universidades, sólo cincuenta y ocho son acreditables (las otras dos se encuentran en proceso de obtención de autonomía, y las instituciones deben contar con autonomía plena para ingresar al sistema de acreditación), de ellas cincuenta y tres están acreditadas, por lo que, más del 90% de las universidades chilenas están acreditadas. Pero ello no implican que entre ellas sean similares, las diferencias radican en el número de

años de acreditación obtenidos y las áreas que sometieron a evaluación, de manera que lo razonable, es comparar instituciones acreditadas en áreas idénticas.

De las cincuenta y tres universidades acreditadas, veinticinco, es decir, el 47%, lo están sólo en las áreas obligatorias (gestión institucional y docencia de pregrado), quince acreditaron tres criterios, cinco acreditaron cuatro criterios y sólo ocho acreditaron los cinco criterios posibles, éstas son: Universidad de Chile (por siete años), Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile (por siete años), Universidad de Santiago de Chile (por seis años), Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso (por seis años), Universidad Austral de Chile (por seis años), Universidad Católica del Norte (por seis años), Universidad de Concepción (por seis años) y Universidad de La Frontera (por cinco años)(23).

En cuanto a los CFT, de los setenta y tres que actualmente funcionan en Chile, sólo trece, esto es el 18%, están acreditados; en el caso de los IP el 34% de ellos está acreditado; la evidencia sugiere que el modelo de acreditación no ha logrado permear al sistema de educación superior no universitaria.

Tomando como referencia la información disponible en el Servicio de Información de Educación Superior (SIES)(24), durante el año académico 2010, el 14% de la matrícula de pregrado estaba en los CFT, el 24% en los IP y el 62% restante en las universidades; lo que evidencia la demanda que existe por este segmento de la educación superior, la que de una u otra forma ha promovido el surgimiento de nuevas instituciones, en una primera fase; y, posteriormente, de nuevas carreras(25). Nuevamente observando los datos recogidos por el SIES, se tiene que para el año académico 2011, los CFT ofrecieron alrededor de dos mil carreras o programas, los IP por su parte ofertaron más de cuatro mil, y las universidades también situaron su oferta programática de pregrado por sobre tres mil. Sin embargo, los registros de la CNA sólo dan cuenta de un poco más de mil carreras o programas de pregrado incorporados al sistema de acreditación, en su gran mayoría correspondientes a instituciones universitarias, lo que nos lleva a concluir que el sistema de educación superior no universitaria está al margen del sistema de acreditación, lo que se traduce en que ni las instituciones ni las carreras son capaces de evidenciar mecanismos de autorregulación, elemento que como se señaló anteriormente, constituye la piedra angular de este sistema.

A cinco años de la entrada en vigencia de la ley 20.129, se observa una pobre incorporación de las instituciones de educación superior no universitarias a los procesos de acreditación, por lo que, en la práctica y considerando las directrices del modelo, es razonable sostener que los CFT e IP, en su gran mayoría, no pueden demostrar a la sociedad toda que disponen de mecanismos de gestión institucional fiables y verificables por agentes externos (aún cuando estos adolecen de los sesgos ya mencionados).

En cuanto a las universidades, si bien es cierto, han ingresado masivamente al sistema, los resultados que exhiben no son del todo comprensibles por la ciudadanía, por cuanto, éstos últimos observan la condición de acreditada o no acreditada, y no las variables subyacentes al resultado(26).

Principales Vicios del Modelo

Escasa independencia entre el ente verificador y el evaluado: El sistema de acreditación chileno está basado en la verificación por pares evaluadores externos. Como se planteó antes, las estadísticas muestran una estrecha relación entre los registros de evaluadores de entidades acreditadoras y las instituciones sujeto de evaluación, de suerte tal que la fuerte concentración de los evaluadores nacionales en unas pocas instituciones universitarias, hace que, irremediamente, surjan conflictos de intereses y/ o presiones entre los agentes.

Insuficiente número de evaluadores: Los datos presentados dan cuenta de un registro de evaluadores insuficiente para responder a las demandas del sistema. Por ejemplo, la nómina de evaluadores habilitados para integrar procesos de acreditación institucional es de ciento ochenta nacionales y cincuenta y cuatro extranjeros, los que debiesen ser capaces de atender a un total de sesenta universidades, setenta y tres Centros de Formación Técnica, y cuarenta y cuatro Institutos Profesionales; a una media de tres a cuatro evaluadores por acreditación, necesariamente, cada uno deberá participar de varios procesos.

Homogeneidad de los aranceles: Otro de los elementos que se ha expuesto, dice relación con el establecimiento de aranceles que sólo diferencian a partir de las variables: sede y criterios de acreditación (en el caso de los procesos institucionales), omitiendo factores relevantes como el número de alumnos, la naturaleza de la institución (estatal o privada) o capacidad de pago. Cabe señalar que este elemento podría ser uno de los que desestimula la incorporación de instituciones de educación superior no universitaria al sistema.

Vinculación entre las entidades: Existe evidencia que permite demostrar la vinculación que existe entre las agencias acreditadas y las instituciones universitarias. Sólo para ejemplificar, obsérvese que una agencia fue constituida por ex rectores de universidades chilenas y otra es propiedad de dos instituciones de educación superior. La experiencia acumulada sugiere que los sistemas de acreditación no han logrado aún, incorporar el elemento autoevaluativo en la cultura institucional, parece ser que la condición de 'acreditado' se orienta más a fines publicitarios que al mejoramiento continuo.

Principales Virtudes Atribuibles al Modelo

Genera y favorece la difusión de información respecto a las instituciones y programas: Probablemente uno de los principales beneficios que este modelo ha generado para la sociedad en su conjunto, es la disponibilidad de información. Un par de décadas atrás la percepción sobre las instituciones de educación superior descansaba más en la historia que en elementos objetivos, y aún cuando hoy no se disponga de información sobre el sistema (en su conjunto), los avances que se han generado bien valen la mención.

Promueve la generación y gestión de mecanismos de autorregulación: El modelo introdujo elementos que otrora no constituían una preocupación para las instituciones, por ejemplo: formulación, implementación y evaluación de planes de desarrollo, definición y validación de perfiles de egreso, elaboración de estudios de demanda, estudios de percepción y sondeos de opinión respecto a las instituciones. Si bien es cierto, la cultura autoevaluativa no ha sido instalada, la adopción de este tipo de prácticas la propiciarían. En términos reales y a pesar de los vicios y defectos que puedan atribuirse al modelo de acreditación chileno, la necesidad de contar con él no está en discusión. Hoy en día el debate está centrado en qué mecanismos de mejoramiento y regulación es necesario introducir, por tanto, parece razonable sostener que este modelo llegó para quedarse. Es muy probable que en algunos años más nuestro modelo difiera del que se ha descrito.

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NOTAS

- (1) Véase: http://www.mineduc.cl/index2.php?id_seccion=3586&id_portal=59&id_contenido=14894.
- (2) Véase: http://www.mineduc.cl/index2.php?id_seccion=3586&id_portal=59&id_contenido=14894.
- (3) Línea que, como se verá más adelante, terminó por configurarse como uno de los ejes claves en los procesos de acreditación.
- (4) Véase http://www.mineduc.cl/index2.php?id_seccion=3586&id_portal=59&id_contenido=14894.
- (5) Esta entidad tendría entre sus funciones: (i) continuar con el sistema de licenciamiento (existente desde 1990), (ii) acreditar carreras profesionales y técnicas, además de programas de postgrado- magíster y doctorado- y, (iii) acreditar instituciones autónomas de educación superior.
- (6) La necesidad de contar con información veraz y de manera oportuna, promovió la necesidad de desarrollar un sistema que fuese alimentado tanto por datos capturados por el Ministerio de Educación, como por otros generados en las propias instituciones; se consideró oportuno incluir información proveniente de otras instituciones de naturaleza pública o privada. Todo ello con miras a facilitar que los jóvenes postulantes a la educación superior, sus padres y la sociedad toda pudiese acceder a un conjunto básico de información de cada institución integrante del sistema.
- (7) Véase http://www.mineduc.cl/index2.php?id_seccion=3586&id_portal=59&id_contenido=14894.
- (8) Véase: <http://www.cnachile.cl/cna-chile-institucional/comites-consultivos/>
- (9) El sistema de acreditación que más adelante se detalla es aplicable sólo a las instituciones de educación superior autónomas, por tanto, la condición de 'licenciamiento' y 'acreditación' son incompatibles entre sí.
- (10) Que distingue entre universidades, institutos profesionales y centros de formación técnica.
- (11) Que distingue entre carreras de técnico de nivel superior, carreras profesionales y programas de pregrado.
- (12) Que distingue entre programas de magíster, programas de doctorado y especialidades médicas.
- (13) Dependerá de tipo de proceso que se desarrolle la pertinencia de incluir más o menos informantes, y por cierto, la determinación de quienes califican en esta condición.
- (14) El período máximo de acreditación es de siete años para las instituciones y las carreras de pregrado. En el caso de los programas de postgrado, el período máximo es de diez años.
- (15) Este protocolo puede sufrir pequeñas variaciones dependiendo de la entidad acreditara que conduzca el proceso.

- (16) Cuando el proceso es conducido por la CNA, el Recurso de Apelación se dirige al Consejo Nacional de Educación; y cuando la entidad acreditadora es una Agencia, el Recurso se dirige a la CNA.
- (17) Cuando una institución, carrera o programa no logre acreditarse, podrá volver a someterse a un nuevo proceso de acreditación en un plazo de dos años, oportunidad en la que serán especialmente consideradas las observaciones incluidas en el acuerdo de no acreditación y las evidencias que den cuenta de las acciones implementadas para subsanarlas.
- (18) La acreditación institucional considera dos áreas obligatorias (gestión institucional y docencia de pregrado), y tres áreas optativas (investigación, docencia de postgrado y vinculación con el medio), pudiendo elegir si estas áreas se someterán a evaluación o no.
- (19) Que en la actualidad están casi completamente derivados a las agencias acreditadoras.
- (20) El número de evaluadores que integran un Comité variará dependiendo de: (i) el tipo de acreditación (institucional, de pregrado o postgrado), (ii) el número de sedes que tenga la institución o en que se imparta el programa y (iii) en el caso de los procesos de acreditación institucional, del número de áreas a acreditar. En cualquier caso, el comité de pares siempre contará con la participación de un Ministro de Fe, quien tiene la responsabilidad de velar por el normal desarrollo del proceso. Cabe señalar que en la actualidad (2011) no existe normativa que establezca el número mínimo o máximo de integrantes para Comité de Visita, sin embargo, la práctica muestra que el número oscila entre un par, en el caso de los programas de Magíster, y cuatro pares, en el caso de acreditaciones institucionales. Los programas de doctorados siempre contarán con la participación de un evaluador nacional (quien efectúa la visita) y un evaluador extranjero quien efectúa una revisión documental.
- (21) Se refiere al número de evaluadores que además cumplen funciones académicas al interior de instituciones universitarias.
- (22) Dieciséis de ellas estatales, nueve privadas tradicionales, treinta y tres universidades privadas autónomas y dos universidades privadas en proceso de licenciamiento.
- (23) Véase: <http://www.cnachile.cl/oirs/resultados-de-acreditacion/?buscar=true&name2=3>
- (24) Véase: <http://www.sies.cl>
- (25) Téngase presente que en el llamado ‘mercado de la educación superior’ se observan condiciones que no necesariamente se generan en otros mercados, por ejemplo, el que la oferta sea capaz de generar su propia demanda.
- (26) Por ejemplo años de acreditación o áreas en que ha sido acreditada la institución.

ESTRATEGIAS DE COMERCIO EXTERIOR PARA LA INTRODUCCIÓN DE UNA PYME DE EXPORTACIÓN DE TAMALES, EN CIUDAD JUÁREZ CHIHUAHUA

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RESUMEN

El comercio entre países, es una de las actividades más remotas y su origen se dio debido a que poseen diferentes recursos y tecnología, por lo cual se han visto en la necesidad de recurrir al intercambio como medio para satisfacer las crecientes necesidades de sus poblaciones. La introducción de una Pyme de Exportación de Tamales, requiere que se analicen profundamente los aspectos de mercado, técnico, administrativo, legal y financiero, para determinar su factibilidad, no solo de forma local (Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua) si no también internacional (El Paso, Texas). Esta investigación de campo de alcance descriptivo analiza con un diseño cuantitativo las estrategias de Comercio Exterior requeridas para la exportación de tamales. La cual busca como objetivo principal concientizar a los exportadores de tamales sobre los requerimientos y especificaciones que se deben cumplir para introducir el producto de forma exitosa en un mercado extranjero. Con los resultados obtenidos se arroja que la demanda potencial, es mayor a un 70%, enfocada a la población hispana, y que por lo tanto permite que los productores mexicanos de tamales en la región, puedan facilitar su exportación. Tomando en consideración que la aplicación de estas estrategias genera la oportunidad de consolidación de la empresa.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Exportación, Tamales, Estrategias.

JEL: M16

INTRODUCCIÓN

Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua es una Ciudad con gran desarrollo industrial y comercial, lo cual en gran parte se ha logrado gracias a su cercanía con el país más industrializado del mundo que es Estados Unidos. De acuerdo con Hernández, Gallarzo & Espinoza en su libro Desarrollo Organizacional, Un Enfoque Latinoamericano (2011) consideran a la globalización como una nueva tendencia que crea nuevas exigencias y oportunidades en todos los sectores de la economía; por lo tanto México no puede permanecer ajeno a esta tendencia mundial. La globalización parte de un hecho ineludible; vivimos en un mundo cuyos países y bloques son cada vez más interdependientes. A partir de esta situación existen tres escenarios: el mundial, el nacional y el empresarial.

Dentro del contexto mundial, los países están obligados a relacionarse unos con otros, como tal son interdependientes entre sí y en su economía global, en la que ninguna nación puede proclamarse como la dominante, puesto que no hay economías autosuficientes. En el ámbito nacional, dentro del marco de la apertura comercial y de la globalización de los mercados, las empresas mexicanas tienen que hacer frente

al entorno mundial de intensa competencia y a los diversas medidas que cada país impone a la importación de mercancías, para proteger a su industria.

Por ello México se ha visto la necesidad de entablar negociaciones comerciales con aquellos países que, por su cercanía, son mercados naturales para los productos mexicanos. Dentro del escenario empresarial, en una economía cerrada, el consumidor no tiene posibilidades de elección en materia de precio y calidad. En contraste las múltiples opciones que brindan un mercado abierto y la competencia que ésta genera favorecen al consumidor final porque cuentan con un mayor número de satisfactores de diversa índole, los cuales pueden ajustarse a cualquier tipo de necesidad y de presupuesto. (Bancomext, 2002). Para competir en los mercados externos es importante conocer los mecanismos y procedimientos que requieren cumplir las operaciones comerciales, así como estar atento a los cambios que realizan los principales países, en sus mecanismos y disposiciones de importación (Bancomext, 2005).

Gómez, Hernández y Espinoza (2009) consideran que normalmente la estructura de las Pyme está determinada por un conjunto de estructuras organizativas sencillas con pocos procesos administrativos formalizados y con una alta concentración de poder en unas cuantas personas, sin embargo una empresa cualquiera que sea el tamaño del que se pretenda establecer, debe cumplir con requerimientos esenciales para su incorporación al mercado, por lo cual debe estudiar de forma detallada la información que debe contener el plan de negocios para fundamentar la factibilidad del mismo y dentro de este desarrollo darle el enfoque de exportación deseado para el logro de las metas establecidas en la investigación.

El tamal de acuerdo con Esther Hernández en su libro Vocabulario en la Lengua Castellana y Mexicana de Fray Alonso de Molina (1996), define al tamal como “pan de maíz que se cuece en olla, envuelto en hojas del mismo cereal”. La planta de maíz cocinada se llamaba tamalli (ahora tamal) y a menudo se cocinaba en hojas de maíz. Los tamales con frecuencia se hacen con rellenos, y se calientan colocándoles una armadura de palos y hojas, “tlapextle”, que se colocan en la olla. (Bukasov, 1963).

Esta investigación se presenta como sigue. En la sección de revisión literaria permite realizar una discusión relevante de la literatura, clarificando el concepto de PYME de exportación, se justifica la necesidad de generar una planeación adecuada para la formación de una empresa de exportación, se presentan las estrategias que se requieren para el desarrollo de las empresas de exportación de tamales. Se justifica la metodología para la evaluación de esta investigación y los resultados obtenidos mediante la presentación de los análisis estadísticos. Y por último las consideraciones, conclusiones y recomendaciones para las PYME exportadoras.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La pequeña empresa desempeña un papel fundamental en nuestra existencia, porque gran parte de nuestra actividad económica personal se realiza a razón de personas que dirigen pequeñas empresas. El término pequeña empresa se refiere a negocios que tienen dueños y gerentes locales y, casi siempre, pocos empleados que trabajan en un solo lugar (Stoner, Freeman y Gilbert, 1996). Las empresas MiPymes representan a nivel mundial el segmento de la economía que aporta el mayor número de unidades económicas y personal ocupado; de ahí la relevancia que reviste este tipo de empresas y la necesidad de fortalecer su desempeño, al incidir éstas de manera fundamental en el comportamiento global de las economías nacionales; de hecho, en el contexto internacional se puede afirmar que el 90% o un porcentaje superior de las unidades económicas totales está conformado por mas MiPymes (INEGI, 2004).

La estructura organizacional de las Pymes son en promedio considerablemente menos complicadas que la microempresa que consta en gran medida de trabajadores autónomos y que en ocasiones trabajan en compañía de unos cuantos miembros de la familia, lo que redundaría en que con frecuencia la cantidad de empleados es menor a 5, (Hernández y Anaya, 2009). La diferencia entre las características de los tipos de empresa y su tamaño, hace necesario que al iniciar una empresa se realice la evaluación que permita conocer la rentabilidad económica y social, de tal manera que se asegure resolver una necesidad humana en forma eficiente, segura y rentable (Baca, 2006). Esta evaluación toma a consideración los aspectos de mercado, técnico, administrativo, legal y financiero.

Para las Pequeñas y Medianas empresas de exportación de forma específica, los estudios se deben realizar de manera que podamos definir con exactitud cuáles son los riesgos y beneficios en los que se va a incurrir para la apertura de un nuevo negocio, en el caso del Estudio de Mercado nos permite estimar la cantidad de los bienes y servicios provenientes de una nueva unidad de producción, que los consumidores (del país o del extranjero) estarán dispuestos a adquirir a un determinado precio, (Colaiacono, Assef y Guadagna, 1993). David Ibarra Valdez, en su libro Los Primeros pasos del mundo empresarial (2001), determina que para el estudio técnico requiere la lista de maquinaria y equipo, la inversión en adaptación o construcción del lugar de trabajo, determinando cual es el proceso de producción, la localización de la empresa y las obras físicas necesarias.

Los siguientes estudios que se requieren establecer abarcan los aspectos administrativos, legales y financieros. El estudio de organización no es suficientemente analítico en la mayoría de los casos, lo cual impide una cuantificación correcta, tanto de la inversión inicial como de los costos de administración. Las etapas iniciales de un proyecto comprenden actividades como la constitución legal, trámites ante el gobierno, compra de terreno, construcción de edificio, o su adaptación, etc., todas estas actividades y su administración deben ser previstas adecuadamente desde las primeras etapas, ya que esa es la mejor manera de garantizar la consecución de los objetivos de la empresa. (Baca Urbina Gabriel, 2006). La evaluación económica, permite realizar un concentrado de los estudios anteriores, donde se obtendrá el rendimiento mínimo que debe ganar un proyecto para que el valor de mercado de la empresa permanezca sin cambios (Gitman, 2007).

Para poder hablar de exportaciones, de comercio internacional y de cómo funciona, es muy importante y fundamental entender el sustento teórico del comercio exterior. Primeramente se hace mención de la economía internacional y la teoría económica, “la economía internacional trata sobre las relaciones económicas entre países. La interdependencia resultante es muy importante para el bienestar económico de la mayoría de las naciones del mundo y se encuentra en una fase de aumento. Es decir la mayoría de las naciones del mundo exportan algunos bienes, servicios y factores de producción a cambio de importaciones que sólo podrían ser suplidas de una manera relativamente menos eficiente internamente, o simplemente no podrían ser suplidas” (Salvatore, Dominick. 1986)

Adam Smith en el año de 1776 publicó su famoso libro, La riqueza de las naciones, en el cual atacaba la visión mercantilista del comercio y en cambio promulgaba el libre comercio como la mejor política para las naciones del mundo. Smith sostenía que con el libre comercio cada país podría especializarse en la producción de aquellos bienes en los cuales tuviera una VENTAJA ABSOLUTA, es decir, aquellos que pudiera producir más eficientemente que otros países e importar aquellos bienes en los cuales tuviera una desventaja absoluta o sea. Aquellos que pudiera producir menos eficientemente. De esta manera, no es necesario que un país se beneficie a expensas de otros países. Todas las naciones podrían beneficiarse simultáneamente (Salvatore Dominick, 1986)

Por su parte David Ricardo estableció que aún si un país tuviera una desventaja absoluta en la producción de ambos bienes con respecto al otro país, el comercio mutuamente ventajoso todavía podría tener lugar. La nación menos eficiente debería especializarse en la producción y exportación del bien en el cual su desventaja absoluta fuera menor. Este es el bien en el cual el país tiene una desventaja comparativa por otro lado, el país debería importar el bien en el cual su desventaja absoluta fuera mayor. Esta es la razón de su desventaja comparativa. Lo anterior es conocido como la Ley de la Ventaja Comparativa, una de las más famosas y todavía no vulneradas leyes de la economía” (Salvatore Dominick, 1986)

METODOLOGÍA

Considerando que el objetivo de la investigación es determinar las estrategias de comercio exterior que necesita implementar una pequeña o mediana empresa ubicada en Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua para la exportación de tamales a El Paso, Tx., es necesario desde una perspectiva descriptiva utilizar el método cuantitativo no experimental a través de una encuesta aleatoria simple de preguntas cerradas dicotómicas y con varias posibilidades de respuesta. Se evaluaron en forma interrelacionada los estudios de mercado, técnico, económico y financiero del proyecto.

Dentro de cada estudio se registran los requerimientos necesarios que determinan la factibilidad del establecimiento de la empresa, se analizan los canales de comercialización del producto, así como la normatividad que las dependencias nacionales y extranjeras demandan para que el producto pueda ser introducido al mercado meta. Con la finalidad de saber las estrategias a utilizar para la introducción del producto en el mercado meta, este estudio trata de saber con precisión, los elementos o factores que determinan la preferencia en el consumo de tamales en El Paso, Tx.; es decir, quienes lo consumen, con qué frecuencia, que sabores prefieren y sus opiniones acerca de las características que la población objeto de estudio considera importante a la hora de elegir un tamal en el mercado de El Paso, Texas.

Estas investigaciones describen, registran, analizan e interpretan la naturaleza actual, y la composición o proceso de los fenómenos. El enfoque se hace sobre conclusiones dominantes o sobre como un grupo o cosa se conduce o funciona en el presente (Best, 1970, citado por Tamayo, 1999). Los estudios descriptivos únicamente pretender medir o recoger información de manera independiente o conjunta sobre los conceptos o las variables a las que se refieren (Hernández Sampieri *et al*, 2006).

Hernández Sampieri (2006) afirma que en una investigación no experimental cuantitativa se tratan estudios donde no hacemos variar en forma intencional las variables independientes para ver su efecto sobre otras variables, sino que solo se observan los fenómenos tal como ocurren en su contexto natural. El instrumento de evaluación a utilizar es el cuestionario, que consiste en un conjunto de preguntas respecto de una o más variables a medir, aplicados por una persona a un sujeto de la muestra seleccionada. Las preguntas cerradas contienen categorías u opciones previamente delimitadas y son más fáciles de codificar y preparar para el análisis de los resultados. Su principal desventaja es que limitan las respuestas de la muestra y requiere anticipar las posibles respuestas de la muestra (Hernández Sampieri, 2006).

El Paso es una ciudad del estado de Texas situada en el extremo meridional de Estados Unidos, frente a la ciudad mexicana de Ciudad Juárez perteneciente al estado de Chihuahua, de la que la separa el río Bravo, El Paso es un importante centro de transporte aéreo, terrestre y ferroviario; es, asimismo, el principal núcleo industrial y comercial de una región minera y agrícola en la que se cultiva algodón y productos hortofrutícolas y en la que se cría ganado. La ciudad posee una gran mezcla de las culturas mexicana y

estadounidense, si bien la mayoría de sus habitantes son de origen hispano. Por tal motivo, los contactos comerciales y turísticos con el norte de México son constantes.

Chontal Felipe (2010) se refiere a Estados Unidos como un mercado que se distingue por su población heterogénea, alto consumo y nivel de ingreso. “Es un mercado muy atractivo pero con mucha competencia, donde se hace necesario presentar un producto altamente competitivo y una estrategia de entrada y permanencia bien definida que tome en cuenta los principales factores” (p. 197) que pueden determinar la competitividad del proyecto exportador, tales como:

- Conocimiento del mercado.
- Conocimiento y observación de los trámites aduanales, requisitos arancelarios y no arancelarios en ambos lados de la frontera.
- Conocimiento de los costos y tiempos de transporte.
- Identificar un segmento específico del mercado al que se enfocará el producto.
- Penetración paulatina con tiempos de entrega correctos.
- Innovación y diversificación de los productos.
- Excelente servicio al cliente.
- Empaque vanguardista.
- Monitoreo de la competencia

Fuentes utilizadas: La información que se incluye en este estudio es compilada a partir de fuentes secundarias y primarias. Las fuentes secundarias abarcan información estadística de fuentes del gobierno, de distribuidores, importadores y exportadores en cada sector, así como información sobre regulaciones gubernamentales para el acceso del producto al mercado de Estados Unidos. Las fuentes primarias se obtuvieron partir de la aplicación de una encuesta a través de un cuestionario diseñado con preguntas cerradas. Las encuestas se llevaron a cabo en el centro de El Paso, Texas así como en los principales centros comerciales de esta ciudad.

Determinación de la población: La población total de la ciudad de El Paso, Tx. según el censo del 2000 es de 563 662 personas de las cuales, 267 651 son hombres lo que representa el 47.5 % de la población total, y el resto, es decir 296 011 son mujeres las cuales representan el 52.5%. De esta población el 76.6% es de origen hispano, es decir un total de 431,871 habitantes hispanos, los cuales son considerados el objeto de estudio para esta investigación, y de la cual se desprende la obtención de la muestra de la siguiente manera:

N = Población hispana de entre 15-54 años residentes en El Paso Texas.

Determinación de la muestra: Para poder determinar la muestra necesaria para llevar a cabo la investigación de campo se utilizó la fórmula del tamaño de la muestra para poblaciones infinitas siguiente:

$$n = \frac{k^2 \cdot p \cdot q}{e^2} \quad (1)$$

Dónde:

N : es el tamaño de la población (número total de posibles encuestados).

e : es el error muestral deseado.

p: es la proporción de individuos que poseen en la población la característica de estudio. Generalmente se suele suponer que $p=q=0.5$ que es la opción más segura.

q: es la proporción de individuos que no poseen esa característica, es decir, es $1-p$.

n: es el tamaño de la muestra (número de encuestas que vamos a hacer).

k: es una constante que depende del nivel de confianza que asignemos.

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 * 0.5 * 0.5}{(0.05)^2} = 384 \quad (2)$$

Datos

N= 239, 781

K=1.96

e= 5%

p= 0.5

q= 0.5

n=384

K= 1.96 para un nivel de confianza de 95 %

Variables consideradas para el establecimiento de estrategias de exportación, se muestran en la tabla 1.

Como sigue:

Tabla 8. Variables de Estudio

Variables	Conceptualización	Instrumento de Medición
Requerimientos legales	Requisitos o especificaciones documentales que debe exhibir o poseer un producto sobre el contenido, forma o funcionalidad.	Recopilación de requisitos de dependencias oficiales que el país importador requiere para poder introducir el producto en el mercado.
Demanda del producto	Demanda Real Es la cantidad de producto que el mercado actualmente consume.	Encuesta
	Demanda Potencial Es la cantidad de producto que es probable que el mercado consuma si prevalecen las condiciones en las cuales se planteó la investigación (Baca Urbina, 2008)	
Características requeridas del producto	Es un conjunto de atributos que se necesita incorporar al producto para poder tener preferencia entre los consumidores.	Encuesta
Canales de distribución	Es el circuito a través del cual los productores hacen llegar sus productos a los consumidores finales.	Encuesta (se pregunta a los consumidores finales donde adquieren el producto)

Procesamiento de datos: Los datos obtenidos en la muestra se someterán a un análisis riguroso que permitirá hacer la descripción completa de la problemática y plantear las estrategias de comercio exterior adecuadas, para llevar acabo el objetivo de esta investigación, y que tenga como consecuencia el éxito de los exportadores mexicanos de tamales que buscan una oportunidad en Estados Unidos.

RESULTADOS

Se determinaron las estrategias de comercio exterior que necesita implementar una pequeña y mediana empresa para exportar, siendo el objetivo fundamental del estudio establecer cuáles son los factores administrativos y de mercado para el desarrollo e implementación de una PYME exportadora de tamales cuyo origen final es la ciudad de El Paso, Texas. El estudio de mercado permitió identificar las compañías que pueden fungir como competidores directos de la empresa, asimismo, se logró constatar el grado de lealtad de los clientes potenciales hacia las empresas previamente establecidas. El estudio indicó que no existe una preferencia considerable hacia alguna marca en específico; sin embargo, los consumidores de tamales en El Paso, Tx., toman en cuenta factores como el precio, la calidad, el sabor, la variedad de ingredientes, la disponibilidad del producto y la higiene, como características fundamentales para la elección del producto. Mismos que puede verlos en las siguientes figuras 1, 2 y 3. Que son:

Figura 1: Preferencias del Consumidor hacia el Producto

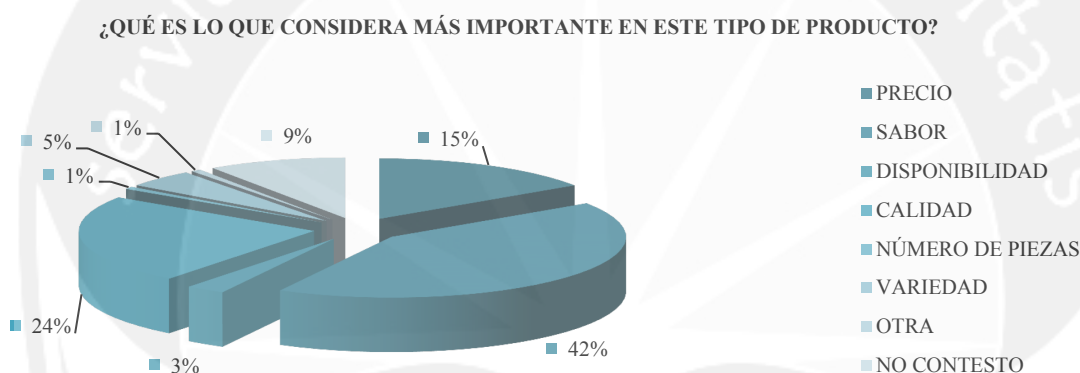
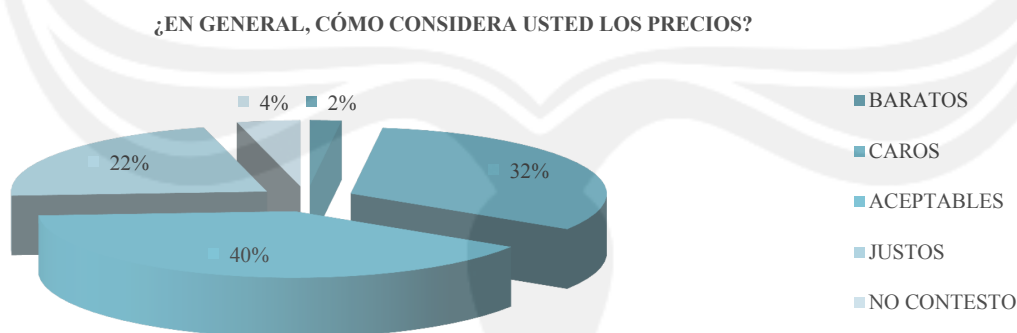


Figura 2. Representación de los precios.



El 41% de los encuestados consumen el producto de manera periódica, y el 57% lo adquiere de manera esporádica. La frecuencia de consumo de las personas que respondieron afirmativamente a la encuesta, nos permite conocer que el 44% de éstos lo consume dos veces al mes, el 31% una vez al mes y el 2%,

más de cuatro veces al mes. De acuerdo a las personas que consumen el producto, el 29% de los encuestados señalaron que lo encuentran disponible para su consumo en restaurantes, el 22% en pequeños comercios, el 12% en mercados, el 12% en establecimientos de comida rápida y 13% se abstuvo de contestar.

De la implementación de esta empresa de exportación y para conocer el nivel de demanda del mercado hispano en El Paso, Tx., se obtuvo que el 81% de las personas consumiría el producto, el 15% respondió que no tendría un consumo muy afín y el 4% se limitó a no contestar.

De acuerdo a los encuestados el 65% señaló, que si existe una diferencia de calidad de una empresa a otra, el 33% menciona que no hay diferencia en la calidad del producto de una empresa a otra y el 4% no respondió a la pregunta. Además los encuestados afirman que no existe una preferencia marcada de los tamales que se venden en empresas estadounidenses, en relación con los tamales que se fabrican en México. Además se analizaron los problemas derivados al consumo de tamales, dentro de los cuales el 77% afirmó que si ha tenido problemas relacionados al consumo del producto, el 20% dijo que nunca ha tenido problemas con el consumo de tamales y el 3% no respondió a la pregunta. Dentro del segmento de personas que han experimentado alguna problemática al consumo de éste producto, el 80% dijo que se debía a la mala higiene en el proceso de elaboración, el 7% señaló que ha tenido precios altos, el 5% debido a que el producto se encontraba en mal estado, el 4% debido a alguna otra razón no explicada y el 4% no respondió la pregunta.

CONCLUSIONES

El tamal mexicano tiene demanda dentro del mercado meta, esto se puede apreciar en la encuesta realizada a los consumidores potenciales. En el desarrollo de la investigación de campo se pudo detectar que los principales proveedores de este producto son de la ciudad de El Paso Tx. y los consumidores no tienen acceso a productos elaborados en Ciudad Juárez, Chih. por lo tanto la población toma con agrado que este producto sea surtido por productores de Ciudad Juárez, Chih., ya que este es de mejor calidad, debido a que sus ingredientes son percibidos por el consumidor como de mejor calidad dado su sabor, color, textura, etc., facilitando su exportación.

El consumidor potencial de este producto es la población hispana, por lo cual El Paso, Tx. representa un gran mercado, ya que los hispanos representan el 76% de la población total, es decir de los 563,662 habitantes de la ciudad según el censo del 2000, 431,875 son hispanos. Las características que el consumidor demanda en este producto según las encuestas realizadas son en primer término el sabor, enseguida fue la calidad y en tercer lugar el precio. Los encuestados opinan que el producto elaborado en Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, comparado con el elaborado en la ciudad de El Paso, Tx., tiene una mejor calidad por lo cual cumple con las características que el consumidor demanda y este puede ser exportado.

Las causas por las cuales los productores de tamales de Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, no realizan exportaciones por la falta de recursos y la falta de información en este aspecto, esto se pudo constatar al realizar entrevistas con productores locales. Sin embargo las empresas productoras de tamales localizadas en Ciudad Juárez con proyectos de exportación al mercado de El Paso, Tx., dependiendo del tamaño de estas y de los recursos con que cuenten podrán optar por una de las estrategias siguientes:

Estrategia de distribución tomando en cuenta el lugar de localización del mercado meta: La cercanía geográfica determina una mayor intensidad comercial entre productos alimenticios característicos de la

población mexicana. En esta estrategia será necesario emprender una acción de comercialización agresiva desarrollando esquemas de mercadeo directo, especialmente con organizaciones comerciales o cadenas de tiendas de conveniencia locales. Aquí se pretende sacar ventaja de la posición geográfica sobre sus competidores internacionales y nacionales localizados al interior del país, pero queda en igualdad de ventajas comerciales con empresas localizadas en Ciudad Juárez.

Estrategia de diferenciación del producto: Bajo esta estrategia es conveniente comercializar un tamal industrializado, bajo una marca registrada a través de locales propios o por medio de franquicias.

Estrategia de segmentación del producto: Al aumentar el número de familias latinas y su poder adquisitivo, se percibe a un segmento de consumidores que registra un mayor crecimiento en la demanda de numerosos bienes y servicios. Bajo esta estrategia se pretende elaborar un producto con un empaque vanguardista, insumos de primera calidad y sustituyendo grasas y aceites por aceite de olivo. Se enfocará la mercadotecnia hacia un tamal light y nutritivo destinado al consumidor latino de clase media alta.

Estrategia de introducción por precio del producto: La fusión de los mercados hispano-estadounidense y mexicano en la frontera favorece una mayor penetración de las ventas mexicanas en la ciudad de El Paso, Texas. Este se distingue por la alta concentración de hispanos (76 %) principalmente de origen mexicano los cuales incorporan en su dieta alimenticia alimentos tradicionales como burritos, menudos, tacos, tortas y tamales. Esta expansión del mercado latino permite aprovechar las economías de escala relativas al lanzamiento, promoción y distribución de productos, reduciendo los costos en los medios para acceder al consumidor. Estos tamales son elaborados en forma masiva utilizando materias primas que satisfacen los requisitos mínimos de calidad y control sanitario y con un relleno mínimo. Su bajo costo y su alto volumen de producción los hace estar al alcance de la mayoría de la población. Esta estrategia en la que se compite por ofrecer el precio más bajo es la que mayor riesgo ofrece porque se requiere una vigorosa reducción de costos en todas las áreas y su ventaja se basa en experiencia en economía de escala.

De acuerdo con los datos e información recabada con esta investigación podemos concluir que el tamal es un producto viable para su producción y venta en el extranjero ya que cumple con los requisitos para poder comercializarse. Con los resultados obtenidos podemos destacar que así como el tamal producido en ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, es aceptado por la población hispana en la ciudad de El Paso Tx., de la misma manera puede ser aceptado en otro estado de Estados Unidos donde dicha población hispana sea representativa, e incluso en alguna otra parte del mundo donde exista población con estas características. Esto puede ser objeto de un estudio posterior.

En México existe un sinnúmero de productos que pueden ser considerados para su exportación en especial sus artesanías y su gastronomía, estos con seguridad serán objeto de investigaciones posteriores. Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, es sin duda una ciudad con una posición geográfica envidiable, ya que su cercanía con los Estados Unidos la hace una ciudad llena de oportunidades para la exportación de productos de origen mexicano que tanta demanda tienen en su vecino país del norte por su creciente población hispana y en particular de origen mexicano.

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PANORAMA DE LA PARTICIPACIÓN DE LAS MICRO, PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS BAJACALIFORNIANAS EN PROCESOS DE GESTIÓN DE LA CALIDAD

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ABSTRACT

The Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) play an important role in the global economy, in Baja California, Mexico; these companies represent 99.5% of all economic units, employ 61.2% of the workforce and contribute 43.7% total gross production in the state. Given the need to ensure their permanence in the market facing the competition from both, larger companies and those of similar size in the State and in California, richest state bordering North America, Baja California MSMEs should improve their competitiveness. The purpose of this paper is to analyze the situation of these companies in Baja California, and the historical evolution of its participation in quality management processes. To dispel myths about possible limitations of MSMEs, we used the results of the study of Drs. Singhal and Hendricks, and the results of an academic exercise involving 104 volunteer leaders of Tijuana's MSMEs in order to identify areas of opportunity that allow these companies to develop strategies to direct their efforts to implement a culture of quality management.

RESUMEN

Las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (MiPyMEs) juegan un importante rol en la economía mundial, en Baja California, México, estas empresas representan el 99.5% del total de las unidades económicas, emplean al 61.2% del personal y contribuyen con un 43.7% de la producción bruta total del estado. Ante la necesidad de lograr su permanencia en el mercado haciendo frente a la competencia que representan, tanto las empresas de mayor tamaño como las de tamaño similar en el Estado, así como en California, estado fronterizo más rico de Norte América, las MiPyMEs Bajacalifornianas deben mejorar su competitividad. El objetivo del documento es analizar la situación de estas empresas en Baja California, así como la evolución histórica de su participación en procesos de gestión de calidad. Para desvanecer los mitos en torno a posibles limitaciones de las MiPyMEs, se utilizaron los resultados del estudio de los Doctores Singhal y Hendricks, así como los resultados de un ejercicio académico en el que participaron 104 voluntarios dirigentes de MiPyMEs de la ciudad de Tijuana, con el fin de identificar áreas de oportunidad que permitan a estas empresas crear estrategias para encaminar sus esfuerzos a la implementación de una cultura de gestión de la calidad.

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VIOLENCIA Y DESERCIÓN DE ESTUDIANTES DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR

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Bertha Guadalupe Ojeda García, Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora.

RESUMEN

En el presente trabajo se realizará un análisis sobre los factores que influyen en los estudiantes para que estos tengan un buen rendimiento académico, un ejemplo analizado fue la violencia vivida en sus hogares y fuera de éste, ya sea física, psicológica, económica o sexual, siendo la deserción escolar una consecuencia de lo anteriormente expuesto. Este es un estudio de caso que analiza los factores multidisciplinarios que inciden en la deserción escolar y la relación que existe entre la violencia con el rendimiento académico de los estudiantes de educación superior. Los resultados se desprenden de dos investigaciones simultáneas, con objetos de estudios similares entre ambos trabajos que mantienen la hipótesis central de que la violencia es un factor de riesgo para la deserción escolar. En dichos trabajos se desarrollaron metodologías cuantitativas, debido a que se aplicaron encuestas que generaron indicadores que permitieron hacer una propuesta para mejorar el desempeño académico de los estudiantes y con ello profundizar en el entendimiento de los factores que inciden en deserción escolar.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Violencia, deserción escolar, rendimiento académico.

VIOLENCE AND DESERTION OF STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

Our aim is to make an analysis of the factors that influence the student so that they could have a good academic achievement, an example analyzed was violence lived in their homes and out of this, whether physical, psychological, economic or sexual, being the school dropout rates a consequence of the foregoing. This is a case study that analyzes the multidisciplinary factors that affect the school drop-out and the relationship that exists between the violence with the academic achievement of students in higher education. The results are from two simultaneous investigations, with objects of similar studies between the two works which maintain the central hypothesis that violence is a risk factor for the school dropout rate. In both researches, quantitative methodology, because surveys were applied that generated indicators that allowed to make a proposal to improve the academic performance of students and with this deepen your understanding of the factors that affect school drop-out.

KEY WORDS: Violence, school desertion, academic achievement.

JEL: Z19

KEY WORDS: Violence, school dropout, academic performance.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La violencia se ha convertido en un grave problema social que esta impactando y dominando en gran medida a nuestra sociedad, sin distinguir clase social, religión, sexo, edad, raza o nivel educativo. Las universidades no han quedado exentas de que sus estudiantes la padezcan ocasionando que no apliquen todo su potencial, alejándose de lograr la calidad educativa y la mejora continua, siendo esto, una constante en este mundo globalizado. Es por esta razón que se realizó este trabajo, en el que se analizan los porcentajes y los factores que provocan la violencia y las consecuencias de quienes la padecen, no solo en el ámbito emocional, sino en el familiar y educativo, ocasionando, en muchos de los casos, la deserción escolar.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Según cifras del Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, la violencia tiene un costo en América Latina de poco más de 160 millones de dólares (Del Valle, 2001). En las estadísticas realizadas por INEGI (2003) sobre violencia en nuestro país, se encuentra que: en uno de cada tres hogares del área metropolitana de la ciudad de México, se registra algún tipo de violencia, la violencia en nuestro país es responsable del 90% de los casos de menores de la calle. El 86% de niñas que viven en situación de calle fueron abusadas sexualmente por su padre, padrastro o algún familiar cercano.

Las estadísticas sobre la violencia en el Estado de Sonora son muy similares, según la Encuesta Nacional sobre Dinámica de las Relaciones de los Hogares (INEGI, 2006), son objeto de violencia emocional e 38% de las mujeres jóvenes casadas o en unión libre. Este tipo de violencia incluye menosprecios, amenazas, prohibiciones, amedrentamientos, entre otros. Señala que 48 de cada 100 mujeres sonorenses de 15 a 29 años de edad declaró haber sido objeto de al menos un incidente de violencia en el año 2006.

En el municipio de Hermosillo, según la Encuesta Municipal de la Juventud (2008), el 15.8% de los jóvenes del municipio han sufrido violencia física, el 12.2% violencia psicológica y el 1.9% violencia sexual el 19.4% son hombres y el 12.3% son mujeres que han recibido violencia física, el 0% de los hombres y el 3.7% de las mujeres han recibido violencia sexual y el 8.2% de los hombres y el 16.2% de las mujeres han recibido violencia psicológica. Los estudiantes universitarios no están exentos de sufrir la violencia, inclusive muchos de ellos la han padecido y no se han percatado de ello, ya que desconocen que la experimentan, aunque les afecta en su vida diaria y esto se refleja en algunas ocasiones en el rendimiento académico y en muchos de los casos, llegando hasta la deserción.

La ANUIES (2001) afirma que es difícil conocer los porcentajes reales sobre deserción escolar universitaria, debido a que las instituciones interpretan los resultados sobre este problema de diferente manera, por lo que existe dificultad al tratar de hacer comparaciones entre las universidades. Sin embargo, en algunos estudios realizados en México, se encontró que, tal como sucede a nivel internacional, existe un alto índice de deserción de las universidades públicas y privadas, de alrededor del 32%, en promedio. En una investigación realizada en la Universidad de Sonora, en 2007, se obtuvo que el índice de deserción era de un 12.8%, para la cohorte 2005-2 (Pacheco y Burgos, 2007).

En el Centro de Estudios Superiores del Estado de Sonora (CESUES), se han observado porcentajes que van del 7% al 17%, aproximadamente, durante los últimos años. Para la carrera de Licenciado en Comercio Internacional (L.C.I.) de la Unidad Académica Hermosillo, en el período escolar 2009-1, el

índice de deserción fue del 16.62%, tomando en cuenta a todos los estudiantes que se encuentran en el nuevo modelo educativo (Ojeda, 2009).

Existen muchos factores que provocan la deserción escolar universitaria, tales como la situación personal que prevalece en cada estudiante: el nivel socioeconómico (en algunos casos, la necesidad de trabajo), el proyecto de vida que tiene, la relación que tenga con su familia (donde toman importancia algunas situaciones como la integración familiar, la monoparentalidad, la violencia intrafamiliar y la promiscuidad), los antecedentes escolares, los estilos de aprendizaje, el nivel de exigencia y el nivel de responsabilidad del alumno, lo que conlleva a la reprobación escolar reincidente (Tinto, V., 1989)

METODOLOGÍA

Las investigaciones en las que está basado este trabajo son propias, en ellas se manejó el enfoque cuantitativo, debido a que se realizó un análisis de alumnos que pertenecen a una población grande. La herramienta básica que utiliza este paradigma, para analizar los datos, es la estadística. Se realizó considerando las siguientes características: no experimental (porque no hay manipulación premeditada de las variables, se examinó a profundidad la evidencia observada); transversal (debido a que se aplicó una encuesta una vez, es decir, se realizó en un solo momento); descriptiva (puesto que se colocó a una muestra de alumnos en varias variables para describir a la población de estudio).

Metodología De La Investigación Sobre Violencia En Estudiantes Universitarios

La población de estudio para esta investigación, fueron estudiantes que se encontraban cursando el quinto semestre de L. C. I., durante el período 2008-2. Se consideró que el tamaño de la población de estudio es de 115 alumnos para calcular el tamaño de la muestra, con un margen de error del 5% y un nivel de confianza del 95%. El tamaño de la muestra fue de 60 personas. Una vez que se realizó el cálculo anterior, se procedió a elegir a los elementos de la muestra, a través de un proceso aleatorio simple.

Metodología De La Investigación Sobre Deserción En Estudiantes Universitarios

Los estudiantes que formaron parte de la población de estudio, se encontraban estudiando el segundo semestre de la carrera antes mencionada, durante el período 2009-1, los cuales pertenecen a una parte del alumnado que se encuentra en riesgo de abandonar los estudios, ya que, es en ese período, cuando se presenta con mayor frecuencia la deserción escolar. Se consideró que el tamaño de la población de estudio es de 138 individuos para calcular el tamaño de la muestra, con un margen de error del 5% y un nivel de confianza del 95%. El tamaño de la muestra resultó de 102 individuos. Una vez que se realizó el cálculo anterior, se procedió a elegir a las personas, a través de un proceso aleatorio simple.

RESULTADOS

Con respecto a su rendimiento académico este es el siguiente: El 58.3% tiene un promedio entre 8.0 y 8.9, el 16.7% tiene un promedio de 9 a 9.5% y el 24.9% cuenta con un promedio de 9.6 a 10. Al preguntar a los alumnos si habían sido víctimas de violencia el 61.7% manifestó que no y el 38.3% de los estudiantes aceptó haber sido víctima de algún tipo de violencia. Las personas que violentaron a los estudiantes fueron de su círculo más cercano consanguíneamente y sentimentalmente, el 30.4% manifestó que había sido agredido por su padre, el 17.4% por su pareja y el 13% por su madre. Se efectuó una correlación de variables para analizar quienes han recibido más violencia las mujeres o los varones, resultando que las

mujeres han sido más violentadas que los hombres. De los jóvenes que fueron violentados el 8.3% señaló que ha dejado de asistir a clases por esa causa, ocasionándole, retraso en sus tareas escolares, en la capacidad de aprendizaje, que se reflejará más adelante en bajo rendimiento académico.

De los estudiantes violentados el 20% manifestó haber recibido violencia física, el 2.4% violencia sexual. El 57.9% de los alumnos manifestaron que el ser víctimas de violencia les había afectado su rendimiento académico, el 42.1% no lo consideraron así. Al efectuar un análisis de los alumnos que manifestaron haber recibido algún tipo de violencia con su rendimiento académico, pudimos comprobar que los alumnos que han sido violentados son los que tienen el promedio académico más bajo el cual oscila entre 8 a 8.9 y en este rango se encuentra el 78.26% de los estudiantes de Comercio Internacional, inscritos en el quinto semestre (Durazo, 2011).

Con respecto al estudio sobre deserción universitaria, se encontró que la población del CESUES llega en un porcentaje aproximado del 30% con condiciones desfavorables: trabajan y estudian simultáneamente, pertenecen a familias con niveles socioeconómicos medio y bajo, y/o viven fuera de una estructura familiar nuclear. Si bien estos factores no están presentes en la misma población, el porcentaje de aproximadamente 30% en cada uno de estos aspectos si se mantiene, es decir, a CESUES acuden jóvenes a los que se les llama “estudiante atípico”, es decir, aquél que se sale del modelo de estudiante de tiempo completo para el que parecen estar hechas la mayoría de las universidades.

También se observó que, para el 43.3% de los alumnos que ingresan a la carrera, la institución (CESUES) representa su segunda opción de interés es decir, la inclinación inicial de algunos de estos alumnos fue ingresar a la Universidad de Sonora. Para el 19.6% de los estudiantes que ingresan a CESUES su carrera, fue su segunda opción. Lo que lleva a pensar que la deserción se puede manifestar por una orientación vocacional inapropiada. Lo que se encuentra ligado con el perfil de ingreso del alumno a las universidades. Las autoridades de las mismas, deben tener siempre presente cuál es el perfil de ingreso para cada carrera y no deben olvidarlo en el momento de la selección de los estudiantes, ya que esto puede influir posteriormente en la permanencia o abandono estudiantil (Ojeda, 2009).

CONCLUSIONES

Una vez obtenidos y analizados los resultados de la investigación, se concluye que poco más de la tercera parte de los estudiantes de la licenciatura en Comercio Internacional, manifestaron que sufrieron algún tipo de violencia, sus victimarios se encuentran en su círculo de influencia más cercano, están convencidos que el ser víctimas de violencia les afecta en su rendimiento académico y la encuesta verificó este dato como fidedigno, ya que los alumnos que más han sido violentados son los que tienen el promedio académico más bajo. Las estadísticas demostraron que sólo el 26.3% de los encuestados que han vivido violencia han recurrido a solicitar ayuda de un profesional, mientras que el porcentaje restante está haciendo frente a la problemática sin solicitar ningún tipo de apoyo, afectando su salud emocional.

Por lo tanto, podemos concluir que una persona que ha sido víctima de cualquier tipo de violencia, su capacidad de aprendizaje se ve disminuida, provocando bajo rendimiento académico alejándose cada vez más de: tener características de un estudiante con calidad educativa, ser individuos seguros, capaces, proactivos, que trabajen colaborativamente, que buscan en todo momento la mejora continua y en consecuencia puede presentarse la deserción escolar. Los resultados obtenidos obligan a reflexionar respecto a la violencia y su consecuencia la deserción escolar en las instituciones de nivel superior, específicamente en CESUES, que a pesar de los esfuerzos realizados a través del Programa Institucional

de Tutorías y otros programas establecidos con la finalidad de reducir el índice de reprobación, el rezago educativo y en consecuencia el índice de deserción escolar, se siguen dando porcentajes altos, lo que significa que hace falta realizar otro tipo de acciones, para lograr disminuir tales indicadores.

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¿POR QUÉ HIZO CRISIS EL SISTEMA EDUCATIVO CHILENO?: EVIDENCIA Y ESPECULACIÓN

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RESUMEN

La última gran reforma al sistema educativo chileno tuvo lugar hace treinta años, en 1981. Aquella transformación incluyó: la redefinición del sistema universitario y la municipalización de la educación general, es decir, el traspaso de la administración del sistema escolar a los 'gobiernos locales', lo que se traduce en una doble dependencia de los establecimientos educacionales. Una década más tarde, junto con el retorno a la democracia, se generaron una serie de políticas tendientes a mejorar los pobres índices en materia de acceso. La consigna en los '90 fue ampliar la cobertura, esto es, destinar recursos para que más niños ingresen al sistema escolar, reducir las tasas de analfabetismo e incrementar la retención. Sin embargo, los años venideros develarían los vicios que generó este 'crecimiento inorgánico' de la cobertura: empeoramiento en la calidad de la educación, desvalorización de la profesión docente, fuertes carencias en infraestructura y pobre cualificación de los sostenedores. En 2006 estalló la 'revolución pingüina' y en 2011 miles de jóvenes salieron a las calles para exigir mejoras estructurales al sistema de educación superior, básicamente porque la configuración de éste ha llevado a que miles de recién graduados asuman deudas millonarias, como consecuencia de la obtención de un grado universitario.

PALABRAS CLAVES: sistema educativo, sistema escolar, educación superior.

WHY DID THE CHILEAN EDUCATION SYSTEM GO INTO CRISIS?: EVIDENCE AND SPECULATION

ABSTRACT

The last great reform in the Chilean education system took place 30 years ago, in 1981. That transformation included: the redefinition of the university system and the municipalisation of the education in general, this is, the transfer of the administration of the school system to "local governments", which translates in a double independence for the educational establishments. A decade later, together with the return of democracy, a series of policies were generated to improve the poor indexes in matters of access. The slogan in the 90's was to broaden the coverage, this is, to destined resources so that more children could get into the school system, reduce the illiteracy rates and to increase retention. However, the coming years would reveal the vices that this "inorganic growth" of coverage generated: worsening of the quality of education, devaluation of the teaching profession, strong deficiency in infrastructure and poor qualifications of the holders. In 2006 the "revolución pingüina" (the penguin revolution) broke out and in 2011 thousand of young people took to the streets demanding structural improvements to the higher education system, basically because its configuration has led to thousands of new graduates to have millions in debt, as a consequence for obtaining their university degree.

JEL: A20, M20

KEYWORDS: educational system, school system, higher education.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La educación superior en Chile está en crisis y sus efectos han sido ampliamente difundidos por los medios de comunicación locales y extranjeros; lo que permitirá al lector hacerse una idea del complejo escenario que enfrentamos. El sistema educativo en su conjunto parece haber tocado fondo, entre otras razones porque ha sido incapaz de responder a los requerimientos de una economía en crecimiento, porque lejos de cerrar las brechas que se generan entre los ciudadanos que nacen en diferentes estratos socio-económicos, ha contribuido a profundizarlas. Este documento contextualiza nuestro actual sistema educativo chileno, develando algunas de sus virtudes y evidenciando parte de sus principales carencias.

Quien puede discutir o cuestionar que el siglo XXI es y será el tiempo en que predominen las economías del conocimiento. Ya en los '90, diversos autores apostaban porque esta 'nueva era' estaría dominada por la información y el saber, de hecho, en la actualidad hablamos de sociedades basadas en la innovación y el desarrollo, las que sustentan el crecimiento (económico) en la gestión de los intangibles. Atestiguamos como las sociedades que se caracterizan por ser intensivas en capital humano han generado mejores resultados y más oportunidades de desarrollo (y bienestar) a sus nacionales. En ese contexto, parece ser la educación chilena está en deuda con sus nacionales.

La evidencia disponible sugiere que hacia mediados de la primera década de este siglo, cerca del 80% de las actividades productivas de las economías más desarrolladas están basadas en el conocimiento (Carrillo: 2005). En ellas el crecimiento se ha relacionado con aumentos en la productividad, el que está relacionado con una dotación de mejores recursos, por ejemplo, en disponer de un mercado del trabajo más cualificado. Caben las interrogantes: ¿qué hemos hecho en materia formación de capital humano y qué podemos hacer?, ¿formamos capital humano, o más bien nos hemos estancado en la intencionalidad?

Contexto de la Educación en Chile

Al observar la historia reciente de nuestro país, es posible identificar una serie de iniciativas tendientes a introducir reformas al sistema educativo- a través las cuales se deben garantizar las condiciones de entrada para la formación de capital humano. Las más recientes las encontramos al iniciar la década de los '90, con el retorno a la democracia. En aquella época, se declaraba que la prioridad en materia educacional era la necesidad de aumentar la cobertura del sistema, en otras palabras, los esfuerzos y los recursos estuvieron destinados a lograr que más niños y niñas ingresaran al sistema escolar y más importante aún, que se mantuvieran en él, es decir, los criterios predominantes fueron: cobertura y retención. Donoso (2004) señala que, en materia educativa, las acciones adoptadas desde el retorno a la democracia, observaron tres aspectos distintivos:

- (i) A partir de la década del '80 los aportes presupuestarios al sector educación decrecieron. Se ha estimado que los recursos asignados por la ley de presupuestos del año 1990 eran equivalentes, en paridad de poder adquisitivo, al 72% del presupuesto de 1982 (González: 2003, en Donoso 2004),
- (ii) Los menores aportes se tradujeron en un deterioro sostenido del sector educación, cuyos impactos fueron evidentes varios años después. Considérese que el cambio en el sistema de financiamiento y la municipalización del sistema escolar generaron efectos no sólo en el alumnado, sino también en el profesorado; y

- (iii) la doble dependencia (Ministerio- Municipalidad o Ministerio- Corporación Municipal, según sea el caso), a ratos ficticia, propició que los mecanismos de control y supervisión terminaran quedando ‘en manos de nadie’.

A pesar de ello, los gobiernos democráticos instalados a partir de 1990, no introdujeron cambios significativos, como precisara la OCDE (2009): *“el gobierno de la transición a la democracia tomó la decisión estratégica de no revertir el proceso de municipalización ni cambiar el modelo y mecanismos de financiamiento establecidos en 1981”*; los que se subentendió como una forma de validación.

Entre los mecanismos de apoyo a la política pública educacional (particularmente en lo referido al incremento de la cobertura del sistema escolar) surgieron los Programas MECE(1) y P-900(2). Éste último definió como alcance a las 900 escuelas más vulnerables del país y tenía por objetivo reforzar la actividad docente, es decir, se dirigía a los profesores, estudiantes y sus familias, otorgándoles acceso a beneficios a través de los cuales fuera posible mitigar el impacto de las diferencias socioeconómicas en el proceso de aprendizaje (Bustamante: 2006). Estos programas, fueron diseñados para sentar las bases que soportarían el proceso de reforma educacional que, más tarde sería impulsado.

Cabe mencionar que la implementación de estos programas fue la última de las grandes reformas educacionales efectuadas en nuestro país (la llamada *“reforma educativa neoliberal”*). Diez años después (ya iniciada la década del noventa) el analfabetismo había disminuido y los años de escolaridad media habían aumentado, pero la calidad de la educación no guardaba relación con la mayor cobertura. En términos simples: la estructura del sistema, hasta hoy, no ha cambiado.

A lo largo de los '90 la política educativa estuvo orientada, por la financiación de proyectos de mejoramiento educativo (destinados a apoyar iniciativas innovadoras en el aula). Entre ellos, cabe destacar el surgimiento del programa enlaces, fue planteado como un medio para que los establecimientos pudiesen disponer de recursos computacionales, y la creación de una subvención diferenciada de ruralidad, la que tuvo por objetivo asumir y compensar las diferencias y carencias inherentes a este sector. Hacia fines de la década se inicia la última de las reformas educacionales que nuestro país ha experimentado. Ésta fue diseñada en base a cuatro ejes (García- Huidobro: 1999):

- (i) fortalecimiento de la profesión docente,
- (ii) implementación de la jornada escolar completa,
- (iii) la transferencia de recursos a través de programas para el mejoramiento en la calidad y equidad, y
- (iv) la transformación del curriculum educacional.

Todos estos cambios implicaron transformaciones significativas en la educación chilena, sin embargo, estos no fueron todo lo auspiciosos que se esperaba. Se pudo constatar que la brecha observable entre los sectores socioeconómico más acomodados y más desposeídos se había intensificado, en otras palabras, la reforma no logró disminuir las desigualdades. Como sentenció el informe Desarrollo Humano para Chile 2002, elaborado por el Programa de Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo (PNUD): *“la sociedad chilena es la segunda más desigual de América Latina tras Brasil, y es una de las más desiguales del mundo”*.¿Por

qué las acciones adoptadas durante una década (entre las que se incluyó una mayor destinación de recursos, políticas para el fortalecimiento de la profesión docente, mayor cobertura y mecanismos para el mejoramiento de la equidad y la calidad) en la práctica no han logrado reducir la brecha entre los estudiantes más pobres y los más ricos?

Probablemente porque las acciones emprendidas no alteraron un ápice el fondo del sistema, en otras palabras ninguno de los esfuerzos se orientó a corregir el desentendimiento que asumió (durante los '80) el estado en materia educativa, no cambió la estructura frágilmente reguladora de un sistema competitivo y asimétrico (en el sentido puramente económico), donde los criterios de calidad guardan una estrecha relación con el 'precio del bien', aparentemente nuestro país había internalizado en el hecho que la educación es un bien de consumo. Frente a este escenario no parecía lejana la generación de una respuesta desde la sociedad, la que ha tomado la forma de los llamados 'indignados'; fórmula que en poco tiempo se ha globalizado. En cualquier caso, y volviendo sobre el punto anterior (políticas educativas), sabemos que hasta el final de la década del '90, las acciones y decisiones incorporadas a la definición de las políticas diseñadas para el sector, estuvieron centradas en la educación general (básica y media), por tanto, las mediciones de logro estuvieron dadas por indicadores asociados a este segmento, a saber:

- (i) evaluaciones de alcance nacional como el SIMCE(3) o la PAA; hoy llamada PSU(4) y
- (ii) evaluaciones de alcance internacional, como la prueba PISA(5).

Las primeras (SIMCE y PSU) muestran la importante brecha que existe entre los resultados obtenidos por los estudiantes de los colegios municipalizados versus los que se forman en colegios particulares pagados, y la segunda (PISA) revela que la educación chilena, comparada con el resto de los países participantes de la medición: “no aprueba”. En términos simples, nuestro sistema educativo es desigual y deficitario en el contexto global. Teniendo estos elementos como condiciones de entrada, es decir, un sistema escolar débil, desigual y excluyente: ¿qué podemos esperar del sistema universitario?, ¿puede la educación terciaria corregir las distorsiones que ha generado la educación general? La evidencia sugiere que no.

Considérese que la última reforma a la educación superior se produjo en 1981. Esta transformación, en términos muy someros: desarticuló a las instituciones universitarias que hasta ese entonces existían, creando las llamadas: universidades tradicionales y derivadas (las segundas, nacieron sobre la base de las sedes regionales de las primeras); constituyéndose en las veinticinco (25) instituciones que integran el Honorable Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Chilenas (CRUCH), el actual escenario universitario incluye otras treinta y cinco instituciones privadas (universidades privadas). La principal diferencia entre las primeras y las segundas es que las llamadas “*tradicionales*” reciben aportes fiscales directos- los que representan una cifra que bordea el 30% del total de sus ingresos(6) - mientras que las segundas sólo pueden recibir aportes fiscales indirectos (que son consecuencia de la calidad de los alumnos que ingresan a ellas- puntajes de ingreso-). En consecuencia, nuestro actual sistema educativo además de desigual y deficitario, cuenta con mecanismos que, por la vía de premiar la excelencia, generan aportes estatales a los segmentos más acomodados de la sociedad; o sea, se genera una suerte de subsidio indirecto que favorece a los estudiantes provenientes de los sectores más ricos y se castiga a los jóvenes de origen vulnerable. Aparentemente, nuestro actual sistema educativo precisa de una reforma profunda, pero ¿en base a qué reformar? El actual contexto requiere, al menos, de una definición clara de dos elementos:

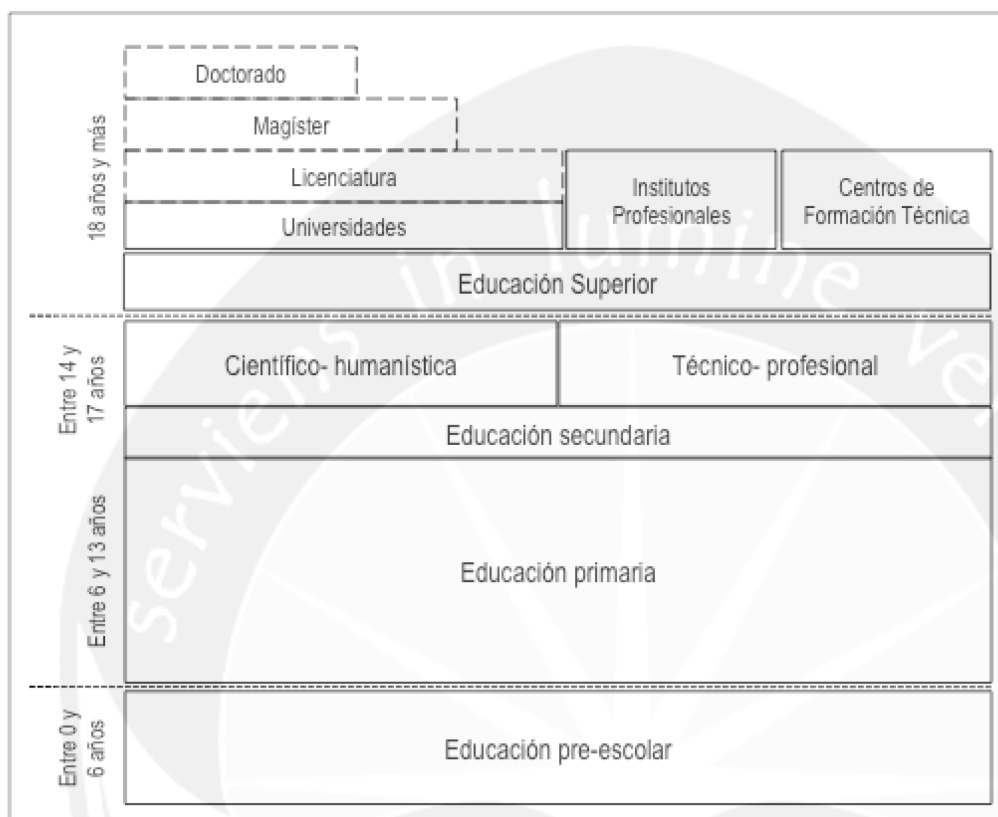
- (i) definir ¿qué hacer? en educación y ¿para qué?, esto es, establecer una estrategia para el desarrollo de la educación en el país, y
- (ii) explorar experiencias exitosas en esta materia. En este punto resulta clave identificar buenas prácticas, siendo cuidadoso en observar el contexto en que éstas se generan- cómo, por qué y para qué- ejercicio que aparentemente, no hemos hecho. En otras palabras, la determinación de una agenda en materia educativa debe contener la especificación primaria de ¿qué sistema educativo queremos y cómo este será capaz de soportar el desarrollo económico y social del país?, además de otorgar mayores niveles de bienestar a sus ciudadanos.

El Sistema Educativo Chileno

En nuestro país, el sistema educacional se encuentra estructurado sobre la base de tres ciclos formativos claramente diferenciados; siendo sólo uno de ellos obligatorio. Éstos son:

- (i) Educación pre-escolar (o parvularia), ésta no es obligatoria y abarca desde la sala cuna hasta el jardín de niños. Este ciclo atiende a niños de hasta seis años;
- (ii) Educación general, la que se divide en:
 - a. enseñanza básica, sub-ciclo que tiene una duración de ocho (8) años y la edad mínima para ingresar es de seis (6) años; y
 - b. enseñanza media, cuya duración es de cuatro (4) años, y
- (iii) Educación superior, la que se imparte a través de tres tipos de instituciones: centros de formación técnica (en adelante CFT), institutos profesionales (en adelante IP) y universidades(7). En la práctica, existe un cuarto tipo de instituciones: las escuelas de formación de las fuerzas armadas y de orden y seguridad(8).
- (iv) En Chile la educación pre-escolar tiene por objetivo apoyar el desarrollo integral del los niños. Ésta es provista a través de establecimientos públicos y privados, los primeros dependientes de la Junta Nacional de Jardines Infantiles (JUNJI). Este ciclo no es obligatorio. En materia de análisis estadístico este segmento ofrece algunas dificultades, primero los establecimientos privados no tienen obligación de entregar información respecto a la matrícula vigente, por lo que, no es posible disponer de datos precisos en materia de cobertura. De acuerdo a los datos de la CASEN(9) 2009, el segmento que agrupa al 20% más rico de la población (quinto quintil) un 57% de los niños están matriculados en el sistema pre-escolar, la cobertura media nacional está en torno al 42%, siendo las regiones con mayor porcentaje de cobertura la Región Metropolitana de Santiago y la Región de Los Lagos (con 63,8 y 63,1 respectivamente). Casi una década antes, en el año 2000, la cobertura promedio nacional era un poco menor al 33%(10).

Figura 1: Diagrama de la estructura del sistema educativo chileno



Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Objetivamente sólo en los últimos años esta etapa formativa ha sido considerada en la agenda de gobierno, probablemente porque frente a una sociedad cada vez más igualitaria en términos de acceso al trabajo, el mayor número de madres trabajadoras ha incrementado la demanda por salas cuna y jardines infantiles, incluido el segmento de menores recursos, que es el que atiende el gobierno a través de la JUNJI. La educación obligatoria se extiende desde primer año básico (primer año de educación primaria) hasta cuarto año medio (último año de educación secundaria). Se trata de un sistema descentralizado y de administración mixta, dado que la provisión pública radica en las municipalidades, pero la definición de las políticas educativas y la fijación de objetivos y contenidos mínimos es responsabilidad del Ministerio de Educación. La provisión se efectúa a través de:

- (i) establecimientos públicos (dependientes directamente de las municipalidades o bien de corporaciones municipales),
- (ii) colegios particular subvencionados (establecimientos privados que reciben aportes estatales, a través del sistema de subvenciones), y
- (iii) colegios privados.

La diferencia entre ellos radica en que: a los primeros asisten los hijos de familias que no tienen la capacidad de pagar (o co-pagar) para que sus hijos asistan a otros establecimientos(11), éstos además están caracterizados porque cada grupo curso se compone de entre 40 y 45 estudiantes (pudiendo en algunos casos exceder este número), y porque no necesariamente disponen de los mejores profesores. Los terceros (privados) en cambio, establecen grupos (cursos) que no exceden los 30 alumnos (en muchos de ellos, los grupos bordean los 15 estudiantes), y se esfuerzan por contratar a los mejores profesores disponibles (ofreciendo para ellos mejores niveles de renta y/ o mayores beneficios). Los establecimientos subvencionados son una especie de promedio entre los primeros y los segundos, y por cierto, son los más numerosos. Los resultados de la encuesta CASEN 2009 muestran que la cobertura del sub-ciclo: educación básica, está por encima del 99%.

En cuanto al sub-ciclo educación media, cabe hacer notar la existencia de dos modalidades: científico-humanista y técnico- profesional; la primera orientada a entregar la formación académica suficiente para que los jóvenes ingresen al sistema de educación superior, la segunda destinada a que los jóvenes egresen del sistema escolar con una certificación que les permita ingresar al mercado del trabajo. Para este segmento la cobertura estimada a partir de la CASEN 2009 es el 93%. Téngase presente que la educación secundaria sólo se hizo obligatoria a partir de 2003, con la promulgación de la ley 19.876; con anterioridad (y desde 1965) la escolaridad obligatoria estaba fijada en ocho (8) años(12).

Dadas las características de unos y otros establecimientos (municipalizados, particular subvencionados y privados), en nuestro país las familias se esfuerzan por enviar a sus hijos al mejor colegio posible (o al mejor que puedan pagar), entre otras razones porque a través de ello buscan garantizar que, al momento de egresar de la educación general tenga mayores posibilidades de cursar estudios superiores (específicamente universitarios), fundamentalmente porque se ha instalado en nuestro imaginario la idea que la universidad es, prácticamente, la única opción de educación superior posible. En cuanto a la educación superior, el sistema chileno incluye universidades estatales (dieciséis), particulares tradicionales (nueve) y privadas (treinta y cinco). Las universidades pueden otorgar titulaciones técnicas-universitarias, títulos profesionales y grados académicos (licenciaturas, magíster y doctorados).

En cuanto a los centros de formación técnica e institutos profesionales, el caso chileno no observa significativas diferencias (y deficiencias) comparada con otros países de la región, *“los problemas de nuestro país son más o menos los de toda la región”* (Castro y García: 2003 en Bernasconi: 2006). *“en nuestro país el sector público está completamente ausente de la provisión de servicios educacionales en el nivel técnico”*; es decir, en nuestro país no existe provisión pública de educación superior no universitaria, es decir, este sector ha sido absolutamente transferido a los privados, por lo que, las relaciones que en él se generan responden a criterios y premisas de mercado (ajuste entre oferta y demanda). El incremento que ha experimentado la demanda por educación superior universitaria ha llevado a que el número de establecimientos se haya multiplicado de manera importante en las últimas décadas, en desmedro de la formación técnico-profesional (en la que, como ya se mencionó, el estado no participa), acompañado del consecuente desequilibrio entre fuerza laboral profesional y técnica.

Las estadísticas disponibles en el Servicio de Información de Educación Superior (SIES) indican que más del 60% de la matrícula del sistema de educación superior está en las universidades, el 40% restante se divide entre Centros de Formación Técnica, Institutos Profesionales y Escuelas Superiores de las Fuerzas Armadas y de Orden y Seguridad. Cabe mencionar en este punto, como variable relevante, la presión que el aumento en los años de escolaridad obligatoria ha generando en el sistema de educación superior, en palabras de Redondo

(2007): *“la ampliación de la cobertura escolar obligatoria a 12 años ha traído como consecuencia la saturación de la educación media y, con ello, el aumento del número de años necesario para alcanzar mayores ingresos (MIDEPLAN, 2004). Esto, en vez de diversificar las preferencias aspiracionales entre las distintas instancias de enseñanza superior, prácticamente convirtió a la educación universitaria en el único nivel que permite lograr la movilidad social...”* Realidad que ha provocado importantes incrementos en la oferta y demanda. La primera implica que más jóvenes quieren ingresar a las universidades, pero estudiantes egresados de colegios privados obtienen mejores resultados, por tanto, ocupan las vacantes disponibles en las mejores universidades.

Los estudiantes que obtienen peores resultados deberán contentarse con ingresar a universidades de menor prestigio, las que a su vez se ven inducidas a ‘ajustar a la baja las exigencias’, dado que reciben estudiantes peor preparados, activando un círculo vicioso. Meller (2011) propone un ejercicio interesante, efectúa una estimación tendiente a determinar cuánto valor agrega a los jóvenes chilenos el desarrollar estudios universitarios, y llega a un valor sorprendentemente alto, el que rápidamente explica *“el valor agregado de la educación universitaria chilena es alto respecto de la base de comparación, la cual corresponde a la educación media...”*, conclusión, en el caso chileno: un sistema escolar precario es lo que provoca que la educación universitaria agregue tanto valor a sus egresados. Otro elemento que permite constatar esta realidad es el resultado de la prueba PISA para Chile, en la medición 2009, nuestro país estuvo por debajo de todos los países de la OCDE(13), valor que se considera de referencia, dado que Chile integra este organismo. Como se mencionó, dentro del sistema de educación superior, el sector universitario predomina; lo que sugiere la necesidad de plantear algunas precisiones:

- (i) Incremento significativo de la oferta. Meller señala que mientras en el año 2000 la matrícula nueva estaba en torno a los treinta mil (30.000) alumnos por año, en 2010 esta superó la barrera de los ciento cincuenta mil (150.000), es decir, ésta se más que quintuplicó en una década.
- (ii) Alto costo de los aranceles. Una de las características distintivas del sistema educativo chileno, especialmente del sector universitario, es su alto costo, lo que ha llevado a desarrollar mecanismos que posibiliten su financiamiento. Históricamente los estudiantes matriculados en alguna de las veinticinco universidades tradicionales(14), han podido optar al Fondo Solidario de Crédito Universitario(15). Pero el incremento de la matrícula en instituciones privadas (cuyos estudiantes no pueden acceder a este crédito) obligó a idear nuevas alternativas de financiamiento, en ese contexto surgió el Crédito con Aval del Estado (CAE)(16), un crédito que el alumno adquiere con el sistema bancario y cuya tasa de interés anual es cercana al 6%.

Consideraciones Finales

Chile no ha sido capaz de definir una estrategia de desarrollo que se fundamente en el fortalecimiento de la educación, en la práctica, las transformaciones que ha experimentado el sistema educativo chileno responden a situaciones de crisis o contingencia más que a un plan nacional(17) para el sector. Los países desarrollados han considerado que la educación es uno de los pilares que soporta el proceso de desarrollo de las naciones; definiendo modelos de desarrollo basados en el conocimiento. En cambio, nuestro país aún basa el modelo de desarrollo en la industria primario-exportadora, o al menos, ésta continúa siendo preponderante. Con todo, es oportuno reconocer los avances que nuestro sistema educativo ha experimentado en los últimos años. Entre los cambios introducidos en esta materia está:

- (i) Aumento de la cobertura en todas las etapas del proceso formativo. En la actualidad más niños y jóvenes acceden al sistema educativo; parece razonable sostener que la mayor matrícula en el ciclo preescolar se explica por el mayor número de familias en que ambos padres trabajan, por lo que, este ciclo se ha transformado en un mecanismo de apoyo para estas familias. Las tasas de cobertura por sobre el 90% observadas en la educación general, responderían en gran medida a la obligatoriedad de ésta; situación que a su vez ha presionado que más jóvenes opten por ingresar a la educación superior. En la práctica, cursar estudios en este ciclo es el que permite acceder a más y mejores trabajos.
- (ii) La evidencia disponible permite sostener que los resultados educativos (en términos de logro) se relacionan directamente con el origen socioeconómicos de los niños y jóvenes, así los estudiantes provenientes de sectores más pobres presentan un desempeño inferior al de los estudiantes provenientes de familias más acomodadas.
- (iii) En 2003 se establece que la educación obligatoria se extenderá por doce años, modificación que tiene lugar a casi cuarenta años de fijado la anterior ley de instrucción primaria obligatoria (1965) que establecía como obligatorio al sub-ciclo de enseñanza básica. Como antecedente histórico cabe mencionar que en 1920 se establece, por primera vez, la obligatoriedad de la educación primaria, que entonces se extendía por cuatro años, nueve años más tarde (1929) el ciclo primario se extiende a seis años. En 1965 se establece que la educación primaria se extenderá por ocho años.
- (iv) En los últimos años se ha evidenciado un incremento significativo de las tasas de alfabetización en nuestro país, llegando a cifras que superan el 95%; sin embargo, las características del mundo moderno hacen que saber leer y escribir no sean capacidades especialmente valoradas, porque se asume que es una característica que debe ser inherente a los individuos; en este escenario surge el concepto de alfabetización digital. Sobre este punto no se dispone de estadísticas, sin embargo, se estima que entre los adultos mayores de 40 años la cifra es significativa. Considérese que en la actualidad tener competencias en el uso de computadores es casi un requisito de entrada al mercado laboral.
- (v) La última de las reformas que observó el fondo del sistema incluyó la introducción de una modificación en el curriculum del ciclo general (enseñanza básica y media) y la sustitución de la prueba de aptitud académica (PAA) por la actual prueba de selección universitaria (PSU)(18); modificación que en alguna medida cambió el foco de lo que se buscaba evaluar. Sin embargo, aún no ha sido posible demostrar que estas pruebas constituyen un predictor de éxito en el desempeño de los jóvenes en la educación superior. Adicionalmente cabe señalar que existe evidencia para sostener que:
- (vi) *“la PSU actúa como un instrumento de legitimación de las desigualdades sociales. Esta prueba de selección ordena a los estudiantes que la rinden de acuerdo a los conocimientos y habilidades que debieran haber adquirido en los dos primeros años de la enseñanza media, por estar definidos como mínimos obligatorios. Ideológicamente, la PSU es presentada como una medición objetiva, válida y confiable del mérito personal, un ordenamiento legítimo de la capacidad y el esfuerzo de los jóvenes. El hecho de que*

sus condicionantes principales son de orden socioeconómico, de formación básica y de contexto académico, y que la distribución de sus puntajes coincide estrictamente con la distribución del ingreso, no forma parte de este discurso...” (Redondo:2007)

- (vii) Más jóvenes quieren ingresar al sistema de educación superior. Mientras en el proceso 2004 (correspondiente a los jóvenes egresados de la educación media en 2003) un poco más de 153.000 estudiantes inscritos rindieron la PSU (de unos 159.000 inscritos), el proceso 2011 registró casi 290.000 inscritos de los que más de 250.000 efectivamente la rindieron. Parece razonable sostener que en una década el número de postulantes al sistema de educación (específicamente al sistema universitario) se duplicará, sin embargo, los datos disponibles indican que para el mismo período la matrícula disponible no aumentará en el mismo porcentaje, lo que redundará en que los jóvenes provenientes de los sectores más vulnerables tengan menos opciones de cursar estudios superiores, porque como se mencionó, ellos obtienen puntajes que no les permiten ser admitidos.
- (viii) El mayor número de estudiantes ingresando al sistema de educación superior ha hecho necesaria de establecer una batería de opciones de financiamiento, como se mencionó antes, los aranceles universitarios han incrementado su valor de forma sostenida, lo que ha obligado a los jóvenes y sus familias a buscar alternativas de financiamiento, las que en algunos casos (CAE) han provocado que al momento de egresar deban asumir importantes deudas con el sistema bancario.
- (ix) Durante la primera década del siglo XXI se estableció la política de formación de capital humano avanzado, la que vino acompañada de una importante inyección de recursos, todo ello con el fin de propiciar que profesionales chilenos desarrollaran sus estudios de postgrado (magíster y doctorado) en el extranjero, de manera de acumular masa crítica suficiente para impulsar un modelo de desarrollo basado en el conocimiento, emulando (en alguna medida) lo que ha hecho las economías más desarrolladas.

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NOTAS

(1) MECE corresponde a las siglas de Mejoramiento de la Calidad y Equidad de la Educación. Se trata de un programa cuya finalidad ha sido introducir mejoramientos e innovaciones en las prácticas pedagógicas con la finalidad de mejorar la calidad de los insumos, procesos y resultados del sistema escolar chileno y la equidad de su distribución y acceso. Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

<http://www.c5.cl/cz/html/mece.html>

(2) Llamado también Escuelas Focalizadas. Este programa se centró en las escuelas municipales y rurales cuyos estudiantes están en condición de vulnerabilidad social. Éste incluyó a 900 escuelas cuyo denominador común era la carencia de recursos y las necesidades especiales, sea por la ubicación de ellas o bien por el perfil de estudiantes que albergan. “El Programa de Mejoramiento de la Calidad de las Escuelas Básicas de Sectores Pobres-Programa de las 900 Escuelas- nace en 1990 con el propósito de apoyar el trabajo de docentes y directivos en el 10% de las escuelas de mayor vulnerabilidad educativa y socioeconómica del país (...)pone especial énfasis en el desarrollo de competencias básicas en las áreas de Lenguaje y Matemática, desarrollando una propuesta novedosa de talleres de perfeccionamiento para profesores de primero a cuarto básico. Surgen así una serie de materiales educativos para alumnos y docentes, que actúan como soporte de estos talleres de profesores y de las innovaciones propiciadas en el aula”. Referencias tomadas del sitio web: <http://biblioteca-digital.ucecentral.cl/documentos/libros/lintegrado2/capitulo%201.html>

(3) “El SIMCE es el Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de resultados de aprendizaje del Ministerio de Educación de Chile. Su propósito principal es contribuir al mejoramiento de la calidad y equidad de la educación, informando sobre el desempeño de los estudiantes en diferentes subsectores del currículum nacional, y relacionándolos con el contexto escolar y social en el que ellos aprenden”. Referencias tomadas del sitio web: http://www.simce.cl/index.php?id=288&no_cache=1

(4) “Las pruebas de selección universitaria (PSU) son instrumentos de evaluación educacional que miden la capacidad de razonamiento de los postulantes egresados de la Enseñanza Media, teniendo como medio, los contenidos del Plan de Formación General de Lenguaje y Comunicación, de Matemática, de Historia y Ciencias Sociales y de Ciencias. Esta última incluye a Biología, Física y Química”. Referencias tomadas del sitio web: <http://www.demre.cl/psu.htm>

(5) “El Programa para la Evaluación Internacional de Alumnos de la OCDE (PISA, por sus siglas en inglés), tiene por objeto evaluar hasta qué punto los alumnos cercanos al final de la educación obligatoria han adquirido algunos de los conocimientos y habilidades necesarios para la participación plena en la sociedad del saber. PISA saca a relucir aquellos países que han alcanzado un buen rendimiento y, al mismo tiempo, un reparto equitativo de oportunidades de aprendizaje, ayudando así a establecer metas ambiciosas para otros países”. Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

http://www.oecd.org/document/25/0,3746,en_32252351_32235731_39733465_1_1_1_1,00.html

(6) Incluidas las universidades estatales, lo que se traduce en que las universidades estatales chilenas deben generar mecanismos que permitan autofinanciar alrededor del 70% de sus presupuestos.

(7) A 2010 funcionaban en Chile setenta y tres (73) CFT, cuarenta y cuatro (44) IP y sesenta (60) universidades. Los primeros (CFT e IP) están constituidos como instituciones de derecho privado, mientras que en el caso de las universidades es posible distinguir entre: (i) instituciones estatales (de derecho público)- dieciséis (16)-, (ii) instituciones particulares tradicionales (de derecho privado e

integrantes del H. Consejo de Rectores)- nueve (9)- e (iii) instituciones privadas (Corporaciones o Fundaciones de derecho privado)- treinta y cinco (35).

(8) En este ítem se incluyen las escuelas de oficiales y suboficiales del Ejército, de la Armada, de la Fuerza Área, además de las escuelas de Carabineros, de la Policía de Investigaciones y de Gendarmería.

(9) Se trata de una “encuesta de hogares, de carácter transversal y multipropósito, es actualmente el principal instrumento de medición socioeconómica para el diseño y evaluación de la política social existente en el país...” referencias tomadas del sitio web:

<http://www.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen/>

(10) Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

<http://www.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen/Estadisticas/educacion.html>

(11) A excepción de los llamados ‘colegios emblemáticos’ que siendo municipales, gozan de reconocido prestigio y calidad.

(12) Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

http://www.bcn.cl/bibliodigital/pbcn/informes/estudios_pdf_informes/nro129.pdf

(13) La Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económicos (OCDE) declara que su misión “es promover políticas que mejoren el bienestar económico y social de las personas alrededor del mundo”.

Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

http://www.oecd.org/pages/0,3417,es_36288966_36288120_1_1_1_1_1,00.html

(14) Instituciones que integran el Honorable Consejo de Rectores de Universidades Chilenas.

(15) “Es un beneficio que se otorga a los estudiantes de las universidades del Consejo de Rectores, para financiar parte o el total de los aranceles de las carreras (...) Se entrega a través de un crédito en Unidades Tributarias Mensuales (UTM) con una tasa de interés anual del 2%...” referencias tomadas del sitio web:

<http://www.chileclic.gob.cl/1542/w3-article-46918.html>

(16) Se trata de un crédito adquirido “con el sistema financiero, que está garantizado por la institución de Educación Superior en la que estudia el alumno, y por el Estado, que será garante del estudiante hasta que éste haya pagado por completo el crédito, una vez egresado. Está expresamente prohibido exigir otras garantías, como por ejemplo, avales familiares (...) está expresado en UF y en 2010 tuvo una tasa de interés anual aproximada del 5,8%...” Referencias tomadas del sitio web:

<http://www.uchile.cl/portal/admision-y-matriculas/aranceles-y-credito/credito-con-aval-del-estado/50136/credito-con-garantia-estatal>

(17) Por ejemplo, en enero de 2011, el gobierno irlandés, a través de su Ministerio de Educación (Department of Education and Skills) publicó el documento “Estrategia nacional de educación superior al 2030” (“National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030); este escrito aborda temáticas a partir de las cuales es posible desarrollar la estrategia para el sector (Documento elaborado por Strategy Group. El informe completo puede encontrarse en el sitio web:

<http://www.rte.ie/news/2011/0111/educationreport.pdf>

(18) “La PAA se basaba en la medición de aptitudes referidas a contenidos enseñados en los colegios y liceos hasta I° Medio. Respecto a las antiguas pruebas específicas, éstas sí estaban más vinculadas al currículum escolar, pero varias de ellas no eran exigidas por todas las universidades” (...) las PSU “están referidas a los contenidos seleccionados y determinados por el Consejo de Rectores (...) ellos corresponden a una selección (...) que estableció los contenidos mínimos completos de I° a IV° Medio...”. Estas pruebas (PSU) apuntan a medir los siguientes elementos: los contenidos básicos del

currículum escolar; la capacidad de relacionar lo que se aprende y el logro de autonomía en el aprendizaje; la capacidad de entender el contexto en que se aplican los conocimientos y las habilidades, y el desarrollo de estructuras cognitivas de nivel superior. Referencias tomadas del sitio web: <http://psu.13.cl/comercial/psu/html/QueEs/143732.html>



INSEGURIDAD Y CONSUMO: CASO AUTLÁN DE NAVARRO, JALISCO. MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

La situación de inseguridad que vive México debido a la delincuencia ha repercutido en varios aspectos de la vida cotidiana, pero sobre todo en los últimos dos años se ha modificado el patrón de consumo de su población. Ello provocado por la percepción de la inseguridad en los individuos, según INEGI entre el 2010 y el 2011 el promedio de la percepción sobre la inseguridad fue de 96.35, en una escala donde el 86 es el mínimo y 106 el máximo. La Coparmex anunció en 2011 que la inseguridad ha provocado en el norte del país que el 50% de las empresas cambien de entidad a ciudades con índices menores de delincuencia. Asimismo, otros estudios revelan el decremento en el consumo de giros como; bares, conciertos, restaurantes, centros comerciales, cine, teatro y tiendas departamentales. Los índices reportados sobre la inseguridad y consumo revelan datos de estudios realizados en zonas metropolitanas. Sin embargo, no hay datos de ciudades medias y poblaciones rurales donde también se manifiestan conflictos de inseguridad y por ende impactan la modificación de hábitos de consumo. Por ello se realizó un breve estudio de acercamiento al conflicto, desde una perspectiva de ciudad media para ver el posible impacto inseguridad y consumo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Percepción sobre inseguridad, consumo y hábitos de compra.

ABSTRACT

The security situation that Mexico has is because of the crime has affected several aspects of everyday life, but especially in the last two years the consumption pattern of its population has changed. This is caused by the perception of insecurity in the individuals, as INEGI between 2010 and 2011 the average perception of insecurity was 96.35 on a scale where 86 is the minimum and 106 maximum. Coparmex announced in 2011 that has caused insecurity in the north of the country that 50% of the companies change from entity to cities with lower rates of crime. Likewise, other studies show the decrease in consumption and money, night clubs, concerts, restaurants, malls, movie theaters and department stores. The rates reported insecurity and consumption data from studies reveal in metropolitan areas. However, no data medium-sized cities and rural areas where populations are also apparent conflicts of insecurity and therefore impact the change in consumption habits. Therefore we conducted a brief survey of approach to the conflict from the perspective of average city to see the potential impact and consumer insecurity.

KEY WORDS: Insecurity, consumption and purchasing habits.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El consumidor en México actualmente vive los estragos de la violencia y padece cada día más el impacto de la delincuencia. Es decir, el consumidor ha modificado sus hábitos de consumo derivado de este problema, por lo cual las empresas deben cambiar sus estrategias en el campo de la mercadotecnia para

mover la economía del país. Irigoven y García (2011) afirman que 6 de cada 10 participantes en una encuesta realizada en la ciudad de México sobre inseguridad y consumo, cambiaron de hábitos de compra en los últimos tiempos por la sensación de inseguridad. Este hallazgo es coincidente con reportes del índice de Percepción sobre la Seguridad Pública (IPSP) del Instituto de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI).

Las pérdidas totales en las empresas por la inseguridad en México, según el Instituto Ciudadano de Estudios Sobre la Inseguridad, A.C (ICESI) ha ido del 16.1% en 2007 a 21.1% en 2010. Por otra parte el Consejo Ciudadano para la Seguridad Pública y Justicia Penal en 2011 dio a conocer las ciudades más peligrosas en el país centrándose en su mayoría al norte (Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, Mazatlán, Culiacán, entre otras) y hacia el centro de la República Mexicana (Acapulco y Cuernavaca). Por otra parte Jalisco y Michoacán se encuentran ya en la lista de ciudades con problemas de violencia (Rocha, 2011). Los giros más afectados a nivel nacional según la Coparmex han sido los personales (41%), venta de autos (41%), bienes inmuebles (15%) y alimentos (3%).

Sin embargo, las marcas y asociaciones han tomado como oportunidad la crisis para encontrar nuevas formas de llegar a los mercados a partir del problema. Algunas ciudades como Monterrey que se encuentra en situación de emergencia, ha tomado el fenómeno como una alternativa para atender quizá a un nuevo consumidor. Los estudios se centran en grandes urbes y ocasionalmente ignoran al resto de poblaciones pequeñas o ciudades medias, donde también se intensifican los problemas de violencia y sus efectos al sector empresarial, y por ende al individuo. Por ello, el presente trabajo muestra el estado de percepción sobre la inseguridad en el Municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México, ubicado en la región costa sur a través de un estudio exploratorio de aproximación al problema de inseguridad y consumo.

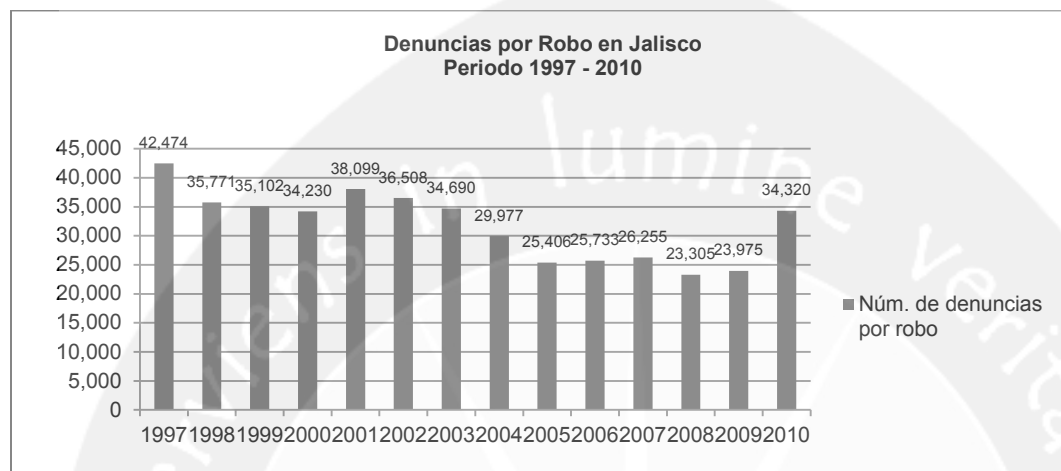
REVISIÓN LITERARIA

En la literatura mexicana son escasos los estudios de los municipios que pertenecen a los estados que conforman el país, que revelen datos sobre la percepción de inseguridad en su población y el impacto que este fenómeno provoca en los individuos. Sobre todo como lo han reportado algunos estudios a nivel nacional en el ámbito del consumo. La inseguridad constituye uno de los grandes problemas de México. Se manifiesta en dos formas: la inseguridad que vive la población, afectada por el aumento de los delitos, y el auge del narcotráfico, que se explica por la incorporación de México a la ruta de la cocaína proveniente de Colombia con destino a Estados Unidos. Esto se manifiesta diariamente en una creciente violencia, concentrada en los enfrentamientos entre organizaciones criminales y entre estas y las fuerzas de seguridad (Benítez, 2009).

Según Zermeño (2009) el crimen común es la principal amenaza que la población mexicana siente en carne propia, en todos los estratos sociales. Las fuerzas de seguridad no logran reducir los índices de delito. Los cuerpos policiales son acosados por los políticos que los conducen y les exigen eficiencia; por la población, que exige el fin de la corrupción, y por los carteles, que los buscan para que trabajen para ellos. Todo esto ha generado una realidad dramática que ha hecho que los militares comiencen a encargarse del trabajo de la policía. A inicios de 2009, casi la mitad de los cuerpos policiales estatales eran conducidos por militares, sin que ello haya demostrado una mayor eficiencia en la reducción del delito. Rocha (2011) argumenta que se puede detectar en el ánimo de los ciudadanos una sensación de temor e incertidumbre sobre cómo se seguirán desarrollando estos lamentables acontecimientos. El miedo

de que situaciones como las de Chihuahua, Tamaulipas o Michoacán se empiecen a repetir en Jalisco, es latente.

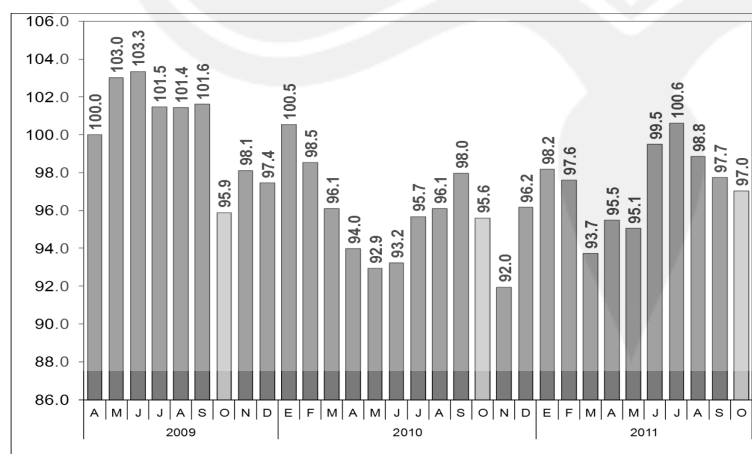
Figura 1. Denuncias por robo en Jalisco, elaboración propia.



Esta figura demuestra el incremento de robos denunciados en el último año.

La percepción de inseguridad en México aumentó más de 4% en el último año, según los resultados de la Encuesta Nacional de Victimización y Percepción sobre Seguridad Pública 2011, publicados por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI). El 69.5% de los mexicanos percibe inseguridad en su estado, contra el 65% detectado en 2010, según el documento. A nivel municipal, la percepción de inseguridad pasó de 54.4% a 60.1% en el mismo periodo. Más de 24% de los mexicanos mayores de 18 años fueron víctimas de algún delito durante 2010, de acuerdo con la encuesta levantada en más de 78,000 hogares de todo el país (CNN México, 2011).

Figura 2. Evolución del índice de percepción sobre la seguridad pública a octubre 2011, INEGI (índice: abril de 2009=100).



Esta figura explica el índice de percepción de la inseguridad en México.

El Índice de Percepción sobre la Seguridad Pública (IPSP) aumentó 1.5% al situarse en 97 puntos (abril de 2009=100) frente al reportado en el décimo mes de 2010 que fue de 95.6 puntos. El avance medido a tasa anual del IPSP en el mes de referencia, se debió a los incrementos observados en los componentes que dan cuenta de la seguridad personal en la actualidad respecto a la de hace 12 meses; a la seguridad personal esperada dentro de 12 meses respecto a la actual; la seguridad pública en el país hoy en día, comparada con la que se tenía hace 12 meses, y a la seguridad pública en el país dentro de 12 meses con relación a la situación actual. En cambio disminuyó el que mide el grado de confianza del entrevistado al caminar sólo por el rumbo donde vive entre las 4 y 7 de la tarde.

En consecuencia en el plano nacional y a nivel estados hay indicadores que señalan cambio de hábitos en el consumo a causa de la inseguridad. Según resultados del estudio realizado por Merca2.0 —revista de mercadotecnia, publicidad y medios—, a una muestra de 400 individuos de ambos sexos, de los 18 a 44 años originarios de la ciudad de México. Dicho estudio reporta que 6 de cada 10 participantes afirmaron que modificaron sus hábitos de compra en los últimos tiempos por sensación de inseguridad. Lo cual coincide con los reportes del Índice de Percepción sobre la Inseguridad Pública (IPSP) del Instituto de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI). En tanto que el rango de 35 a 44 años es el que más ha realizado cambios con respecto a su gasto, mientras que predomina la sensación de inseguridad en los hombres más que en las mujeres. El 80% de los entrevistados comentó que han dejado de asistir a bares y antros, mientras que el 28% dejó de asistir a conciertos.

En conclusión, la mitad de los participantes se siente poco seguros respecto a la seguridad del país, por lo que el 63% menciona que si han cambiado algunas costumbres de gasto ante la situación de violencia. Por otra parte, las categorías de autos y artículos personales han visto afectados sus niveles de ventas en 2011, correspondiente al 82% de los participantes de la encuesta. La Coparmex (Confederación Patronal de la República Mexicana) declaró en mayo de 2011 que el efecto de la inseguridad ha provocado que el 50% de las empresas de la zona norte del país decidan cambiar de identidad a otras ciudades con menos índice de delincuencia —esto incluye a la industria automotriz— que se ve afectada de manera negativa al crecimiento de la industria (Irigoyen & García, 2011).

En Jalisco un estado que presenta una expansión económica en los últimos años, la violencia ha ido en aumento y ha llegado no solo al área metropolitana, si no también a sus municipios. Aunque se presento saldo blanco en los pasados juegos Panamericanos 2011, con sede en la capital Guadalajara, los medios no dejan de difundir información sobre inseguridad y sus pobladores no dejan de percibir miedo y cambios no solo sus hábitos de consumo, si no también su forma de vida cotidiana (García, 2011). Por ello, se realizó el estudio en la región costa sur de Jalisco, en el Municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México. Con el objetivo de conocer el estado de percepción sobre la inseguridad de sus pobladores. Se planteo como pregunta de investigación *¿La percepción de la inseguridad en el Municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México ha modificado los hábitos de consumo de sus pobladores?*

METODOLOGÍA

Para el estudio de aproximación —piloto— tratándose de un estudio empírico de tipo exploratorio no desarrollado a nivel de municipios en el estado de Jalisco, solo a nivel metropolitano (Irigoyen & García, 2011). Se empleo una muestra no probabilística a conveniencia (Malhotra, 2008) conformada por 50 estudiantes del programa educativo de la licenciatura en administración que toman materias relacionadas con la mercadotecnia —para una mejor comprensión del proceso— en el otoño 2011, en el Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur, Universidad de Guadalajara. Con un rango de edad de 18 a 23 años, de

Clase Media, Procedencia No Metropolitana Y Rural, Ambos Géneros. A La Muestra Conformada Por El Sexo Femenino Y Masculino Se Le Aplico El Mismo Tipo De Encuesta En Línea, Bajo Un Formato Tipo Likert Ordinal De Cinco Puntos, Donde 5=Totalmente De Acuerdo A 1=Totalmente En Desacuerdo. Como Hipótesis Se Plantearon: Ho - La Percepción De La Inseguridad En El Municipio De Autlán De Navarro, Jalisco, México Ha Modificado Los Hábitos De Consumo De Sus Pobladores Y Ha - La Percepción De La Inseguridad En El Municipio De Autlán De Navarro, Jalisco, México No Ha Modificado Los Hábitos De Consumo De Sus Pobladores. Cuando Se Habla Técnicas Cuantitativas Y Cualitativas, Existe La Creencia De Que Los Datos Obtenidos A Través De Las Primeras Son Cuantificables Y Los De Las Segundas (Cualitativas) No Lo Son, Lo Cual Es Inexacto, Ya Que Se Trabaja Con Muestras Pequeñas Entrevistando Siempre A Grupos Homogéneos Aplicando La Prueba De X^2 (Chi O Ji Cuadrada) O Pruebas De Significancia. Por Otra Parte, Existen Escalas De Medición Aplicables A Las Ciencias Sociales (Base De La Investigación Cualitativa) Permitiendo Convertir Datos Cualitativos (Prejuicios) En Variables Cuantitativas, Además También Es Posible Medir A Través De Escalas Qué Tan Prejuiciados Estaban Ambos Segmentos Asignándole A Cada Respuesta Un Valor En Puntos (Fischer,1994). Para El Tratamiento De Los Datos Y La Contrastación De La Pregunta De Investigación E Hipótesis Se Utilizaron Frecuencias Y Tablas De Contingencia.

RESULTADOS

Aplicada la metodología descrita en el estudio a continuación se detalla la percepción que tiene el consumidor ante la inseguridad que se vive en el Municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México y cómo han modificado algunos hábitos de consumo. En la primer parte a través del uso de la estadística descriptiva mediante frecuencias, la muestra de 50 individuos conformada por 23 mujeres y 27 hombres, indico lo siguiente:

Figura 3. Composición por género de participantes en el estudio.

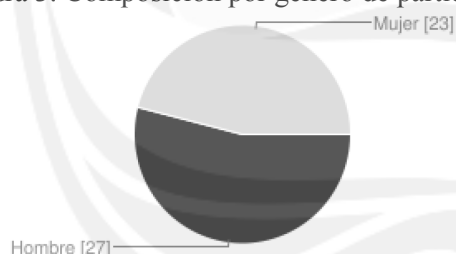
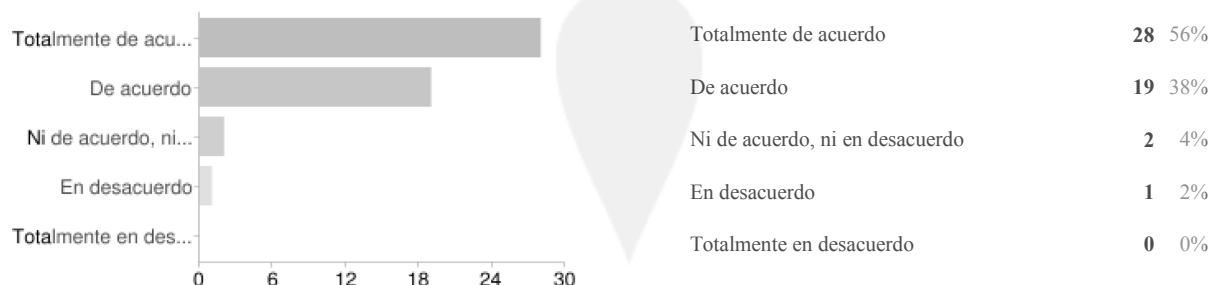
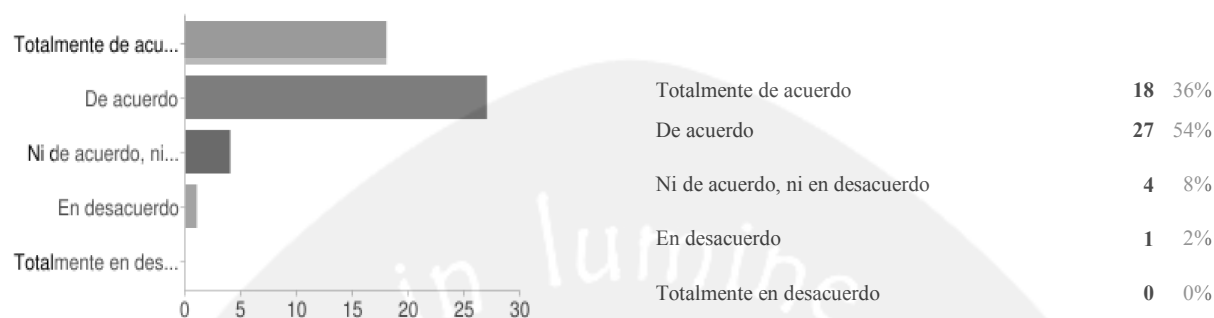


Figura 4. Percepción de la inseguridad en el país y su impacto.



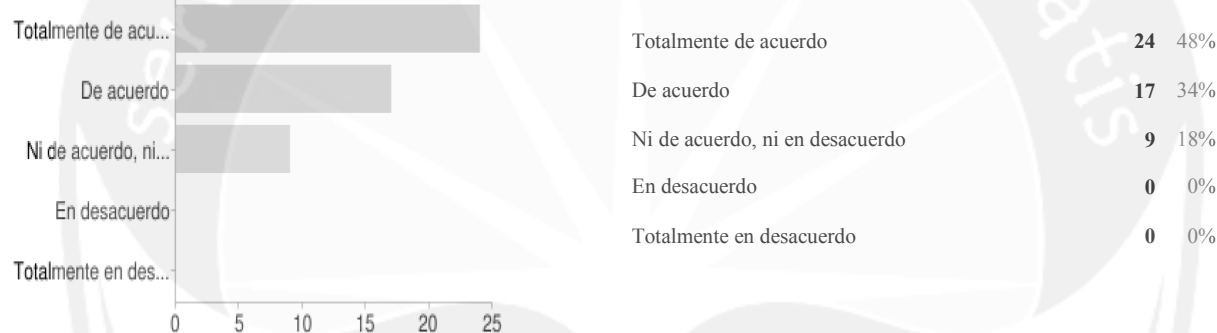
94% perciben que la inseguridad que vive el país ha impactado a nivel social y económico.

Figura 5. Percepción del miedo a ser víctima por delincuencia.



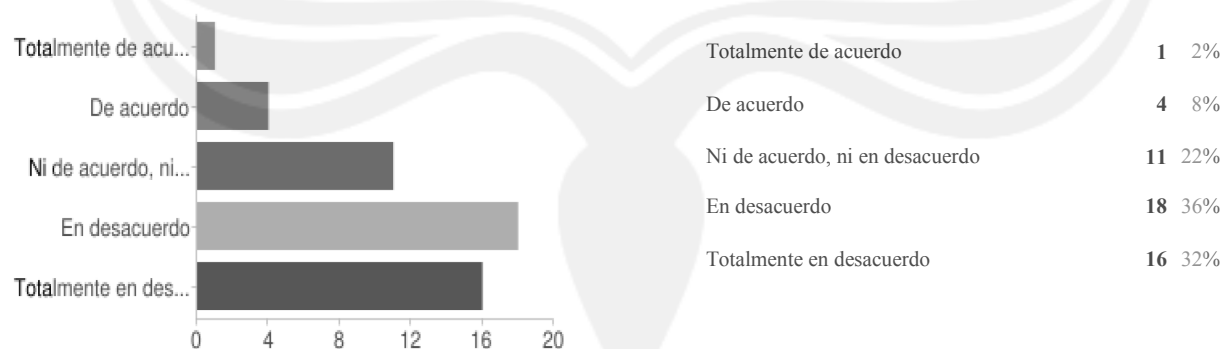
90% opinan que el miedo a ser víctima de la delincuencia limita las actividades cotidianas de los individuos.

Figura 6. Percepción sobre la posibilidad de ser víctima de robos.



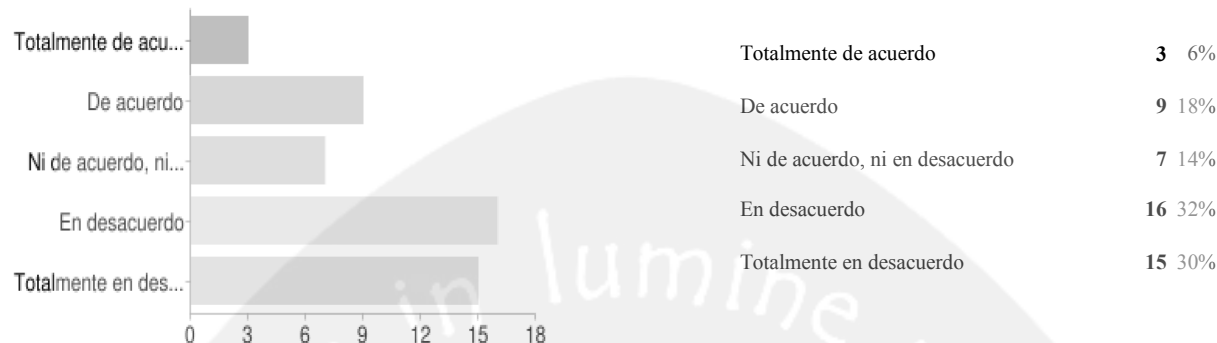
82% perciben que en los últimos doce meses ha aumentado en su ciudad la posibilidad de ser víctima de algún delito (robo, secuestro, venta de drogas).

Figura 7. Percepción de confianza a cuerpos de seguridad locales.



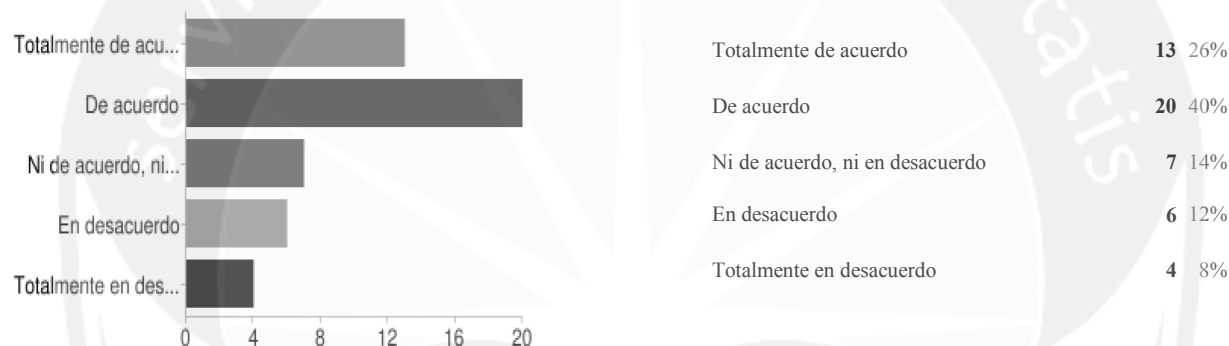
68% ante un hecho peligroso no confía en la intervención del cuerpo de policía de su ciudad.

Figura 8. Percepción sobre la asertividad de los medios de comunicación.



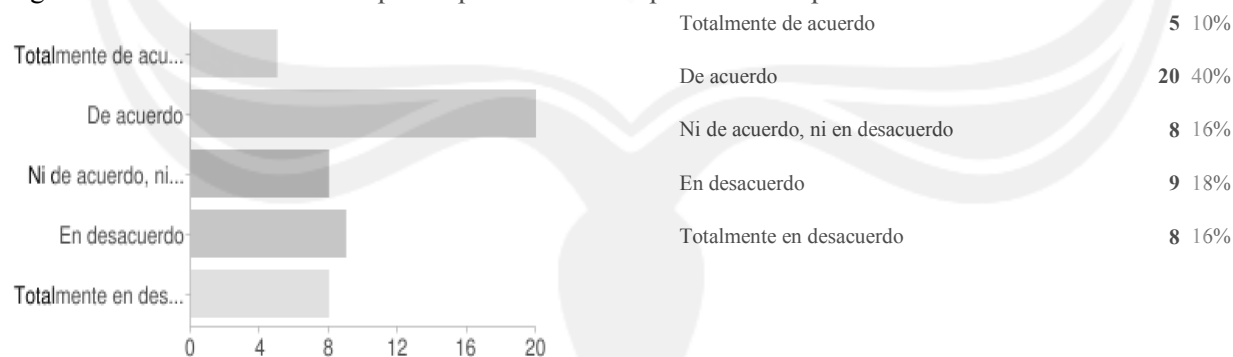
24% considera que los medios de comunicación manejan de manera asertiva datos sobre la delincuencia en el país.

Figura 9. Cambio en hábitos de consumo por delincuencia.



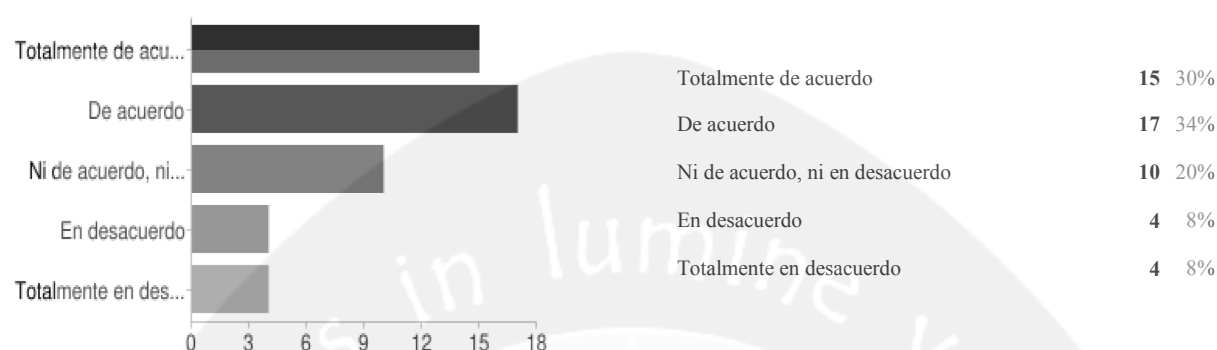
66% consideran haber modificado sus hábitos de consumo debido a la delincuencia.

Figura 10. Disminución de compra en puntos de venta por violencia percibida.



50% disminuyó su frecuencia de compra en mercados, centros comerciales o tiendas departamentales a causa de la violencia.

Figura 11. Cambios sugeridos a empresas por inseguridad.



64% señalan que deben cambiar las empresas horarios, procedimientos y áreas de atención a clientes para garantizar la seguridad de los consumidores.

Respecto a la percepción por género ante el tema de inseguridad y el posible cambio en el consumo, la muestra entrevistada coincide con la nacional. Es el género masculino quien percibe más la sensación de inseguridad y que ha modificado sus comportamientos de consumo. Se generaron cuatro tablas de contingencia que revelan la posición de la variable por género respecto a este fenómeno.

Tabla 1. Variable sexo y el miedo a ser víctima de la delincuencia limita las actividades cotidianas de los individuos.

El miedo a ser víctima de la delincuencia limita las actividades cotidianas de los individuos						Total
Sexo		Totalmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo
Hombre		9	16	2	0	27
Mujer		9	11	2	1	23
Total		18	27	4	1	50

Esta tabla muestra que el sexo masculino ha modificado más sus actividades cotidianas debido a la sensación de inseguridad, respecto del sexo femenino.

Tabla 2. Variable sexo y la posibilidad de denuncia sin temor a los actos delictivos que le suceden y/o suceden en el entorno del individuo.

Denunciaría sin temor los actos delictivos que me suceden y/o suceden en mi entorno						Total
Sexo		Totalmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Totalmente en desacuerdo
Hombre		10	6	8	2	1
Mujer		7	7	5	3	1
Total		17	13	13	5	2

Esta tabla muestra que el género masculino está mayormente dispuesto a denunciar un delito que el femenino.

Tabla 3. Variable sexo y la modificación de hábitos de consumo debido a la delincuencia.

		He modificado mis hábitos de consumo debido a la delincuencia				Total
		Totalmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Totalmente en desacuerdo
Sexo	Hombre	8	11	5	3	0
	Mujer	8	9	2	3	1
Total		16	20	7	6	1

Esta tabla evidencia que el sexo masculino ha modificado sus hábitos de consumo ante los actos de inseguridad.

Tabla 4. Variable sexo y la disminución de la frecuencia de compra en mercados, centros comerciales o tiendas departamentales a causa de la violencia

		Disminuí mi frecuencia de compra en mercados, centros comerciales o tiendas departamentales a causa de la violencia				Total
		Totalmente de acuerdo	De acuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Totalmente en desacuerdo
Sexo	Hombre	3	12	5	5	2
	Mujer	3	8	3	4	5
Total		6	20	8	9	7

Esta tabla explica que el sexo femenino disminuyó en menor proporción las compras en áreas comerciales y espacios abierto, que el masculino.

Con los resultados obtenidos se acepta la hipótesis nula (Ho) la percepción de la inseguridad en el Municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México ha modificado los hábitos de consumo de sus pobladores.

CONCLUSIONES

El 90 por ciento de los participantes declararon sentirse inseguros por la violencia en el país y en el municipio de Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México, por lo que el 66 por ciento mencionó que si han cambiado algunas costumbres de gasto ante estos hechos. En tanto que el 50 por ciento declaro haber modificado sus hábitos de compra en mercados, centro comerciales y lugares de gran concurrencia. Otro dato relevante es que no hay confianza en los cuerpos de seguridad local, así lo expresa el 68 por ciento. Asimismo, el 64 por ciento mencionó que las empresas deben cambiar sus estrategias para adaptarlas al fenómeno de inseguridad. Es el género masculino quien percibe más la sensación de inseguridad y que ha modificado sus comportamientos de consumo. No hay credibilidad en los operativos de la autoridad municipal, así como consideran que los medios manipulan la información delictiva y el amarillismo aumenta el temor en la población.

Este estudio nos hace a entender los cambios que el consumidor ha realizado y su impacto en la economía a nivel municipal en Autlán de Navarro, Jalisco, México, y puede orientar las estrategias de

mercadotecnia que las empresas de la localidad deben implementar para continuar su actividad y contribuir al ciclo económico de la región donde se ubican.

Como se puede observar el consumo se está modificando y las empresas deben diseñar planes y programas para atender el nuevo comportamiento del consumidor. Por otra parte, se debe reconocer hasta donde es capaz el consumidor de resistir la situación actual de violencia en México y que posición asumirá el gobierno en los próximos años ante el problema de inseguridad en un ambiente agitado y próximo al cambio del gobierno federal y estatal, por ende el municipal.

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RECONOCIMIENTOS

Nuestro agradecimiento a las autoridades del Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur por las facilidades y apoyo brindado para la realización del trabajo.

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WEB EDUCATIVA PARA EL REFORZAMIENTO DE LAS CIENCIAS MATEMÁTICAS, EN LA FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS ADMINISTRATIVAS, UABC MEXICALI

Oscar Manuel Madrigal Lizárraga, Universidad Autonoma de Baja California

RESUMEN

Las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación aceleran la colaboración y comunicación de las personas en cualquier organización, y sin duda las instituciones educativas se han beneficiado de ellas. Pero que sucede con la relación maestro-alumno. ¿Habrá algún beneficio? Es decir, podrá el alumno comprender mejor sus materias y el maestro optimizar su enseñanza. En México existe un problema con las ciencias matemáticas, según el INEGI en 2008/09 la tasa de reprobación en educación media fue del 33.33%. Debemos crear herramientas tecnológicas que ayuden a ese problema y que maestros y alumnos obtengan un beneficio, nuestro proyecto permite que el alumno sea autodidacta y que al navegar por internet emplee su tiempo usando y transformando la información de la web educativa para matemática, la cual por otra parte sirve de apoyo a maestros de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, Campus Mexicali en su labor de educar. La percepción de maestros y alumnos hacia las Tics se considera como factor principal para el desarrollo del proyecto, asimismo, para la elaboración del material educativo la experiencia que los maestros tienen en las aulas es invaluable. El proyecto está en marcha y esperamos resultados a finales de Noviembre 2011, para ello se aplicara un instrumento de evaluación a los alumnos y diferente encuestas.

EFICIENCIA EN LAS INSTITUCIONES EDUCATIVAS PÚBLICAS DE LA CIUDAD DE SANTA MARTA CON “DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS”

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Rolando Escorcía Caballero, Universidad del Magdalena
José Mario Agudelo Toloza, Universidad del Magdalena

RESUMEN

El presente es un estudio preliminar, en el marco de un trabajo de grado, que hace parte de la investigación sobre Eficiencia de las Instituciones Educativas Públicas del Distrito de Santa Marta financiado por Fonciencias y en ejecución por el Grupo de Investigación en Currículum y Evaluación GICE. Esta investigación muestra la situación general de las condiciones de eficiencia de las instituciones educativas públicas de la ciudad de Santa Marta, sin embargo, no profundiza en detalles, que se obtendrán en los resultados del estudio general.

La investigación es de naturaleza cuantitativa es un estudio empírico que determina la eficiencia relativa de las Instituciones Educativas del Distrito de Santa Marta, a partir de la técnica Análisis Envolvente de Datos, DEA, la cual ofrece información muy completa e individualizada de las unidades tomadoras de decisión (DMU) analizadas, permitiendo conocer aspectos de interés tanto en las instituciones eficientes como de las ineficientes.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Eficiencia, Análisis Envolvente de Datos, Educación Pública

JEL: A20, C02, C67, I23

ABSTRACT

This is a preliminary study, as part of a undergraduate work, which is part of the research on Efficiency of Public Educational Institutions of the District of Santa Marta, and funded by Fonciencias (Research Fund of the University of Magdalena) and implemented by the Curriculum and Evaluation Research Group (GICE). This research shows the general conditions of efficiency of public educational institutions of the city of Santa Marta, however, does not go into details, which will come in the overall study results

This quantitative research is an empirical study that determines the relative efficiency of the educational institutions of the District of Santa Marta, by means of the data envelopment analysis technique, DEA, which provides very comprehensive and individualized information about Decision Making Units (DMU) analyzed, allowing to know issues of interest both efficient institutions as inefficient.

JEL: A20, C02, C67, I23

KEYWORDS: Efficiency, Data Envelopment Analysis, Public Education

IMPLEMENTACIÓN DEL SIMULADOR FISCAL DESDE LA PERSPECTIVA DEL ALUMNADO EN EL PROCESO DE ENSEÑANZA APRENDIZAJE EN LA FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS ADMINISTRATIVAS DE LA UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

El proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje actualmente toma una ruta que en ocasiones parece no coincidir por la rapidez de los avances de la tecnología y la lentitud de la obtención de éste, sobre todo en la generación de las competencias que deberán desarrollar los alumnos en el área fiscal enfáticamente en las presentaciones de las declaraciones de impuestos vía internet ante la oficinas recaudadoras, el alumno se enfrenta con el obstáculo de no poder hacer uso de esta tecnología ya que debe ser el contribuyente del impuesto el autorizado para tal envío mediante una clave de acceso, por esta razón hemos desarrollado un simulador fiscal para que el alumno pueda obtener su competencia, el presente artículo es la continuación de la implementación del simulador fiscal como herramienta en el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje en la opinión de un grupo piloto para revisar su funcionamiento, aplicación, pertinencia y en su caso efectuar ajustes, con la finalidad de proseguir en la implementación con el resto del alumnado. Se trabajó el simulador fiscal utilizando la declaración del Impuesto sobre la Renta en personas físicas obteniéndose resultados satisfactorios para continuar con la siguiente etapa, la implementación con el docente.

PALABRAS CLAVES. Simulador fiscal, declaración de Impuestos, enseñanza – aprendizaje

INTRODUCCIÓN

La generación de conocimiento en el enfoque en competencias en el área de fiscal, específicamente en la formulación y presentación de declaraciones ante el Servicio de Administración Tributaria, solo se puede hacer mediante la realización de prácticas en la que el alumno aplique sus conocimientos teóricos en casos hipotéticos, ¿Cómo lograr que alumno adquiera experiencia en el envío de declaraciones de impuestos, si solamente el contribuyente está autorizado para ello mediante una clave de acceso? La respuesta es utilizando un simulador fiscal donde el alumno pueda realizar esta operación.

El presente proyecto es la continuación del Simulador fiscal como herramienta en el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje, donde se recaban las opiniones de un grupo piloto que ha estado trabajando el simulador en las declaraciones de personas físicas del Impuesto sobre la Renta.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Se analizaron la Ley del Impuesto sobre la Renta, su reglamento, el Código Fiscal de la Federación y su reglamento así como los formatos de declaraciones, los software que utiliza el Servicio de Administración Tributaria para su captura y envió.

Tobón, S. (2003) establece dos clases generales de competencias: competencias específicas y competencias genéricas. Las competencias genéricas se refieren a las competencias que son comunes a una rama profesional o a todas las profesiones. Finalmente, las competencias específicas, a diferencia de las competencias genéricas, son propias de cada profesión y le dan identidad a una ocupación.

Declaración fiscal. Es la obligación que tiene el contribuyente del Impuesto sobre la Renta de formular mediante un formato diseñado por el fisco, sus ingresos obtenidos en el año de calendario así como los gastos autorizados y el impuesto que le corresponde a la diferencia denominada utilidad, o en su caso el saldo a favor que obtenga el contribuyente.

Firma electrónica. Es la clave de acceso que utiliza el Fisco y se le conoce como FIEL la que se obtiene por parte del contribuyente presentando los requisitos solicitados por la autoridad.

METODOLOGÍA

La metodología aplicada en esta etapa es de corte cualitativo mediante la observación participativa de un grupo piloto integrado por alumnos de la carrera de Licenciado en informática con el propósito de detectar las probables fallas técnicas, para que posteriormente una vez superada esta prueba sea aplicada a los alumnos de contaduría, se les instruyó para ingresar al simulador.

RESULTADOS: PRESENTACIÓN Y ANÁLISIS

Como objetivo principal se tiene la iniciación del simulador fiscal se ha elegido a un grupo piloto se le pidió que ingresara al simulador por medio de su matrícula que se presenta en la figura no. 1.

Figura1: Portada



Los alumnos no tuvieron ningun problema para su acceso al simulador. En la figura No. 2 se muestra la iniciación del simulador fiscal en la que el alumno eligirá el régimen fiscal e iniciará con la captura de sus datos para generar la declaración

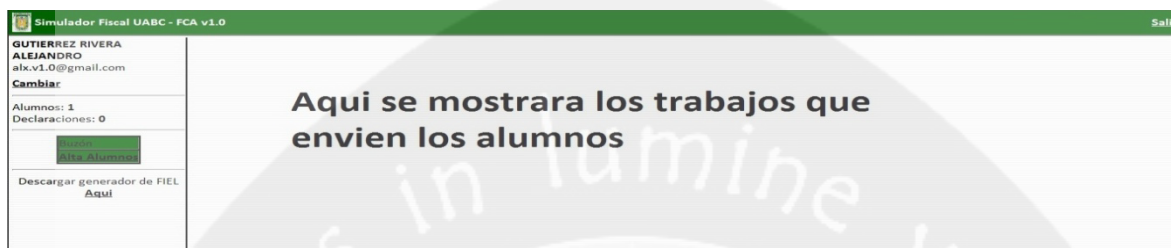
Figura No. 2

Se les solicitó que ingresaran en el régimen fiscal de salarios, ya que son alumnos de la carrera de informática, mencionándoles que una vez que reciban sueldos tienen la obligación de presentar declaración anual.

Se les pidió que usaran sus datos particulares, en esta fase no tuvieron problema alguno. Posteriormente se les proporcionaron los datos numéricos donde sí tuvieron problemas en la selección de los recuadros; una vez que se les explicó no tuvieron ningun problema en continuar con el llenado. Como siguiente paso se trabajará con el maestro El docente tomará las actividades que realiza el fisco y enviará acuse de recibo

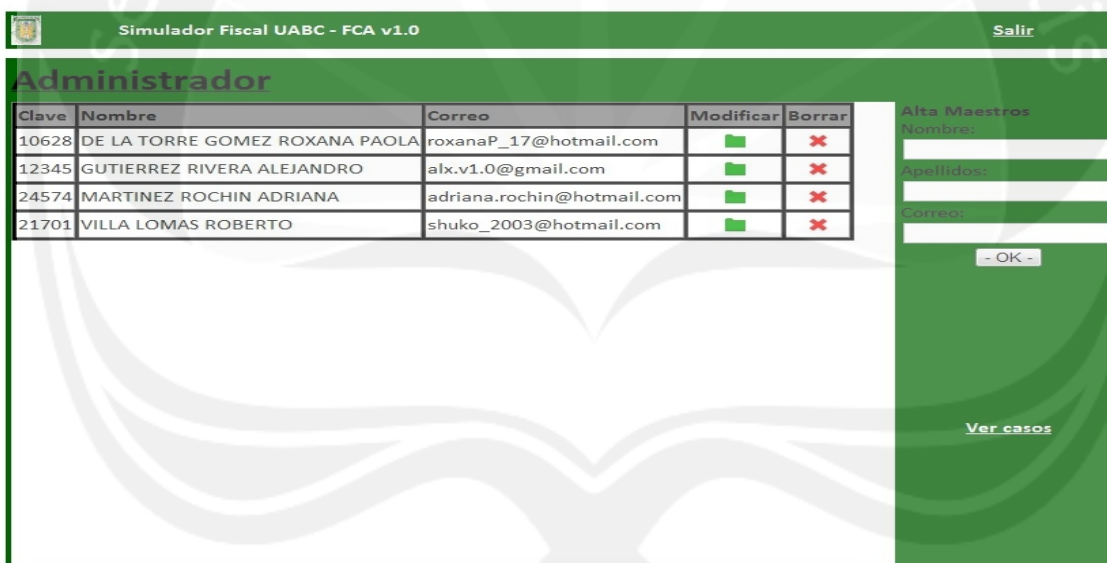
al alumno, posteriormente calificará los trabajos que envíen los alumnos, así como también generarán la firma electrónica avanzada (FIEL) para cada alumno figura No. 3

Figura No. 3



Esta fase queda en proceso de revisión y validación por parte de los maestros que imparten la asignatura del Impuesto sobre la Renta, a continuación se presenta la figura No. 4 que es la pantalla del administrador donde se darán de alta los maestros que utilizarán el sistema.

Figura 4: Pantalla del administrador



Limitaciones. Debido a que la labor del diseño e implementación del simulador fiscal es titánica, se ha utilizado un grupo piloto integrado por alumnos de la carrera de Licenciado en Informática con el fin de detectar los posibles problemas técnicos, se está trabajando a prueba y error.

CONCLUSIONES

De acuerdo a la observación participativa que se llevó a cabo se tiene como conclusión que el simulador en su parte de iniciación tiene su aceptación del grupo piloto, para que continúe con la etapa de aplicación en siguiente grupo de licenciado en contaduría y docentes.

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DETECCIÓN DE LOS FACTORES DE RESILIENCIA COMO SITUACIONES MOTIVACIONALES PARA EL ÉXITO EN LOS ALUMNOS DEL INSTITUTO TECNOLÓGICO DE MEXICALI

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RESUMEN

La escuela en los diferentes niveles es el lugar donde se pasa la mayor parte del tiempo después de la casa familiar, por lo tanto, en el contacto, en la interrelación con maestros, con los compañeros de estudio, con las autoridades de la escuela, se pueden encontrar factores de resiliencia que subsanen determinadas deficiencias de los alumnos y convertirse en situaciones motivantes para asegurar su éxito en el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali. Se ha observado en el que alumnos con serias deficiencias ya sea de tipo económico o incluso físicas, logran sobreponerse y tener éxito al culminar una carrera profesional. El dato conocido son las causas de la deserción escolar, que son de una gran diversidad, que van desde problemas económicos, emocionales, aspectos que tienen que ver con la administración del Instituto o incluso con las instalaciones físicas de la escuela. Este trabajo tiene por objeto exponer un avance en la investigación de los principales factores de resiliencia en el Instituto, para que una vez determinados, dirigir esfuerzos para reforzarlos y construirlos, en su caso, de tal forma que un aspecto negativo o debilidad de la organización se convierta en una fortaleza. Nos parece que este último aporte es una extraordinaria herramienta de Administración escolar para incrementar la eficiencia terminal y abatir la deserción escolar.

PALABRAS CLAVES. Resiliencia, deserción escolar, eficiencia terminal

INTRODUCCIÓN

El concepto de Resiliencia aplicado al comportamiento de los alumnos, es una realidad desde siempre se han observado situaciones en donde los alumnos se sobreponen a problemas graves incluso como menciona Manciaux (2001) se conocen la trayectoria de personajes que antes del éxito pasaron en su vida por muchas vicisitudes y son ampliamente conocidas sus historias de vida. En nuestro trabajo docente en el estrecho contacto que tenemos con nuestros alumnos, igualmente hemos sido testigos en muchos casos de historias parecidas. En forma particular en el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali actualmente se desarrolla acciones para combatir los problemas de la deserción escolar así como aumentar el indicador de eficiencia terminal, que implica la titulación de los egresados que significa la relación entre la cohorte generacional y el número que obtienen el título como culminación de una carrera profesional. El interés parte de que deben existir razones que inciden en el logro de los estudiantes en completar una carrera profesional a pesar de tener problemas que pueden impedirlo y que encuentran en la escuela algunos factores que los ayudan a lograr el éxito. Si la escuela conoce estos factores como una política de administración podría reforzar estos factores de la resiliencia y ayudar a evitar el abandono de la escuela y lo que es más importante convertirlos en factores motivantes del desempeño de sus alumnos. El estudio es con los estudiantes del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali, ubicado en la Ciudad de Mexicali en la zona

conocida por el “Nuevo Mexicali”, en donde el perfil de la escuela son las carreras de Ingeniería, teniendo en la actualidad una población de 2,950 alumnos, que fundamentalmente atiende alumnos de la ciudad y del Valle de Mexicali que es una zona agrícola preponderantemente.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

En el Estado del Arte en la investigación sobre Resiliencia, hay múltiples referencias sobre el estudio de la Resiliencia en general y en particular en la escuela, a saber: Garmezy (1993); Garbarino (1995); Osborn (1990) por mencionar algunas aportaciones que señalan a la pobreza como el principal riesgo de los niños y jóvenes comparados con los grupos sociales más aventajados económicamente, sin embargo a fines de la década de los setenta Werner (1989) *se constató con gran asombro e interés, que algunos de los niños criados en familias en las cuales uno o ambos padres eran alcohólicos, y que lo habían sido durante el proceso de desarrollo de sus hijos no presentaban carencias de vida en el plano biológico ni psicosocial, si no que encontraban una adecuada calidad de vida. El enfoque de la resiliencia parte de la premisa que nacer en la pobreza, así como vivir en un ambiente psicológicamente insano, son condiciones de alto riesgo para la salud física y mental de las personas.*

Hipótesis Del Problema

Hipótesis 1: Es factible identificar y evaluar los factores de resiliencia en los alumnos, del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali.

Hipótesis Nula: No es posible identificar ni los factores de resiliencia en los alumnos del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali

Planteamiento Del Problema

Los factores de resiliencia que son motivantes para la conclusión y el éxito de los alumnos en el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali, no han sido identificados ni analizados ni sometidos a evaluación y tienen un peso específico importante en la toma de decisiones de las autoridades para incrementar los índices de productividad académica en cuanto a la eficiencia terminal, y la conformidad con el aprendizaje.

Lo interesante era conocer si por parte de la Administración ¿era posible “construir” la resiliencia? o si dependía totalmente de las características internas del individuo como menciona (Manciaux, 2001 p. 239) *Aunque la genética y la biología determinen los límites de lo posible eso no impide un alto grado de libertad y un margen de maniobra para que intervengan los recursos personales y profesionales. En todo momento, la resiliencia es fruto de la interacción entre el propio individuo y su entorno.*

Objetivos De La Investigación

- Determinar si existen factores de resiliencia en los alumnos del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali, identificando cuales son estos.
- Evaluar si los factores de resiliencia motivan a los alumnos para concluir su carrera en el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali.
- Analizar si entre las causas de deserción escolar hay factores que las Administración del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali puede convertir en factores de resiliencia.

- Proporcionar información a la Administración del instituto tecnológico de Mexicali afín de atender en la medida de lo posible los factores de resiliencia con el objeto de motivar a los alumnos a tener éxito en la culminación de los estudios a si como mejorar el índice de eficiencia terminal.
- Determinar posibles actividades novedosas que se conviertan dentro del Instituto tecnológico de Mexicali en factores de resiliencia.

PREGUNTAS

Ante esta situación nos planteamos las preguntas siguientes:

¿Cuáles son los factores de resiliencia en los alumnos el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali?
Y las siguientes preguntas auxiliares:

¿Es posible construir factores de resiliencia en el Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali?

¿Por qué algunos alumnos con capacidades diferentes obtienen calificaciones aprobatorias?

¿Cuáles son las principales causas de deserción escolar en el instituto tecnológico de Mexicali?

¿El indicador de Eficiencia Terminal es el adecuado en el instituto tecnológico de Mexicali?

¿El instituto tecnológico de Mexicali ofrece facilidades de tipo administrativo para que continúen sus estudios alumnos que exponen problemas personales?

¿Las autoridades del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali tienen identificado los principales factores de resiliencia que inciden en los alumnos?

Marco Teórico

El presente capítulo es fundamental para la investigación ya que es la parte total para que tenga sentido este proyecto, es el “pilar” sobre el que descansa el problema y se construye la investigación. El análisis de la resiliencia, en este caso de una escuela de Educación Superior, tiene que sustentarse desde las posturas filosóficas de los diferentes autores. El concepto de resiliencia Es conveniente mencionar que el concepto ha sido objeto de estudio y análisis porque responde a una necesidad del entorno social, político y económico de la actualidad. La situación social, política y económica del país es marcada actualmente por un ambiente de marcada incertidumbre en todos los sentidos, esto hace de por sí difícil la consecución de objetivos en materia de educación.

Los antecedentes del estudio de este tema son relativamente recientes, existen estudios realizados en las últimas cuatro décadas, Werner y Smith, (1982; 1992) realizaron una investigación a lo largo de 30 años con una cohorte de 698 niños nacidos en Hawái en condiciones desfavorables, después de este periodo el 80% de estos niños había evolucionado positivamente, convirtiéndose en adultos competentes y bien integrados. Hay que tener bien claro que lo que es reciente es el estudio no el concepto mismo, que algunos individuos resisten mejor que otros los avatares de la vida, la adversidad y la enfermedad es un hecho admitido desde hace siglos, pero que en gran parte no se ha explicado. Lo que ha permitido avances

decisivos es sin duda identificar las competencias e insistir en ellas. La competencia es una aptitud reconocida. (Manciaux, 2001p.17) Este tipo de trabajos de alguna forma llamó la atención sobre la creencia de que un niño con problemas no necesariamente estaba condenado al fracaso, demostrado científicamente. La construcción de la resiliencia. En educación reviste una importancia total este concepto, resiliencia proviene del latín, resilio que significa volver atrás, dar un salto, pertenece al vocabulario de la Física y hace referencia a la capacidad de un material para recobrar su forma original después de haber estado sometido a una condición de exigencia máxima.

Es claro que como sucede en muchos campos de conocimiento se aplico metafóricamente al campo del comportamiento humano, para identificar determinadas características, como la capacidad de sobreponerse a condiciones adversas, como por ejemplo aquellas sociedades que emergían de las cenizas después de conflagraciones mundiales, quien puede negar el estado actual de una educación de primer mundo que surge de una Europa devastada por la segunda guerra mundial, por hablar de resiliencia sociales, pero también puede identificarse a nivel individual con aquellos estudiantes que pese a situaciones adversas lograr obtener un título universitario- (Pagliarulo, s/f) .

Me parece muy interesante el estudio ya que para la Administración del Instituto es prioritario emprender acciones para reducir la diferencia entre egresados y titulados ya que la diferencia aunque en el últimos semestre ha disminuido, todavía es notables como podemos observar en la grafica en donde la diferencia entre egresados y titulados es notable, de hecho el numero los estos últimos represen tan en los últimos 4 semestres en promedio un 40%, como puede observarse en el Tabla que se muestra en el Anexo No. 1.

El atender y fortalecer los factores de Resiliencia se incrementaría este porcentaje y mejoraría el indicador de eficiencia terminal que es muy importante para los planes de desarrollo del Instituto Es probable que se pueda motivar a los alumnos a titularse facilitando los factores de resiliencia para hacerlo. La excelencia educativa es una creación normativa social, que al igual que la resiliencia se da en parte en la interacción entre los maestros y alumnos que va marcando ciertas medidas de la calidad de la enseñanza, lo cual no tienen que ver con como menciona (Perrenoud, 1996, p. 15) *Con frecuencia, los juicios de los alumnos están influidos por los del maestro, en función de los cuales captan e interiorizan las normas de excelencia.* Esto quiere decir que los alumnos van creando su jerarquía sobre aquellos aspectos que contribuyen a su superación, por lo que los propios maestros pueden coadyuvar a lograr esto.

La resiliencia y la edad avanzada Existen ciertos casos de estudiantes de edad avanzada, que a pesar de los problemas propios de la edad, observamos que continúan sus estudios con entusiasmo y en ciertos casos hasta con júbilo, Manciaux (2001) p. 106-107 menciona que *los traumas graves no perdonan a la tercera edad, sea una enfermedad, deficiencia ligadas al envejecimiento o bien problemas sociales como una jubilación mal llevada ,las sensaciones de deterioro físico o mental y una perdida de utilidad social pueden perturbar gravemente a muchas personas que se hacen mayores ... Asimismo, las actividades culturales y artísticas tienen gran importancia para muchas personas que se hacen mayores...A un nivel más modesto, en ese periodo de la vida mucha gente descubre que le gusta la pintura, la música, los viajes culturales, visitar museos...y, si les ayuda su posición económica, cumplen en su vejez deseos que no pudieron satisfacer cuando eran más jóvenes por falta de tiempo y de medios..*

Otro concepto relacionado con el tema es el aspecto religioso en las personas mayores que puede jugar un papel muy importante y es un factor resiliente en las actividades educativas, dice Manciaux (2001) p.109 *En un artículo muy interesante Un modelo de resiliencia: los (centenarios), Michel indica otro factor de protección: la fe religiosa: (la fe en Dios), sin actitudes neuróticas e infantilizantes, puede suponer en los*

sujetos ancianos una solución para continuar ese trabajo de resistencia que es la resiliencia , y permitirles mantener relaciones humanas.

El marco teórico, parte de la comprensión del propio concepto de resiliencia que como menciona (Henderson, et, al, 2005), “Si por algo ha resultado fecundo el concepto de resiliencia –entendido como la capacidad para recuperarse y sobreponerse con éxito a la adversidad– es porque ha logrado desplazar el modelo médico basado en la patología para aproximarse a un modelo basado en la construcción de fortalezas internas.” Es en este planteamiento en donde se reviste la importancia para las escuelas y se reviste de valor el papel de los docentes como detonante de estos factores. Es pues no solamente conveniente desarrollar en las escuelas los factores de resiliencia, si no una obligación legal procurar que la educación sea de los mal altos niveles posibles. Este libro provee estrategias para fomentar el desarrollo de resiliencia en los alumnos. Frente a problemas sociales crecientes resulta imprescindible que la escuela, lejos de generar una mentalidad de oposición o negación de los problemas, despliegue todo su potencial y los re-cursos a su alcance para lograr una comunidad educativa inclusiva. Los autores describen cómo estimular aquellos factores protectores –tanto internos como ambientales– que mitigan el impacto de las situaciones negativas o estresantes, y proveen un modelo de seis pasos que permitirá al docente fortalecer la resiliencia, no sólo entre los estudiantes sino también entre los propios pares y en su comunidad. En el marco teórico podemos concluir como opina (Henderson y Milstein, 2003), quien menciona los factores en que se tienen que trabajar en una institución para construir los factores:

La construcción de la resiliencia en la escuela implica trabajar para introducir los siguientes seis factores constructores de resiliencia

- 1. Brindar afecto y apoyo proporcionando respaldo y aliento incondicionales, como base y sostén del éxito académico. Siempre debe haber un “adulto significativo” en la escuela dispuesto a “dar la mano” que necesitan los alumnos para su desarrollo educativo y su contención afectiva.*
- 2. Establecer y transmitir expectativas elevadas y realistas para que actúen como motivadores eficaces, adoptando la filosofía de que “todos los alumnos pueden tener éxito”.*
- 3. Brindar oportunidades de participación significativa en la resolución de problemas, fijación de metas, planificación, toma de decisiones (esto vale para los docentes, los alumnos y, eventualmente, para los padres). Que el aprendizaje se vuelva más “práctico”, el currículo sea más “pertinente” y “atento al mundo real” y las decisiones se tomen entre todos los integrantes de la comunidad educativa. Deben poder aparecer las “fortalezas” o destrezas de cada uno.*
- 4. Enriquecer los vínculos pro-sociales con un sentido de comunidad educativa. Buscar una conexión familia-escuela positiva.*
- 5. Es necesario brindar capacitación al personal sobre estrategias y políticas de aula que trasciendan la idea de la disciplina como un fin en sí mismo. Hay que dar participación al personal, los alumnos y, en lo posible, a los padres, en la fijación de dichas políticas. Así se lograrán fijar normas y límites claros y consensuados.*
- 6. Enseñar “habilidades para la vida”: cooperación, resolución de conflictos, destrezas comunicativas, habilidad para resolver problemas y tomar decisiones, etcétera. Esto sólo ocurre cuando el proceso de aprendizaje está fundado en la actividad conjunta y cooperativa de los estudiantes y los docentes.*

Marco Jurídico--Constitución Política De Los Estados Unidos Mexicanos

Existe en forma muy clara la obligación del Estado de proporcionar y al mismo tiempo desarrollar el potencial de las facultades de los alumnos, el Artículo 3º Parrado Segundo, expresa:

“La educación que imparta el Estado tenderá a desarrollar armónicamente, todas las facultades del ser humano y fomentará en él, a la vez, el amor a la Patria, el respeto a los derechos humanos y la conciencia de la solidaridad internacional, en la independencia y en la justicia”

METODOLOGÍA

Por la naturaleza del proyecto, el método seleccionado es el cuantitativo, aunque al momento de valorar los resultados se pueden utilizar métodos cualitativos porque se refieren a la población escolar del Instituto Tecnológico de Mexicali porque me permite analizar los datos numéricos que se desprende del análisis de las variables. El problema de investigación es muy claro ya que se trata de determinar la presencia de factores que inciden en los alumnos, es decir hay una facilidad en su determinación, existe precisión iniciando porque el universo de población con la que se trabajara es un patrón definido y delimitado. En este aspecto coincido con Hurtado y Toro (1998). *"Dicen que la investigación Cuantitativa tiene una concepción lineal, es decir que haya claridad entre los elementos que conforman el problema, que tenga definición, limitarlos y saber con exactitud donde se inicia el problema, también le es importante saber qué tipo de incidencia existe entre sus elementos"*.

Algo que resaltar es que existe entre los factores resilientes y los alumnos, es decir entre las variables y el objeto de estudio. Esto es un factor que permite que el método de investigación sea cuantitativo.

Las variables en este caso son:

- a) Las capacidades diferentes en los alumnos
- b) Causas de la deserción escolar
- c) La eficiencia Terminal
- d) Los Trámites Administrativos

Selección De La Muestra

Se realizó aplicando la siguiente:

F Ó R M U L A

$$n = \frac{N * Z_{\alpha}^2 * p * q}{d^2 * (N - 1) + Z_{\alpha}^2 * p * q}$$

Donde:

N = Total de la población

$Z_{\alpha}^2 = 1.962$ (si la seguridad es del 95%)

p = proporción esperada (en este caso 5% = 0.05)

q = 1 – p (en este caso 1-0.05 = 0.95)

d = precisión (en este caso deseamos un 3%).

Estimación De La Proporción

Total de la población N	2,923
Nivel de Confianza o Seguridad (1 - α)	95%
Precisión (d)	3%
Proporción (valor aproximado del parámetro que queremos medir)	5%
TAMAÑO MUESTRAL (N)	190

Valores según la seguridad y poder

	Z \square	
$\square\square\square$	Test unilateral	Test bilateral
0.80	0.842	1.282
0.85	1.036	1.440
0.90	1.282	1.645
0.95	1.645	1.960
0.98	1.960	2.240
0.99	2.326	2.576
Potencia		
\square	(1 - \square)	Z \square
0.01	0.99	2.326
0.05	0.95	1.645
0.10	0.90	1.282
0.15	0.85	1.036
0.20	0.80	0.842
0.25	0.75	0.674
0.30	0.70	0.524
0.35	0.65	0.385
0.40	0.60	0.253
0.45	0.55	0.126
0.50	0.50	0.000

Así tenemos que la muestra que trabajaremos será de 190 estudiantes que se estratificarán de acuerdo a las proporciones que nos muestra el índice de conformidad con el aprendizaje, de acuerdo a los indicadores que se muestran en el Anexo 2.

RESULTADOS

Este es una presentación parcial de proyecto, únicamente se ha aplicado una prueba piloto para corregir la encuesta a aplicar y tener una mayor precisión, si embargo ya se han tomado algunas medidas favorables a los alumnos por parte de la autoridad. La prueba piloto marco algunos factores de mayor incidencia como sigue:

- Problemas Económicos.- Para lo cual se amplían los tramites de Beca y facilidades.
- Horarios no adecuados
- Factor positivo algunas actividades deportivas
- Percepción de que los egresados de la institución son empleados rápidamente (factor positivo)
- Alta tasa de reprobación en el semestre 1 y 2 en Ciencias Básicas

Figura 1: Cuadro Comparativo de los dos últimos semestres entre egresados y titulados

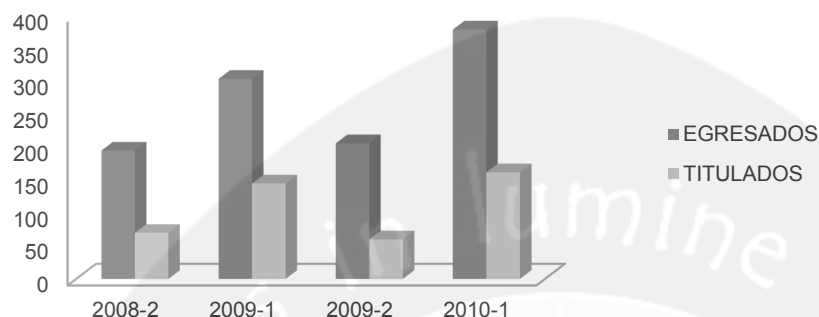


Tabla 1: Indicadores De Conformidad Con El Aprendizaje Senestre Enero Junio De 2011:

conformidad general		
creditos_asignados	creditos_aprobados	conformidad
68637	84490	81%

Tabla 2: Indicadores de conformidad por carrera

conformidad por carrera						
carrera	plan	aprobado	reprobado	total	conformidad	
contador publico	copu-2010-205	1033	355	1388	74%	
ingenieria electrica	iele-2005-290	3806	1010	4816	79%	
ingenieria electrica	iele-2010-209	800	391	1191	67%	
ingenieria electronica	ielc-2004-292	2686	610	3296	81%	
ingenieria electronica	ielc-2010-211	542	223	765	71%	
ingenieria en energias renovables	ienr-2010-217	401	129	530	76%	
ingenieria en gestion empresarial	igem-2009-201	1101	221	1322	83%	
ingenieria en informatica	iinf-2010-220	392	95	487	80%	
ingenieria en logistica	ilog-2009-202	496	129	625	79%	
ing. en sistemas computacionales	isic-2004-296	5840	961	6801	86%	
ing. en sistemas computacionales	isic-2010-224	1873	1180	3053	61%	
ingenieria industrial	iind-1993-297	8	8	16	50%	
ingenieria industrial	iind-2004-297	13384	2118	15502	86%	
ingenieria industrial	iind-2010-227	3071	872	3943	78%	
ingenieria mecanica	imec-1993-298	40	0	40	100%	
ingenieria mecanica	imec-2005-298	5320	1152	6472	82%	
ingenieria mecanica	imec-2010-228	1414	661	2075	68%	
ingenieria mecatronica	imct-2002-001	8	0	8	100%	
ingenieria mecatronica	imct-2005-284	9676	2062	11738	82%	
ingenieria mecatronica	imct-2010-229	3052	1109	4161	73%	
ingenieria quimica	iqui-1993-299	40	0	40	100%	
ingenieria quimica	iqui-2005-299	4464	629	5093	88%	
ingenieria quimica	iqui-2010-232	1278	510	1788	71%	
licenciatura en contaduria	lcon-1993-302	10	20	30	33%	
licenciatura en contaduria	lcon-2004-302	4202	572	4774	88%	
licenciatura en informatica	linf-2004-303	3700	836	4536	82%	

Tabla 3: Indicadores de Conformidad por departamento

Departamento	conformidad por departamento		Total	Conformidad
	Aprobados	Reprobados		
Ciencias Básicas	11286	4555	15841	71%
Económico Administrativas	13114	2165	15279	86%
Eléctrica Electrónica	9536	2768	12304	78%
Industrial	12157	2066	14223	85%
Metal Mecánica	7713	1154	8867	87%

CONCLUSIONES

De acuerdo con los indicadores de eficiencia terminal y del índice de conformidad con el aprendizaje si existe la posibilidad de que impacte positivamente los factores de resiliencia de los alumnos.

Tomando como base la prueba piloto y la observación en general se evidencian factores como: trámites administrativos, facilidades de horario, servicios culturales y deportivos en donde es posible construir positivamente factores motivantes.

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EL IMPUESTO AL VALOR AGREGADO EN MÉXICO, SUS EXENCIONES Y LAS DIFERENTES TASAS: FACTORES QUE AFECTAN LA RECAUDACIÓN

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RESUMEN

Una de las características que más afectan el esquema tributario mexicano es la variedad de distorsiones que contempla, lo cual ha resultado en un sistema complicado y que disminuye la recaudación. Si bien es cierto que los impuestos al consumo son los más fáciles de recaudar, en el caso del IVA, sus diferentes tasas y exenciones son elementos que dificultan el cumplimiento tributario del mismo y originan como consecuencia evasión fiscal.

México es uno de los países de América Latina que presenta los más bajos ingresos tributarios, en el caso del IVA se presenta una eficiencia recaudatoria muy por debajo del promedio, debido a la dispersión de tasas. Si se considera el establecer una sola tasa general para los diferentes productos y servicios se lograría un mayor cumplimiento y recaudación, incluso, contemplando una disminución de la tasa general que actualmente es del 16%. La eliminación de diversas exenciones y de la tasa 0% que hoy generan graves distorsiones al sistema tributario traería beneficios que alcanzarían para compensar en forma satisfactoria a los grupos de la población que podrían resultar perjudicados con la reforma.

En el presente trabajo se realiza un análisis a las exenciones y las diferentes tasas de IVA existentes, a fin de determinar el efecto que éstos tienen en la recaudación.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Exenciones, tasas, IVA, recaudación

INTRODUCCIÓN

México es de los países que tienen una menor recaudación de impuestos comparado con la mayoría de los países latinoamericanos.

Con una carga tributaria de alrededor de 11% del PIB, México tiene una estructura tributaria similar a la de países que recaudan el doble. Las tasas del ISR y del IVA son equivalentes a las de países con grados de desarrollo similares.

En materia de impuestos al consumo las exenciones y tratamientos especiales son comunes en el mundo. La principal diferencia entre México y el resto de los países de la OCDE estriba en las tasas preferenciales. Así, mientras aquí los tratamientos se encuentran concentrados en tasa cero o exención, en los países de dicha organización se canalizan por medio de tasas positivas. Esto impacta de manera importante la productividad del impuesto, ya que cuando la tasa preferencial es positiva, la recaudación se incrementa, la que al ser dividida sobre una tasa general, tiende a arrojar un indicador de eficiencia mayor.

En México, como en la mayoría de los países de América y Europa, con los que se tiene más relación comercial y diplomática, existe un impuesto al consumo, llamado Impuesto al Valor Agregado, que en el

caso mexicano, está compuesto por tres tasas, que varían dependiendo de la localización geográfica y el tipo de artículo gravado, siendo estas tasas de 0%, 11% y 16%.

Esta dispersión de tasas permite a algunos contribuyentes que comercializan artículos gravados con la tasa 0% o que realizan actividades en franja fronteriza (11%) y que erogan gastos gravados a la tasa de 16% que tengan cantidades importantes de IVA a favor el cual es susceptible de compensarse contra otros impuestos a cargo o incluso, pedirlo en devolución.

El presente estudio tiene como objetivo realizar un análisis de los factores que afectan la recaudación del Impuesto al Valor Agregado. Como tales se señalan las exenciones que se contemplan en la Ley así como las diferentes tasas aplicables según la actividad que se realice.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El Impuesto al Valor Agregado (IVA), es un impuesto indirecto que grava el consumo de los contribuyentes; no repercute en forma directa sobre los ingresos, sino que en primera instancia incide en los costos y gastos de las empresas para ser trasladados al consumidor final a través de los precios de los bienes o de los servicios.

Olivera (2005) señala las siguientes características del Impuesto al Valor Agregado:

- Es un impuesto indirecto, generalizado en toda la economía.
- Es un impuesto real, ya que no tiene en cuenta las condiciones del sujeto pasivo.
- Es un impuesto neutral, puesto que grava las ventas en todas las etapas con cuotas uniformes, y existiendo algunas exenciones. Además, tiene la posibilidad de computar como crédito fiscal el impuesto abonado en las compras.
- El productor y/o comerciante no incluye en sus costos el IVA y, como en definitiva quien proporciona los fondos del impuesto es el consumidor final, se dice que el IVA es neutral para los sujetos pasivos del gravamen.
- Otra de las características es su fácil recaudación, ya que el fisco puede efectuar controles cruzados entre los débitos y créditos fiscales.
- Como desventaja, se plantea su regresividad: la incidencia del gravamen termina siendo mayor en los sectores de bajos ingresos que en los de altos ingresos. Las clases de menores ingresos, en realidad, contribuyen en mayor proporción en términos relativos.
- Otra desventaja del IVA es que su recaudación se complica en la etapa minorista, porque son mayores los niveles de evasión (los consumidores no reclaman las facturas).

Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado en México

Señala Ayala (2001) que el IVA tuvo su antecedente más próximo en el Impuesto Federal Sobre Ingresos Mercantiles (ISIM), implantado en el año de 1948, cuyo propósito fue sustituir el impuesto general del timbre que resultaba obsoleto para gravar el comercio y la industria. El ISIM contemplaba en su inicio una sola tasa del 3% sobre el importe a la enajenación; posteriormente, en 1971, se le incorpora la tasa especial del 10% aplicable a productos no necesarios; en 1973 se adopta la tasa del 4% que sustituye a la

del 3%; en 1974 se incorporan las tasas del 5, 15 y 30% para automóviles y, para 1978 se incluye la tasa del 7%.

Hernández (2000) menciona que las modificaciones realizadas a la Ley del IVA han servido para mantener de manera estable la recaudación de ingresos obtenidos mediante este impuesto. Sin embargo, un elemento importante a destacar es que la productividad del impuesto, en los términos expuestos por Trigueros y Fernández (2001) no ha mostrado una mejoría relevante.

Una de las muchas propuestas para modificar y hacer más eficiente el IVA consiste en la unificación de las tasas y el abandono del régimen de exención. Hernández y Zamudio (2004) mencionan que los regímenes de exenciones y tratamientos especiales son comunes en el mundo, pero que a diferencia de México el resto de los países de la OCDE manejan tratos preferenciales con tasas positivas, por lo que la productividad de su impuesto no se ve tan mermada como la nuestra; el autor menciona el caso de Corea que presenta tratamientos similares al caso de México, pero su productividad es de 35%.

Dentro de las políticas fiscales establecidas en México año con año y con objeto del paquete económico que se presenta cada año, la Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado ha sufrido modificaciones, se presenta a continuación la estructura general de la Ley del IVA que se encuentra vigente a la fecha (2011) la cual se presenta en la Tabla 1.

Tabla 1: Estructura de la Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado

Capítulos	Contenido	Artículos
I	Disposiciones generales	1º Al 7º.
II	De la enajenación	8º al 13
III	De la prestación de servicios	14 al 18-A
IV	Del uso o goce temporal de bienes	19 al 23
V	De la importación de bienes y servicios	24 al 28
VI	De la exportación de bienes o servicios	29 al 31
VII	De las obligaciones de los contribuyentes	32 al 37
VIII	De las facultades de las autoridades	38 al 40
IX	De las participaciones de las Entidades Federativas	41 al 43

Esta tabla presenta la estructura de la Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado vigente en 2011.

Esta Ley está integrada por nueve capítulos, en donde se mencionan todos aquellos elementos tributarios que dan origen al nacimiento y pago del gravamen: sujetos, objeto, base, tasas períodos de imposición; sin embargo a pesar de ser una Ley por el contenido de artículos, pequeña, para su estudio, requiere además de conocer el contenido de sus artículos, otras fuentes del conocimiento de tipo no fiscal y del ámbito jurídico, entre otras.

La dispersión de tasas y las exenciones

Las principales características de la tasa 0% son las siguientes:

- No se traslada el IVA a los clientes.
- No hay que pagar IVA sobre los actos o actividades realizados al no existir un impuesto.
- El IVA que les es trasladado a quienes realicen los actos o actividades es acreditable, lo cual permite acreditarlo, solicitarlo por devolución o bien compensarlo.

En lo que se refiere a las exenciones y a las actividades que la propia Ley señala como tal, e ingreso que deja de percibir la autoridad fiscal no se puede determinar ya que no se tiene un control sobre éstas.

Según la Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe (CEPAL) (2006) la tendencia en las últimas dos décadas en los países latinoamericanos ha sido de un crecimiento en la importancia del IVA en sus sistemas recaudatorios y un decrecimiento en los impuestos directos, por lo que se ha tratado de otorgar mayor homogeneidad a las tasas de IVA y reducir la cantidad de exenciones para conseguir mayor neutralidad. Señala que la tendencia en Latinoamérica es hacia la reducción de la dispersión de las tasas de IVA.

Serrano Mancilla (2003) señala que en un sistema fiscal con dispersión de tasas de IVA se tiene un problema de redistribución con este impuesto, debido precisamente a que la variedad de tasas con el fin de gravar con una tasa menor a los productos considerados de primera necesidad no siempre beneficia a las personas de menores recursos.

Elementos del Impuesto al Valor Agregado

De acuerdo a la Ley del IVA vigente se presenta a continuación un análisis de los elementos de los impuestos:

Sujeto: Conforme al Artículo 1º se encuentran obligadas al pago del impuesto al valor agregado las personas físicas y las morales que, en territorio nacional, realicen los actos o actividades establecidas por la Ley.

Objeto: Son objeto de este impuesto las siguientes actividades:

- Enajenación de bienes
- Prestación de servicios independientes
- Uso o goce temporal de bienes.
- Importación de bienes y servicios.
- Exportación de bienes y servicios.

Base: Se considera como tal a los valores que señalan la Ley o a la contraprestación pactada más cualquier cantidad que se adicione, también establecida en la misma.

Tasa: Para tales efectos la Ley en cuestión establece 3 diferentes tasas; 16% (tasa general), 11% tasa aplicable a los residentes en región fronteriza que realicen las actividades gravadas establecidas y la tasa del 0% a los actos o actividades de enajenación de animales, de medicinas de patente y productos destinados a la alimentación, entre otros.

Específicamente se mencionan a continuación los requisitos y las actividades que se encuentran gravadas a la tasa 0% las cuales se señalan en el artículo 2º de la citada Ley:

1. Los actos o actividades objeto del impuesto se realicen por residentes en la región fronteriza
2. Cuando la entrega material de los bienes o la prestación de servicio se lleva a cabo en la citada región fronteriza.
3. Cuando se trate de enajenación de bienes inmuebles en la mencionada región fronteriza.

Para efecto de lo anterior, se considera región fronteriza:

- Franja fronteriza de 20 kilómetros paralela a las líneas divisorias internacionales del norte y sur del país.
- Todo el territorio de los estados de Baja California, Baja California Sur y Quintana Roo, los municipios de Caborca y de Cananea, Sonora.
- La región parcial de Sonora comprendida por los siguientes límites: Al norte, la línea divisoria internacional desde el cauce del Río Colorado hasta el punto situado en esa línea a 10 kilómetros al oeste del Municipio Plutarco Elías Calles. Del punto anterior, una línea recta hasta llegar a la costa, a un punto situado a 10 kilómetros al este de Puerto Peñasco. Del punto anterior, siguiendo el cauce de ese río, hacia el norte hasta encontrar la línea divisoria internacional.

Actividades: La Ley en cuestión grava las siguientes actividades:

Enajenación de:

- Medicinas de patente.
- Productos destinados a la alimentación.
- Hielo.
- Maquinaria y equipo de molienda.
- Oro, joyas y arte, etc.

Prestación de servicios independientes:

- Destinados para actividades agropecuarias, directamente para agricultores y ganaderos.
- Los de pasteurización de leche.
- Los de sacrificio de ganado y aves de corral.
- Los de suministro de agua para uso doméstico, entre otros.

Uso o goce temporal de:

- Maquinaria a que se refiere el inciso e) de la fracción I.
- Invernaderos hidropónicos y equipos.

Exenciones en la Ley del Impuesto al Valor Agregado

Conforme lo señala la Ley del IVA, por cada una de las actividades mencionadas en ley, existen actos o actividades por las cuales no se está obligado al pago de este impuesto, mencionadas a continuación:

Por enajenación (Artículo 9º.)

No se pagará el impuesto en la enajenación de los siguientes bienes:

1. El suelo.
2. Construcciones adheridas al suelo, destinadas o utilizadas para casa habitación. Cuando sólo parte de las construcciones se utilicen o destinen a casa habitación, no se pagará el impuesto por dicha parte. Los hoteles no quedan comprendidos en esta fracción.
3. Libros, periódicos y revistas, así como el derecho para usar o explotar una obra, que realice su autor.
4. Bienes muebles usados, a excepción de los enajenados por empresas.

5. Billetes y demás comprobantes que permitan participar en loterías, rifas, sorteos o juegos con apuestas y concursos de toda clase, así como los premios respectivos, a que se refiere la Ley del Impuesto sobre la Renta.
6. Moneda nacional y moneda extranjera, así como las piezas de oro o de plata que hubieran tenido tal carácter y las piezas denominadas onza troy.
7. Partes sociales, documentos pendientes de cobro y títulos de crédito, con excepción de certificados de depósito de bienes cuando por la enajenación de dichos bienes se esté obligado a pagar este impuesto y de certificados de participación inmobiliaria no amortizables u otros títulos que otorguen a su titular derechos sobre inmuebles distintos a casa habitación o suelo. En la enajenación de documentos pendientes de cobro, no queda comprendida la enajenación del bien que ampare el documento.
8. Lingotes de oro con un contenido mínimo de 99% de dicho material, siempre que su enajenación se efectúe en ventas al menudeo con el público en general.
9. La de bienes efectuada entre residentes en el extranjero o por un residente en el extranjero a una persona moral que cuente con un programa autorizado conforme al Decreto que Establece Programas de Importación Temporal para Producir Artículos de Exportación o al Decreto para el Fomento y Operación de la Industria Maquiladora de Exportación o un régimen similar en los términos de la Ley Aduanera, o sean empresas de la industria automotriz terminal o manufacturera de vehículos de autotransporte o de autopartes .

Por Prestación de servicios (Artículo 15)

1. Las comisiones y otras contraprestaciones que cubra el acreditado a su acreedor con motivo del otorgamiento de créditos hipotecarios para la adquisición, ampliación, construcción o reparación de bienes inmuebles destinados a casa habitación, salvo aquéllas que se originen con posterioridad a la autorización del citado crédito o que se deban pagar a terceros por el acreditado.
2. Las comisiones que cobren las administradoras de fondos para el retiro o, en su caso, las instituciones de crédito, a los trabajadores por la administración de sus recursos provenientes de los sistemas de ahorro para el retiro y por los servicios relacionados con dicha administración, así como las demás disposiciones derivadas de éstas.
3. Los prestados en forma gratuita, excepto cuando los beneficiarios sean los miembros, socios o asociados de la persona moral que preste el servicio.
4. Los de enseñanza que preste la Federación, el Distrito Federal, los Estados, los Municipios y sus organismos descentralizados, y los establecimientos de particulares que tengan autorización o reconocimiento de validez oficial de estudios, en los términos de la Ley General de Educación, así como los servicios educativos de nivel preescolar.
5. El transporte público terrestre de personas, excepto por ferrocarril.
6. El transporte marítimo internacional de bienes prestado por personas residentes en el extranjero sin establecimiento permanente en el país.
7. (Se deroga).
8. (Se deroga).
9. El aseguramiento contra riesgos agropecuarios, los seguros de crédito a la vivienda que cubran el riesgo de incumplimiento de los deudores de créditos hipotecarios o con garantía fiduciaria para la

adquisición, ampliación, construcción o reparación de bienes inmuebles, destinados a casa habitación, los seguros de garantía financiera.

10. Por los que deriven intereses que:

- a) Provenzan de operaciones en las que el enajenante, el prestador del servicio o quien conceda el uso o goce temporal de bienes, proporcione financiamiento relacionado con actos o actividades por los que no se esté obligado al pago de este impuesto o a los que se les aplique la tasa del 0%.
 - b) Reciban o paguen las instituciones de crédito, las uniones de crédito, las sociedades financieras de objeto limitado, las sociedades de ahorro y préstamo y las empresas de factoraje financiero, en operaciones de financiamiento, para las que requieran de autorización y por concepto de descuento en documentos pendientes de cobro; los que reciban y paguen las sociedades financieras de objeto múltiple que para los efectos del impuesto sobre la renta formen parte del sistema financiero, por el otorgamiento de crédito, de factoraje financiero o descuento en documentos pendientes de cobro; los que reciban los almacenes generales de depósito por créditos otorgados que hayan sido garantizados con bonos de prenda; así como las comisiones de los agentes y corresponsales de las instituciones de crédito por dichas operaciones.
 - c) Reciban las instituciones de fianzas, las de seguros y las sociedades mutualistas de seguros, en operaciones de financiamiento, excepto tratándose de créditos otorgados a personas físicas que no gozarían de la exención prevista en el inciso anterior.
 - d) Provenzan de créditos hipotecarios o con garantía fiduciaria para la adquisición, ampliación, construcción o reparación de bienes inmuebles destinados a casa habitación.
 - e) Provenzan de cajas de ahorro de los trabajadores, y de fondos de ahorro establecido por las empresas siempre que reúna los requisitos de deducibilidad en los términos de la Ley del Impuesto Sobre la Renta.
 - f) Deriven de obligaciones emitidas conforme a lo dispuesto en la Ley General de Títulos y Operaciones de Crédito.
 - g) Reciban o paguen las instituciones públicas que emitan bonos y administren planes de ahorro con la garantía incondicional de pago del Gobierno Federal, conforme a la Ley.
 - h) Deriven de valores a cargo del Gobierno Federal e inscritos en el Registro Nacional de Valores e Intermediarios.
 - i) Deriven de títulos de crédito que sean de los que se consideran como colocados entre el gran público inversionista, conforme a las reglas generales que al efecto expida la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público o de operaciones de préstamo de títulos, valores y otros bienes fungibles a que se refiere la fracción III del artículo 14-A del Código Fiscal de la Federación.
11. Por los que se deriven de operaciones financieras derivadas a que se refiere el artículo 16-A del Código Fiscal de la Federación.
12. Los proporcionados a sus miembros como contraprestación normal por sus cuotas y siempre que los servicios que presten sean únicamente los relativos a los fines que les sean propios, tratándose de:
- a) Partidos, asociaciones, coaliciones y frentes políticos legalmente reconocidos.
 - b) Sindicatos obreros y organismos que los agrupen
 - c) Cámaras de comercio e industria, agrupaciones agrícolas, ganaderas, pesqueras o silvícolas, así como organismos que las reúnan.

- d) Asociaciones patronales y colegios de profesionales.
- e) Asociaciones o sociedades civiles organizadas con fines científicos, políticos, religiosos y culturales, a excepción de aquéllas que proporcionen servicios con instalaciones deportivas cuando el valor de éstas representen más del 25% del total de las instalaciones.
- 13. Los de espectáculos públicos por el boleto de entrada, salvo los de teatro y circo, cuando el convenio con el Estado o Acuerdo con el Departamento del Distrito Federal, donde se presente el espectáculo no se ajuste a lo previsto en la fracción VI del artículo 41 de esta Ley.
- 14. Los servicios profesionales de medicina, cuando su prestación requiera título de médico conforme a las leyes, siempre que sean prestados por personas físicas, ya sea individualmente o por conducto de sociedades civiles.
- 15. Los servicios profesionales de medicina, hospitalarios, de radiología, de laboratorios y estudios clínicos, que presten los organismos descentralizados de la Administración Pública Federal o del Distrito Federal, o de los gobiernos estatales o municipales.
- 16. Por los que obtengan contraprestaciones los autores en los casos siguientes:
 - a) Por autorizar a terceros la publicación de obras escritas de su creación en periódicos y revistas, siempre que los periódicos y revistas se destinen para su enajenación al público por la persona que efectúa los pagos por estos conceptos.
 - b) Por transmitir temporalmente los derechos patrimoniales u otorgar temporalmente licencias de uso a terceros, correspondientes a obras de su autoría a que se refieren las fracciones I a VII, IX, X, XII, XIII y XIV del artículo 13 y el artículo 78 de la Ley Federal del Derecho de Autor, que estén inscritas en el Registro Público del Derecho de Autor de la Secretaría de Educación Pública.
 - c) Lo dispuesto en los incisos anteriores no aplicará:
 - 1. Cuando se trate de ideas o frases publicitarias, logotipos, emblemas, sellos distintivos, diseños o modelos industriales, manuales operativos u obras de arte aplicado.
 - 2. Cuando las contraprestaciones deriven de la explotación de las obras escritas o musicales en actividades empresariales distintas a la enajenación al público de sus obras o en la prestación de servicios.

Uso o goce temporal (Artículo 20)

- 1. (Se deroga).
- 2. Inmuebles destinados o utilizados exclusivamente para casa- habitación. Si un inmueble tuviere varios destinos o usos, no se pagará el impuesto por la parte destinada o utilizada para casa- habitación. Lo dispuesto en esta fracción no es aplicable a los inmuebles o parte de ellos que se proporcionen amueblados o se destinen o utilicen como hoteles o casas de hospedaje.
- 3. Fincas dedicadas o utilizadas sólo a fines agrícolas o ganaderos.
- 4. Bienes tangibles cuyo uso o goce sea otorgado por residentes en el extranjero sin establecimiento permanente en territorio nacional, por los que se hubiera pagado el impuesto en los términos del artículo 24 de esta Ley.
- 5. Libros, periódicos y revistas.

Importaciones (Artículo 25)

1. Las que, en los términos de la legislación aduanera, no lleguen a consumarse, sean temporales, tengan el carácter de retorno de bienes exportados temporalmente o sean objeto de tránsito o transbordo. Tampoco se pagará este impuesto por los bienes que se introduzcan al país mediante el régimen aduanero de recinto fiscalizado estratégico.
2. Las de equipajes y menajes de casa a que se refiere la legislación aduanera.
3. Las de bienes cuya enajenación en el país y las de servicios por cuya prestación en territorio nacional no den lugar al pago del impuesto al valor agregado o cuando sean de los señalados en el artículo 2-A de esta Ley.
4. Las de bienes donados por residentes en el extranjero a la Federación, entidades federativas, municipios o a cualquier otra persona que mediante reglas de carácter general autorice la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público.
5. Las de obras de arte que por su calidad y valor cultural sean reconocidas como tales por las instituciones oficiales competentes, siempre que se destinen a exhibición pública en forma permanente.
6. Las de obras de arte creadas en el extranjero por mexicanos o residentes en territorio nacional, que por su calidad y valor cultural sean reconocidas como tales por las instituciones oficiales competentes, siempre que la importación sea realizada por su autor.
7. Oro, con un contenido mínimo de dicho material del 80%.
8. La de vehículos, que se realice de conformidad con el artículo 62, fracción I de la Ley Aduanera, siempre que se cumpla con los requisitos y condiciones que señale la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público mediante reglas de carácter general.

METODOLOGÍA

En esta investigación descriptiva y evaluativa; se realiza una recopilación de información confiable y válida que ha sido publicada por Dependencias Gubernamentales y por Organismos Internacionales.

Para desarrollar las secuencias operativas de la investigación, se realizaron los siguientes pasos:

- Recopilación del material bibliográfico, histórico, legal y estadístico pertinente a los objetivos y fundamentos teóricos del estudio, a la selección de información y a los antecedentes del marco teórico.
- Definición de los aspectos metodológicos pertinentes al desarrollo del estudio.
- Análisis estadístico y discusión de los resultados.

RESULTADOS

El Impuesto al Valor Agregado es el segundo impuesto más importante en términos de recaudación, después del ISR. De acuerdo con la Ley de Ingresos de la Federación para el Ejercicio fiscal para 2011, el Estado espera recaudar en el ejercicio de 2011, la cantidad de 555 mil 677 millones de pesos, lo que representa el 3.9 por ciento respecto al PIB, y el 38% de sus ingresos tributarios. Mientras que el Impuesto Sobre la Renta representa el impuesto más importante con una recaudación estimada para el mismo ejercicio del 688 mil 965 millones de pesos, que representa el 47% del total de los ingresos tributarios.

A continuación se presenta la Tabla 2 la cual contiene los principales indicadores de recaudación de IVA e ISR de Enero a Septiembre de 2011, la cual fue publicada por la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público en el Informe sobre la Situación Económica, las Finanzas Públicas y la Deuda Pública:

Tabla 2: Ingresos del Sector Público (Tributarios) Enero a Septiembre 2011

Concepto	Monto
Tributarios	959,924.3
ISR + IETU + IMPAC + IDE	572,286.3
Impuesto Sobre la Renta	539,001.3
Impuesto Empresarial a Tasa Única	38,281.2
Impuesto al Activo	-661.4
Impuesto a los depósitos en efectivo	-4,334.8
Impuesto al Valor Agregado	379,155.8
Impuesto Especial Sobre Producción y Servicios	-49,232.5
Impuesto a la Importación	19,373.3
Otros impuestos	38,341.4

Ingresos Tributarios del Sector Público. Cifras señaladas en millones de pesos.

Se desprende de la Tabla 2 que el porcentaje del Impuesto al Valor Agregado recaudado en el periodo de Enero a Septiembre de 2011 representa un 39.45% con relación del total de los ingresos tributarios.

De igual manera, se en Tabla 3 se señala el monto del ISR e IVA que le fue devuelto a los contribuyentes en el periodo de Enero a Septiembre de 2011, contenidos en el Informe Tributario y de Gestión de la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público, correspondiente al tercer trimestre de 2011.

Tabla 3: Monto del ISR e IVA Devuelto de Enero a Septiembre de 2011

Concepto	Monto
Impuesto Sobre la Renta	22,758.0
Impuesto al Valor Agregado	184,296.0
Total	207,054.0

Devoluciones de ISR e IVA del periodo de Enero a Septiembre 2011. Cifras señaladas en millones de pesos.

Como puede observarse en la Tabla 3, el monto del IVA devuelto en el periodo que se señala representa el 19.19% del total de los ingresos tributarios, mientras que en relación con el IVA recaudado corresponde a un 48.61%, lo cual indica que el costo de mantener las tasas 0 y 11% es alto. Mientras que el ISR devuelto en relación al ISR recaudado ambos del mismo periodo representa el 4.22%

CONCLUSIONES

Una de las posibles razones de la recaudación del IVA es la variación de la tasa general (16%) a las tasas preferenciales (0% y 11%) y es precisamente al tipo de bienes a las que aplica esta tasa. En especial una buena proporción de los bienes sujetos a la tasa 0% es producida en la informalidad, siendo un sector que en la mayor parte no contribuye al pago de impuestos, independientemente de las tasas. Considerando además que gran parte de este sector enajena productos de contrabando y piratería, y siendo ilegales hace difícil pensar que contribuirían al pago del impuesto.

Para quienes son contribuyentes la poca claridad que existe en la Ley del IVA origina que no sea fácil identificar la tasa a la cual se encuentran gravados los bienes y servicios que proporcionan, permitiendo además la elusión fiscal, otro factor muy importante en la baja recaudación.

Por otro lado, el Impuesto al Valor Agregado que recauda la autoridad fiscal se ve afectado por la devolución que del mismo realiza a los contribuyentes por tratarse de actividades gravadas a tasa 0 ó 11%, sin considerar además las actividades exentas o por las cuales no se tiene la obligación de pagar el impuesto.

El Estado debe considerar la no aplicación de la tasa 0% en gran parte de los productos de la canasta básica y los medicamentos, así como en las actividades primarias (agricultura, ganadería, silvicultura y pesca) ya que es a través de este tipo de contribuyentes a quienes la autoridad fiscal les devuelve grandes cantidades de IVA. Si bien es cierto que la aplicación de la tasa 0% a estos productos es para beneficiar a las clases sociales más bajas en términos económicos, son éstos quienes menores beneficios reciben en la prestación de los servicios públicos.

Considerar una tasa general permitiría una mayor recaudación al tener una ley clara y sin tantas lagunas que permiten a los contribuyentes el no pagar el impuesto correctamente. El Estado debe valorar la aplicación de una tasa general que incrementaría la recaudación y facilitaría la fiscalización al ser más eficiente.

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FUENTES DE FINANCIAMIENTO EN LAS PYMES EXPORTADORAS DEL ESTADO DE COLIMA MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

La presente investigación se basa en las fuentes de financiamiento de las pequeñas y medianas empresas exportadoras del estado de Colima. La exploración de la información fue a través de una investigación de campo y se llegó al siguiente resultado: Las Pymes exportadoras de Colima, ignoran la existencia de diversas fuentes de financiamiento ofrecidas por la banca privada, el gobierno y las bancas de desarrollo del país. Al obtener los resultados, se presenta algunas fuentes de financiamiento específicas que pueden usar las Pymes exportadoras, así como apoyos ofrecidos por el Gobierno Federal.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Con el paso del tiempo, las empresas se han envuelto en el fenómeno de la globalización, dicho fenómeno ha causado que las empresas se encuentren interrelacionadas y que el mundo se haya convertido en una pequeña aldea de negociación. Sin embargo, para poder hacer negocios en el exterior, las pequeñas y medianas empresas denominadas Pymes en la presente investigación, se han visto en la necesidad de acceder a fuentes de financiamiento que les permita incrementar su capacidad de producción y apoyos gubernamentales que les facilite el proceso y la mejora de la exportación de sus productos. En el estado de Colima, el crecimiento de pequeñas y medianas empresas que se dedican a la exportación ha ido incrementándose, no obstante también se enfrentan a la situación generalizada de las Pymes en México, en la cual se desconocen los tipos de financiamiento y apoyos gubernamentales a los cuales pueden acceder. Por lo anterior, surge la necesidad de estructurar una gama de fuentes de financiamiento a la cual puedan tener acceso las pequeñas y medianas empresas en Colima, así como agrupar los apoyos gubernamentales que se están brindando en México para las pequeñas y medianas empresas exportadoras. En la actualidad, el nivel de la actividad comercial de las empresas depende en gran medida de las transacciones y sucesos internacionales debido a la globalización, por lo que las empresas exportadoras al estar en un entorno cambiante se enfrentan a diversos riesgos financieros como lo son los tipos de cambio y las tasas de interés, que afectan directamente las decisiones de inversión y financiamiento de las mismas. Según D'Acosta (2000), en la toma de decisiones de carácter financiero es importante para las empresas mexicanas tomar en cuenta algunas recomendaciones prácticas y que ayudan a maximizar la estructura y costo de capital. Aunque algunas de ellas distan de ser netamente financieras, de una u otra manera deben ser consideradas a la hora de la toma de decisiones.

En México las Pymes pueden recurrir a diversas fuentes de financiamiento cuando requieren recursos económicos para su crecimiento o subsistencia. Normalmente se piensa en la obtención de un crédito bancario o en aportación de su patrimonio. Pero además existen muchas otras opciones para obtener los recursos necesarios que les permitirán operar rentablemente o impulsar sus proyectos de expansión.

Según cifras publicadas por la Secretaría de Economía de México, en el año 2009 existían en México 5'144,056 empresas, de las cuales el 99.8 por ciento eran MiPyME's. Las cuales participan dentro de las actividades económicas de la siguiente forma: 47.1% en servicios, 26% en el comercio, 18% en la

industria manufacturera y el resto de las actividades representan el 8.9%, mismas que concentran el 78.5% del personal ocupado.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Hoy en día, el financiamiento de las empresas a nivel mundial se ve disminuido con la creciente crisis financiera de 2008 y la desaceleración económica mundial provocada por las economías europeas y la estadounidense. Las instituciones bancarias se ven obligadas a ser más selectivos con los créditos que se otorgarán debido a la debacle mundial, por lo que el acceso al financiamiento estará más restringido. Debido a esto, las empresas tendrán que buscar fuentes alternas de financiamiento, así como apoyos que brinde el gobierno federal. Sin embargo, la mayoría de las empresas desconoce la diversa gama de financiamiento a la cual pueden acceder, recurriendo principalmente al crédito de proveedores.

Actualmente se clasifica a las empresas por su tamaño en micro, pequeñas, medianas y grandes empresas, en algunos países esta clasificación depende exclusivamente del número de empleados, en otros se considera también el monto de sus capitales y/o de sus ingresos o utilidades. Por esto, al querer comparar las estadísticas de las empresas de diferentes países, existe una gran confusión en cuanto a su clasificación pero en general se les llama MiPymes al conjunto de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas o bien Pymes a las pequeñas y medianas empresas, englobando en estos términos a todas las empresas que no son grandes negocios corporativos, entendiendo como tales a aquéllos con más de 100 ó 500 empleados. En palabras de la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (OCDE: 2000.) “A nivel internacional, en la mayoría de los países, las MPYMES representan más del 95% del total de empresas, proporcionan entre el 60 y 70% del empleo y contribuyen entre el 50 y 60% del Producto Interno Bruto”. En la Tabla No. 1 se presenta la clasificación de las empresas por el número de trabajadores de acuerdo a la Ley para el desarrollo y la competitividad PYME, publicada en el Diario Oficial de la Federación (DOF) del día 30 de diciembre 2002.

Tabla 1: Clasificación por Número de Trabajadores

sector / tamaño	industria	comercio	servicios
micro empresa	0 – 10	0 - 10	0 – 10
pequeña empresa	11 – 50	11 - 30	11 – 50
mediana empresa	51 – 250	31 - 100	51 – 100

Fuente: Diario Oficial de la Federación 2002.

Con base en el último CENSO económico de 2004, realizado por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística Geografía e Informática (INEGI), en México, la mayoría de las empresas constituidas dentro de los 3 sectores de la economía, se encuentran distribuidas por tamaño y sector como lo refleja la Tabla No. 3:

Rodríguez (2004, 110) observa diferentes maneras de catalogar las pequeñas y medianas empresas, la forma que se destaca la organización, es la siguiente: De acuerdo a la Administración de Pequeños Negocios por su denominación en inglés (Small Business Administration of US), la pequeña empresa emplea hasta 250 personas, mientras que la mediana empresa tiene de 250 a 500 trabajadores. Según la Comisión Económica para América Latina (CEPAL), se considera pequeña empresa aquella que tiene entre 5 y 49 empleados y la mediana empresa aquella que emplea entre 50 y 250 trabajadores. Para efectos de este trabajo se considerará, como Pyme a la pequeña y mediana empresa que cuente de 11 a 100 trabajadores, tal como lo establece la Ley para el desarrollo y la competitividad PYME. La disponibilidad

de financiamiento bancario es condición indispensable para que exista una inversión y esto ocasiona cambios positivos en las variables macroeconómicas del país, es por ello que el acceso al financiamiento juega un papel crucial en el crecimiento y desarrollo económico.

Tabla 2: Composición de Empresas por Tamaño y Sector

Tamaño		Sector			Total
		Industria	Comercio	Servicios	2,844,308
Micro		94.4	94.9	97.4	95.7
Pequeña		3.7	4.0	1.6	3.1
Mediana		1.7	0.9	0.5	0.9
Grandes		0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3
Total		100	100	100	100

Fuente: Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, Censo económico 2004.

Actualmente las Pymes, presenta varias opciones de financiamiento además del crédito bancario, a continuación se presenta un breve análisis de las mismas:

El Crédito Bancario: Las pequeñas y medianas empresas no hacen gran uso del crédito bancario, ya que argumentan que los plazos para cubrir el capital solicitado son cortos y las tasas de interés son muy altas. Además, los trámites que se tienen que realizar para poder tener acceso a los créditos ofrecidos por las instituciones bancarias, son extensos y difíciles de reunir. Con base en información publicada por el Banco de México con fecha de Enero de 2005 a Marzo de 2009, la utilización de crédito bancario por parte de las pequeñas empresas comprende un porcentaje mínimo de utilización, ya que el porcentaje de financiamiento que más se ha utilizado es el 20.5% en el primer trimestre de 2008; sin embargo, para el primer trimestre de 2009 el financiamiento disminuyó a un 15.83%. Mientras que la utilización de crédito bancario por parte de las medianas empresas comprende un porcentaje mayor que el de las pequeñas empresas, sin embargo, no es muy grande la diferencia. Es notable que el uso de crédito bancario por parte de las empresas de tamaño mediano, ha ido creciendo hasta alcanzar su máximo en el primer trimestre de 2009 con un 32.64%.

El crédito de Proveedores: Las empresas grandes y exportadoras, al tener acceso a fuentes de recursos externos, han logrado obtener condiciones de financiamiento más favorables que las alcanzadas por las empresas pequeñas, orientadas al mercado interno, estas últimas se han visto obligadas a financiar su expansión o a sobrevivir con recursos propios y con crédito de proveedores.

Las tarjetas de crédito: Otra de las fuentes alternas de financiamiento que se pueden obtener en las empresas es a través de las tarjetas de crédito bancarias, con las cuales, las empresas buscan obtener dinero en efectivo, al retirar de los cajeros automáticos o utilizar cheques de caja expedidos y cargados a las tarjetas de crédito. Otro uso que tienen las tarjetas para los empresarios, es la compra de insumos así como el pago a ciertos proveedores que actualmente cuenta con terminal de pago.

Gobierno: El apoyo al establecimiento y evolución de las Pymes, a través de financiamiento y asesoría técnica, se han convertido en la meta primordial de la banca de desarrollo y en especial de sus principales instituciones, ProMéxico, Nafin y Bancomext, que absorben aproximadamente el 90% de la cartera de créditos. Existen diversos apoyos que brinda el gobierno federal de México para las Pymes, en algunos casos, los apoyos están dedicados a las empresas exportadoras específicamente. Cabe hacer mención que debido a la importancia que representan las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, el gobierno Federal

decidió crear durante el 2009 una subsecretaría que las atendiera con el nombre de Subsecretaría para la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa (SPyME).

METODOLOGÍA

El objetivo principal de esta investigación es buscar y crear el conocimiento referente a la fuentes de financiamiento a las cuales acceden las pymes exportadoras de Colima y a cuáles podrían acceder. Resulta interesante resolver algunas cuestiones: ¿Conocen las fuentes de financiamiento a las cuales pueden acceder las PYMES?, ¿Cómo apoya el Gobierno a las Pymes exportadoras? Además se pueden enlistar algunos objetivos específicos que se cumplirán al término de la investigación: indagar sobre las prácticas actuales que tienen las Pymes exportadoras del Estado de Colima para financiarse, analizar el fomento federal de apoyo a las Pymes exportadora.

El cumplimiento de los objetivos planteados, así como la resolución a las preguntas elaboradas para la investigación, conducen una hipótesis general. Las pequeñas y medianas empresas exportadoras del estado de Colima no acceden a todas las fuentes financiamiento y programas de apoyo gubernamentales que pueden usar. La investigación tendrá un enfoque cuantitativo ya que para comprobar la hipótesis, el estudio se basará en los instrumentos de medición aplicados, dichos instrumentos son cuestionarios que se podrán tabular de manera estadística, a través de herramientas informáticas como el Excel. Cabe hacer mención que la información analizada fue obtenida de una encuesta que se aplicó al total de las empresas exportadoras en el estado de Colima (62), sin importar su tamaño, es decir, se realizó un censo. Sin embargo, solo se consideraron los datos obtenidos de las 46 Pymes que resultaron de dicha investigación de campo, por ser el objeto de estudio de la presente tesis. La investigación de campo se realizó durante el 2008.

RESULTADOS

Con base en información prestada por el Banco de México, del 100% de las empresas exportadoras en el país, aproximadamente el 30 % de ellas usan el crédito bancario como fuente de financiamiento, confirmando de manera parcial que el acceso al crédito de los bancos es insuficiente para financiar sus operaciones. Con base en información proporcionada por PROMEXICO y la Secretaría de Economía del país en el último trimestre de 2008, se aplicaron un total de 62 cuestionarios, de los cuales solo 46 fueron contestados completamente porque el objeto de estudio eran solamente las Pymes y no todas las empresas exportadoras, cabe hacer mención que se hace la consideración de empresa pyme, por la cantidad de empleados que laboran en la misma. Como resultado de la investigación de campo realizada, se puede determinar el estado de las pymes exportadoras de Colima en el 2008, referente a su acceso al financiamiento: La realidad de las Pymes exportadoras en Colima es que, la mayoría (89%) han solicitado financiamiento, sin embargo, su situación no dista mucho de la realidad del país, el principal medio de financiamiento que utilizan es el que reciben por parte de los proveedores con un 56%, el 27% del financiamiento que reciben proviene de créditos bancarios, solo un 10 % proviene de fondos financiados por el gobierno y el restante 7% se financia con tarjetas de crédito. Al cuestionarse a los empresarios acerca del apoyo que han recibido por parte del Gobierno Federal Mexicano, respondieron que el 59% de las Pymes exportadoras del estado de Colima han recibido apoyo del gobierno para poder realizar sus exportaciones, los apoyos van desde asesoría hasta devolución por el pago de impuestos realizados.

Como resultado se observa que, las Pymes en México no tienen mucho acceso al crédito bancario debido a las tasas de interés y los excesivos trámites que se requieren para poder obtenerlo, provocando con ello que el principal medio de financiamiento de las Pymes sean los proveedores. El caso de las Pymes exportadoras en Colima, no dista mucho de la situación general del país, pues la mayor parte de financiamiento que obtienen los empresarios es por parte de los proveedores. Debido a lo anterior, se presenta una gama de fuentes de financiamiento para las pymes exportadoras: Dentro de la banca privada

destaca la participación de 13 instituciones de banca múltiple como HSBC, Santander, Banamex, BANSI, entre otras que brindan el apoyo las Pymes a través de créditos focalizados en capital de trabajo y activo fijo principalmente, con tasas fijas y variables, a continuación se enlista la información relativa a los mismos.

Tabla 3: Créditos otorgados por la banca privada.

banorte	<u>crediactivo paraguas (banorte)</u>	capital de trabajo y activo fijo
	<u>crediactivo (banorte)</u>	capital de trabajo
bbvabancomer	<u>credito liquido pyme</u>	efectivo
	<u>credito simple pyme</u>	efectivo
	<u>credito capital de trabajo negocios</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>credito equipamiento negocios</u>	equipamiento
hsbc	<u>tarjeta a negocios (bbva)</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>crédito negocios millón (hsbc)</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>credito a negocios equipamiento</u>	maquinaria y equipo
	<u>crédito negocios equipamiento millón (hsbc)</u>	capital de trabajo
santander serfin	<u>crédito a negocios (hsbc)</u>	inventarios y equipamiento menor
	<u>crédito simple</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>crédito pyme [emergente]</u>	capital de trabajo, maquinaria y equipo, activo fijo
	<u>crédito ágil (santander-serfin)</u>	capital de trabajo
banregio	<u>regio mipyme</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>regio mipyme</u>	activo fijo (maquinaria y equipo)
banco del bajo	<u>mipyme-bajío</u>	capital de trabajo y activo fijo
	<u>pyme bajío</u>	capital de trabajo y activo fijo
unicrese	<u>credi pyme unicrese</u>	capital de trabajo (empresas en marcha)
	<u>credi pyme unicrese</u>	capital de trabajo (empresas nuevas)
	<u>credi pyme unicrese</u>	activo fijo (empresas en marcha)
	<u>credi pyme unicrese</u>	activo fijo (empresas nuevas)
htr pyme sofol	<u>financiamiento maquinaria y equipo hir pyme</u>	maquinaria y equipo
mifel	<u>crédito pyme mifel</u>	capital de trabajo
afirme	<u>crédito pyme (afirme)</u>	capital de trabajo
	<u>crédito pyme (afirme)</u>	activo fijo
bansi	<u>crédito simple (bansi)</u>	efectivo
banamex	<u>crédito revolvente (banamex)</u>	efectivo
monex	<u>creditos en moneda nacional</u>	capital de trabajo y adquisicion de bienes
	<u>creditos</u>	capital de trabajo y adquisicion de bienes

Si se está buscando apoyos a la exportación específicamente, como es el caso de la presente investigación, la Secretaría de Economía a través de la Subsecretaría de la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa, se integran en el Programa de Oferta Exportable PyME, el cual tiene como objetivo impulsar y facilitar la incorporación y permanencia de las Micros, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (MiPyME's) a la actividad exportadora, desde un enfoque de corto y mediano plazos de internacionalización de las empresas mexicanas. Para el cumplimiento de éste objetivo, el Programa de Oferta Exportable PyME cuenta con las siguientes herramientas programáticas institucionales de apoyo a la MiPyME's, en materia de exportaciones: Programa de Centros Pymexporta, Programa de Impulsoras de la Oferta Exportable en el Extranjero, Sistema Nacional de Orientación al Exportador - Módulos de Orientación al Exportador (SNOE-MOE),

Comisión Mixta para la Promoción de las Exportaciones (COMPEX), Foros Económicos Internacionales, Premio Nacional de Exportación (PNE).

Otra opción de financiamiento la ofrece BANCOMEXT, quien ofrece créditos destinados a apoyar las necesidades financieras de las empresas para llevar a cabo sus actividades productivas relacionadas con las exportaciones mexicanas. Estos apoyos financieros pueden canalizarse a: producción, compra de materias primas nacionales o importadas, acopio o mantenimiento de inventarios, ventas de exportación directas, o construcción y equipamiento de naves industriales para venta o arrendamiento. El beneficio principal es que se puede obtener el 100% de financiamiento para compra de materia prima, pago de gastos de producción y otros servicios.

Incluso el gobierno estatal presenta dos opciones de financiamiento para este tipo de empresas: Programa De Fondo Pyme, el cual promueve el desarrollo económico nacional, a través del otorgamiento de apoyos de carácter temporal a proyectos que fomenten la creación, desarrollo, consolidación, viabilidad, productividad, competitividad y sustentabilidad de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, y las iniciativas de los emprendedores, así como a aquellos que promuevan la inversión productiva que permita generar más y mejores empleos, más y mejores micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas, y más y mejores emprendedores y PROGRAMA DE FOMENTO A LAS EXPORTACIONES, el cual brinda apoyo económico para el desarrollo de estudios de mercado, búsqueda de clientes potenciales, inteligencia de mercados, además de apoyar para la promoción de los productos colimenses en ferias o eventos internacionales.

CONCLUSIONES

En México como en la mayoría de los países, se ha difundido el deseo de que las exportaciones mexicanas se incrementen día con día, es por eso que el gobierno mexicano trata de incentivar a las empresas exportadoras para que continúen con su exportación e incluso motivan a las empresas que tienen deseo de hacerlo. Las exportaciones son benéficas tanto como para el empresario, así como para el país entero, ya que se incrementan los mercados de venta, se propaga la tecnología e innovaciones entre las empresas y obviamente se genera un empuje en la nación, pues los niveles de productividad son mayores. Sin embargo, uno de los principales retos a los que se enfrenta las empresas exportadoras en México, es el financiamiento, pues en muchas ocasiones no se tiene acceso al mismo y cuándo se puede tener acceso al crédito, las instituciones bancarias solicitan muchos requisitos que no todas las empresas pueden cumplir. El principal objetivo de ésta investigación, fue determinar a través de una investigación de campo, la forma en qué las pequeñas y medianas empresas del estado de Colima financian sus operaciones derivadas o incitadas por el comercio exterior.

Dentro de la investigación de campo, se comprobó que las Pymes objetos de estudio, utilizan el financiamiento de los proveedores como su principal forma de hacerse llegar de recursos para concluir sus procesos de producción, ya que comentaron que los posibles financiamientos bancarios a los que puede ser sujetos de uso, conllevan a tasas de interés altas o requerimientos complejos de cumplir. Se evidenció el desconocimiento que tienen acerca de los financiamientos que ofrecen todas las instituciones bancarias del país y el mismo gobierno a través de sus bancas de desarrollo. Asociado a la falta de conocimiento de financiamientos, se deja claro que la principal ayuda que reciben y conocen por parte del gobierno es la asesoría en trámites de exportación, sin embargo, se presentaron las opciones a las cuales pueden acceder en ambos casos.

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RECICLAJE DE RESIDUOS SÓLIDOS MUNICIPALES EN TIJUANA; UNA APROXIMACIÓN A LOS ASPECTOS AMBIENTALES, SOCIOECONÓMICOS, INSTITUCIONALES Y JURÍDICOS

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RESUMEN

En el municipio de Tijuana, Baja California el crecimiento económico y demográfico han provocado un aumento importante en la generación de Residuos Sólidos Municipales (RSM), ocasionando serios problemas de tipo social, económico y ambiental. Actualmente, el reciclaje constituye una de las principales alternativas para disminuir el impacto negativo en la generación de RSM. En este contexto, el objetivo es realizar un estudio descriptivo transeccional sobre la situación actual del reciclaje de RSM en Tijuana, a través de una aproximación a los aspectos ambientales, socioeconómicos, institucionales y jurídicos.

RECYCLING OF MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE IN TIJUANA; AN APPROACH OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL, SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL ISSUES

ABSTRACT

In Tijuana, Baja California the rapid economic and demographic growth has generated an important increment in the generation of Municipal Solid Waste (MSW), bringing about serious social, economic and environmental problems. Currently, recycling represents one of the main alternatives in order to diminish the negative impact caused by the generation of MSW. In this context, the objective is to conduct a descriptive transectional study about the current situation of MSW recycling in Tijuana, through an approach of the environmental, social, economic, institutional and legal issues.

EL PROCESO DE SUCESIÓN EN LAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES: GARANTÍA DE CONTINUIDAD, LEGADO Y COMPETITIVIDAD

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RESUMEN

Esta investigación pretende ser un referente para la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa que ha sido constituida en familia. Realiza en primer lugar, un breve análisis de la situación actual de la misma, con el propósito de identificar los problemas que prevalecen en este tipo de organizaciones. Una vez planteado el panorama, el estudio se centra en la sucesión familiar y en torno a ello se desarrolla el diseño de la investigación, los datos obtenidos de la aplicación del instrumento de medición se analizan cuantitativa y cualitativamente, para finalmente presentar la propuesta de una guía práctica de organización y sucesión para la micro, pequeña y mediana empresa familiar.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Micro, pequeña y mediana empresa, familia, sucesión.

THE SUCCESSION PROCESS IN FAMILY FIRMS: A GUARANTEE OF CONTINUITY HERITAGE AND COMPETITIVENESS

ABSTRACT

This investigation tries to be a model for the micro, small and medium company that has been constituted in family. It realizes first, a brief analysis of the current situation of the same one, with the intention of identifying the problems that prevail in this type of organizations. Once raised the panorama, the study centre on the familiar succession and around it the design of the investigation develops, the information obtained of the application of the instrument of measurement is analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively, finally to present the offer of a practical guide of organization and succession for the micro, small and medium familiar company.

KEYWORDS: Micro, small and medium company, family, succession.

INTRODUCCION

Esta investigación devela que hacer negocios en familia, o construir una empresa familiar, generalmente no es solo para producir riqueza. Lleva implícitos el fortalecimiento y la seguridad familiar. La creación de empresas en Sonora y en México, surge como respuesta al desempleo tan alto registrado en los últimos años. Por ello es de suponer que en actitud desesperada y con mucha creatividad, nacen día a día empresas por doquier. A veces sin intención, estudios, factibilidad, recursos humanos y/o financieros; nacen comercializando o produciendo algo que saben hacer, con el recurso humano más barato y disponible: La familia. Así, con la necesidad como motor, se lanza la empresa familiar a sortear todo tipo de pruebas; generando riesgos, costos económicos y emocionales.

Destacar la importancia del proceso de sucesión en las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas familiares es de vital importancia para la economía. Contribuir con ideas para el mejor manejo de sus negocios en familia, con el propósito de que trascienda la empresa, y prevalezca la familia.

Las experiencias negativas de empresas familiares, nos demuestran que “nos enseñan en la universidad a hacer negocios, nos enseñan en el hogar a ser familia, pero nunca nos enseñaron a hacer negocios en familia”.

Las empresas micro, pequeñas y medianas en México, conforman aproximadamente el 95% del Producto Interno Bruto (PIB). Un elevado porcentaje de empresas desaparece en la primera generación, con lo cual desaparecen fuentes de empleo, patrimonios y familias.

Según informes de la Organization Internacional del Trabajo (OIT), una tendencia mundial es que en América Latina, 9 de cada 10 empresas son familiares; en donde 2 de 3 fracasan. Además sostiene que en México, de 100 empresas familiares (mipymes) que inician, menos del 20% de las nuevas empresas llegan a los dos años de vida; casi un 20% llegan a la segunda generación y sólo el 8% sobreviven a la tercera generación; siendo muy diversos los elementos de su fracaso.

Es frecuente oír y leer que el ciclo de vida de las empresas familiares vendrá inexorablemente marcado por el hecho de que “el abuelo la funda, los hijos la debilitan y los nietos la entierran”; o bien, que el desarrollo de las capacidades empresariales de los miembros de cada generación tiene el siguiente comportamiento: “abuelo empresario, hijo ingeniero, nieto poeta”.

Existe una natural resistencia a la sucesión en las empresas familiares, a veces por soberbia, por desidia, por creerse inmortales o por ignorancia. De aquí que resulte necesario convencerse de que las palabras claves para la solución de los problemas de sucesión son: Planificarla pronto.

El administrador tiene el compromiso ético de fomentar la cultura organizacional, sembrando la semilla del conocimiento en estas pequeñas y medianas empresas, que inician sorteando problemas, pero que salen adelante. Hay ocasiones en que los problemas las unen y solidifican, y los éxitos las separan y resquebrajan. Por ello, la empresa familiar debe planear su presente y futuro.

El reto, además de crear empresas, es lograr que permanezcan y desarrollen siendo competitivas para un mercado global. Por ello es necesario mover actitudes humanas de los nacientes empresarios para que formalicen, planeen, utilicen información y apoyos disponibles, proyecten, desarrollen, reporten y comprendan su gran papel en el futuro de México.

En conclusión, este estudio pretende mostrar que la profesionalización de la empresa familiar, a través de un proceso de sucesión proyecta el futuro de su empresa como un negocio familiar productivo, con una agenda de asuntos administrativos, legales, motivadores, financieros y familiares que garanticen su permanencia. Por lo tanto, se hace necesaria su difusión, a través de la inclusión en diversos programas académicos y formativos empresariales.

REVISION LITERARIA

Las empresas familiares se caracterizan principalmente por el estrecho nexo cultural y tradicional que existe con la familia que las dirige. Sin embargo, este criterio de definición resulta bastante confuso, por lo cual se debe hacer un acercamiento diferente.

Las características de una empresa familiar son de tres clases.

1. Respecto a la propiedad: Gran parte de esta es de una familia, la que mantiene el poder y el control de la actividad empresarial.
2. Respecto al poder: Los miembros de la familia se dedican a la dirección de la empresa ó en cargos de decisión en el consejo directivo.
3. Respecto a la continuidad: Siendo familiar, debe estar involucrado un elemento de herencia, en este caso se lo identifica cuando en la empresa participan los miembros de una segunda generación familiar, es decir los hijos del fundador, por ejemplo.

Siguiendo las características anteriores es mucho más fácil identificar una empresa familiar sin entrar en juicios subjetivos.

Ahora bien, dos de los grandes problemas que se identifican en este tipo de organizaciones son:

La dificultad para crecer: Efectivamente, mientras las empresas no familiares tienden a acelerar su crecimiento luego de algún tiempo las empresas familiares se inclinan al estancamiento y la consecuente parálisis en su crecimiento.

La continuidad: Tal vez uno de los más graves problemas de largo plazo. Al estar sujeta a los ciclos de la familia puede que no se revitalice lo suficiente ni con la periodicidad adecuada.

Otras explicaciones de por qué se presentan estos problemas son la existencia de una triple coincidencia perversa entre: el último periodo activo del fundador, el envejecimiento de la estructura organizativa y la maduración del producto y del mercado.

Por otro lado, se ha identificado una crisis de la segunda generación en cuanto al dominio y legitimación del poder. Esto sin mencionar el típico problema de la financiación el cual es un problema constante durante las generaciones. Por último, hay un punto inter-generacional que muy pocos empresarios de primera generación consideran y son los impuestos que se deducen de la herencia a los sucesores. Esta carga debilita aún más la estructura financiera y puede que simplemente ya no quede nada para repartir.

El profesor Miguel Ángel Gallo del Escuela de posgrado en dirección de empresas de la Universidad de Navarra (IESE), identifica Cinco Trampas Profundas de la Empresa Familiar. A saber:

Confundir las propiedades con la capacidad de dirigir: Es de conocimiento público que este fenómeno es uno de los más comunes dentro de las Empresa Familiar (EF). El hecho de ostentar la propiedad no lo transforma mágicamente en un gerente al 100%. Tal vez en las primeras etapas de la empresa si pudo ser cierto, sin embargo, conforme esta evoluciona y se necesitan más expansiones también se exige una capacidad de respuesta de los ejecutivos.

No seguir las leyes del mercado: Hace referencia a que se puede caer en el error de remunerar altamente (o por debajo de lo normal) a los miembros de la familia que la dirige y de dar dividendos pequeños (o sobre valorados) a los accionistas. Con esto se crea una seria distorsión en la percepción de los costos y en la determinación de los precios.

Confundir los lazos de afecto con los contractuales: Es una tendencia que difícilmente se logra erradicar por completo, pero que puede controlarse. El cariño confundido con la relación laboral desestimula el compromiso de los que trabajan en la empresa y reduce la competitividad de la firma. La exigencia dentro de los parámetros normales de la relación contractual laboral es sana e impulsa el crecimiento de la firma. El retraso innecesario de la sucesión: Esta responsabilidad recae sobre los miembros de la generación anterior. Corresponde a ellos estar preparados para afrontar esta situación. No se trata simplemente de abandonar un cargo para dejar todos los problemas de la empresa a los sucesores. Se trata de preparar con tiempo a los futuros ejecutivos, prepara con anticipación la relación con los futuros accionistas, resolver con anterioridad los pormenores fiscales de la herencia, transmitir los puntos básicos de la cultura de la empresa a quienes tendrán el poder de decisión etcétera.

Creerse inmune a las anteriores: La última de las trampas y tal vez la más mortal. Negar estos problemas es como negar que las personas envejecemos con los años. Se debe estar atento en todo momento para que no nos tomen por sorpresa.

Básicamente se tratan de condiciones internas de las familias que se transmiten a la organización. Algo así como que los valores intrafamiliares llegan a ser el estandarte de la organización y su canon de comportamiento básico sobre el cual se construyen las relaciones comerciales. Esas características o fortalezas son de dos tipos.

Las primeras se les llama Fortalezas de Unidad: Son las relacionadas con el poder de la familia de mantenerse siempre junta con lazos mucho más fuertes que los meramente económicos.

1. Intereses Comunes
2. Autoridad Reconocida
3. Confianza Mutua
4. Comunicación
5. Compenetración
6. Flexibilidad

El otro grupo de las fortalezas son las llamadas de Compromiso: Mientras la anterior hace referencia al gobierno, esta hace hincapié a aquellas características que refuerzan la motivación al trabajo de calidad. Hacen parte de la mística del trabajo y del querer ser los mejores.

1. La Entrega a un Ideal
2. Sacrificio Personal
3. Exigencia de lo Mejor
4. Pensamiento a Largo Plazo

La finalidad de las empresas familiares es crecer con el tiempo y lograr las metas propuestas. Esto no es diferente en las Empresas No Familiares, sin embargo estas últimas no cuentan con el poderoso arsenal motivacional y de gobierno con que cuentan las EF. Es hora de trabajar constantemente en los problemas anteriormente mencionados y en la identificación de otros para que la continuidad sea un hecho y no se estanque el crecimiento.

Preparación de los sucesores.

¿Cuándo es conveniente empezar la preparación de un sucesor? ¿Cuántos sucesores hay que preparar? ¿Es posible ser sucedido por un equipo en vez de por una sola persona? ¿En qué circunstancias puede ser preferible que el sucesor sea un directivo no miembro de la familia? ¿Cuáles son las cualidades,

conocimientos y actitudes que los sucesores deben desarrollar o poseer? ¿Qué modos son acertados para desarrollarlas? ¿Cómo estar seguro de que las han alcanzado en grado suficiente? ¿Quién ha de elegir al sucesor?

En efecto, una respuesta acertada y concreta para muchas de estas cuestiones depende de las circunstancias de cada empresa y familia. Al respecto cuanto más amplio el repertorio de apoyos, o reglas de previsión, la empresa familiar se verá fortalecida durante el proceso de sucesión.

En el desarrollo de las capacidades de una persona para que pueda llegar a ser el jefe ejecutivo principal de una empresa familiar, se pueden distinguir tres etapas. Las etapas de preparación «remota», preparación «próxima» y preparación «in situ». Etapas preparan al sucesor para que sea y actúe como una persona libre. Esto significa poseer capacidades para elegir el bien, es decir, conocimientos, habilidades, actitudes y valores.

El sucesor, como parte clave de la formación de su voluntad, deba alcanzar y progresivamente perfeccionar un conjunto de virtudes humanas como son la laboriosidad, la tenacidad, la veracidad, lealtad, integridad y prudencia, como virtud que ordena todas las anteriores.

La primera de estas virtudes humanas tan propias de la dirección de la empresa es la laboriosidad. Intensa aplicación al trabajo en la empresa, que no está reñida ni con el descanso, tan necesario para el equilibrio emocional y la salud física de las personas que viven en la urgencia de conseguir que su empresa compita con éxito permanentemente en el mercado, ni tampoco con la dedicación a la propia familia, sin la cual quien hace cabeza en la empresa familiar perdería el «punto de mira», es decir, la razón del esfuerzo por sacar adelante su familia.

Unida a la laboriosidad se encuentra la virtud humana de la tenacidad. Firmeza y constancia en la persecución de los objetivos de desarrollo, crecimiento y evolución de la empresa. Virtud que, como ocurre con todas, consiste en alcanzar un punto medio, en este caso entre la debilidad e inconstancia por una parte y, por otra, la tozudez que ofrece enérgica resistencia a la transformación. Tozudez que frecuentemente se encuentra en quienes dirijan las empresas familiares en primera y segunda generación y que tan peligrosa resulta, pues les conduce a empeñarse en hacer las cosas «como siempre se han hecho», sin percibir la necesidad de cambiarlas para acompasar la actuación de la empresa a las variaciones de los clientes, competidores y tecnologías.

Un punto de vital importancia en la empresa familiar consiste en que el hombre o la mujer que en ella van a hacer cabeza tienen que lograr la confianza de las personas que les rodean, especialmente los otros miembros de la familia propietaria, pero también de directivos y mandos que no proceden de la familia, colegas, proveedores, clientes, etcétera.

Para que los demás confíen en él, un sucesor ha de ser una persona veraz y discreta. La sinceridad será por tanto un complemento para fortalecer su liderazgo.

Y, finalmente, la cualidad de la integridad, propia de quien no sólo actúa honradamente, sino que además lleva a cabo su trabajo con austeridad y grandeza de alma, y va de la mano de la prudencia que se caracteriza por la cordura y el discernimiento en la elección de los medios, es decir, los recursos y planes de acción, para alcanzar los fines, es decir, los objetivos de la dirección estratégica de la empresa.

Los antecesores pueden estar seguros, formar sucesores no solamente es posible, si se ponen los medios necesarios, sino que es una de las «aventuras» más apasionantes de la dirección de una empresa. Un predecesor no puede caer en la tentación de construir su empresa familiar con la intención de que sea el futuro refugio donde los miembros de la familia que estén menos capacitados, o lo que es peor, sean humanamente menos virtuosos, ostenten el poder.

En la preparación del sucesor, lo importante es enseñarle y ayudarle a aprovechar las circunstancias de la vida para formarse, en vez de «protegerles» excesivamente para que no pasen por las privaciones y sufrimientos que pasaron sus predecesores. Así, por ejemplo, hay que ser constantes en la exigencia de que cumplan con los compromisos que adquieren de estudiar al iniciar los diferentes niveles de preparación académica, de convivir en paz, de ayudar a los demás.

Sin querer dar reglas fijas, porque la fecha adecuada para la incorporación depende de muchas circunstancias, tanto un predecesor como un sucesor deben considerar que trabajar durante unos años en otra empresa, además de la ventaja anteriormente citada de la oportunidad de «mirar fuera», puede añadir algo tan importante para todo sucesor como es una mayor seguridad en sí mismo y un prestigio superior frente a directivos no familiares y frente a los demás miembros de la familia.

Unido a estas consideraciones sobre cuándo se ha de incorporar el sucesor a la empresa familiar, y como iniciación al estudio de la etapa de su preparación «inmediata», hay que analizar el desfase de edades que de forma natural acostumbra a darse entre predecesor y sucesor, por las exigencias de prudencia y equilibrio en las dedicaciones de tiempo que «impone» a un predecesor plenamente decidido a tener éxito en el proceso sucesorio.

Como puede verse en la imagen, la época de la preparación remota y la época de la preparación próxima del sucesor, corresponden al período de tiempo en el que el predecesor pasa de tener 30 a tener 50 años aproximadamente.

Habitualmente, durante estos años, es precisamente cuando el fundador está haciendo sus mayores esfuerzos en la empresa, pues debe pasar de «tener una idea» a «hacer un negocio», la organización necesita de todo el tiempo que su director general dispone así como de su compromiso pleno con el desarrollo.

El gran riesgo de un fundador de empresa familiar es que el esfuerzo que la empresa necesita le conduzca a olvidarse de que sus hijos son más importantes que sus negocios. No dedicándoles el tiempo de atención que precisan, ni demostrando así, con hechos tangibles, que entre ellos y la empresa familiar no hay conflicto.

Para formar bien a sus sucesores, tanto en la etapa de la preparación remota como en la de preparación próxima, el predecesor, todavía joven de edad, debería poseer el equilibrio en el orden de valores que otorga la madurez que, por otra parte, no se corresponde con la vejez, sino con el pleno cumplimiento de las responsabilidades propias, en este caso las del padre comprometido con el bien de sus hijos, que es su formación humana, convencido de que así también conseguirá el bien de la empresa familiar, cuando ésta pase de primera a segunda generación pues, como es conocido, cuanto más estrecha es la relación entre quien hace cabeza en la empresa y su sucesor, más se incrementan las posibilidades de una sucesión eficaz (Goldberg y Wooldrige, 1993).

Figura 1. Edades de los Protagonistas

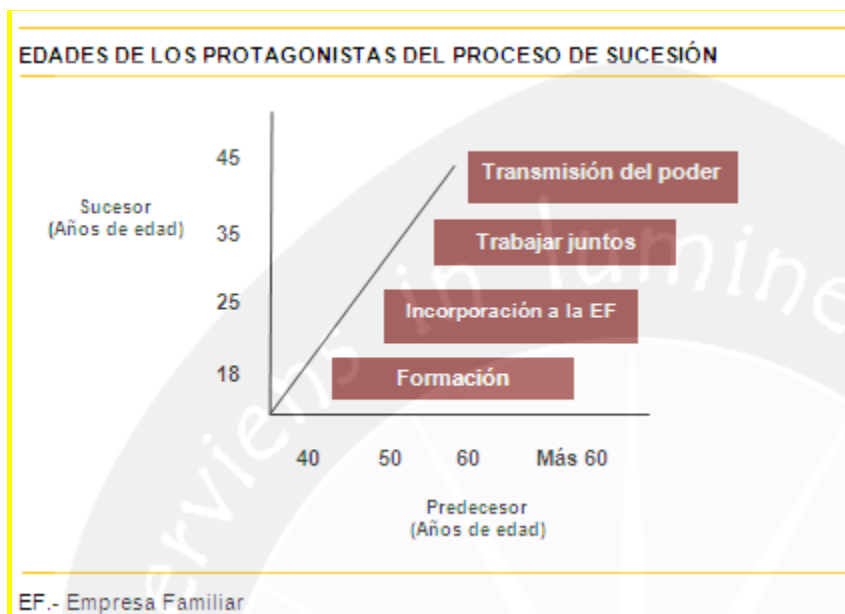


Tabla 1

Sucesor		Predecesor
20-25	Acaba universidad	45-50
25-30	Trabaja fuera de la EF	50-55
30-35	Capacitación como especialista funcional	55-60
35-40	Capacitación como integrador	60-65
40-	Jefe ejecutivo principal	65-

La organización y su preparación para la sucesión:

Para cualquier tipo de empresa, el proceso de sucesión en las responsabilidades de la dirección general es uno de los aspectos más importantes de su dirección estratégica.

En empresa, por «estrategia» se entiende la situación futura que se desea alcanzar en el transcurso de un período determinado de tiempo. Por «organización» de la empresa se entiende el conjunto formado por su estructura de responsabilidades y por los sistemas de alta dirección que emplea. Estructura de responsabilidades constituida, se refiere básicamente al grupo de personas que desempeñan tareas de dirección, y el contenido de sus puestos directivos en cuanto a las funciones y objetivos, el nivel de autonomía con que han de actuar y los modos a seguir para integrarse con los demás directivos.

Para tener éxito en la dirección estratégica de una empresa, entre su estrategia y su organización se tiene que dar un elevado grado de coherencia. En efecto, y siguiendo un símil sencillo, una organización puede asemejarse al «vehículo» a emplear para alcanzar la estrategia, es decir, para llegar y llegar a tiempo a los objetivos que la conforman. Si el vehículo no es adecuado a la meta que se ha puesto, la estrategia es utópica. También, si la estrategia no responde a las capacidades que posee la organización, o que ésta puede desarrollar en un futuro no muy lejano, los objetivos estratégicos no llegarán a hacerse realidad.

Por otra parte, cuando la empresa familiar es todavía pequeña, la incorporación de estos directivos da lugar a muchos cambios como, por ejemplo, incrementos importantes de capacidad ejecutiva con sus correspondientes necesidades de mayor delegación por parte del fundador y, por tanto, de nuevas dificultades en la coordinación, de aquí que el fundador tenga tendencia a plantear e implantar evoluciones paulatinas, contemplando el crecimiento a través de nuevas unidades de negocio.

METODOLOGIA

Investigación de Campo en mipymes de la Cd. de Hermosillo, Sonora. México.

El presente estudio se centra en las mipymes que funcionan en la ciudad de Hermosillo, Sonora. El universo lo conforman negocios familiares, nacidos desde 1990 a 2007, que muestren crecimiento, estén legalmente constituidas y participen más de 2 miembros de la familia en su operación. El levantamiento de información duró seis meses.

La muestra representativa se eligió por conveniencia acudiendo a la Cámara Nacional de la Industria de la Transformación y de Comercio, además de Empreser, organismo impulsor de emprendedores, ambos ubicados en Hermosillo, Sonora. México.

La investigación es de campo y documental, en proporción del 70-30 respectivamente, a la muestra se aplicará el cuestionario diseñado exclusivamente para comprobar la hipótesis origen de esta investigación: Demostrar que no se le da la importancia al tema de la sucesión en las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas como un legado familiar y plataforma de despegue económico”.

En el marco de la presente investigación de tipo descriptiva, que busca definir las propiedades y describir las características y perfiles importantes de los grupos sometidos a análisis y recolectar cuantitativamente datos que permitan la comprensión del fenómeno a observar, para posteriormente analizar e interpretar la información que resulte desde un enfoque cualitativo, se desarrolla el diseño de la investigación.

La selección de la muestra se determinó no probabilístico y de conveniencia debido a que no se utilizaron procedimientos de selección por casualidad, sino más bien atendieron el juicio personal del investigador y de conveniencia debido a que no se tuvo la certeza de que toda la población participara en la generación de información.

La muestra representativa se eligió estableciendo un común denominador, basándose en características que sólo reunió un estrato de la población objeto de estudio, tales como: Empresas contribuyentes al erario público, donde trabajan en la misma empresa al menos dos consanguíneos y la tercera condición, que tuvieran una permanencia estable en el mercado y haber demostrado éxito comercial. Es así, como se encuestó a un total de 35 empresas familiares de la ciudad de Hermosillo en total.

Antes de iniciar la aplicación de las encuestas se consideraron las siguientes limitaciones:

La población a cubrir, que dependió del objeto de estudio, la identificación de los encuestados que posibilitó conocer cuáles serían los posibles individuos a entrevistar, el período de referencia, sobre el cual se interrogó y recogió la información, el modo de recolección, que en este trabajo fueron cuestionarios relativamente abiertos y finalmente la forma de llegar al encuestado, donde fue necesario visitar el lugar de trabajo del mismo.

Se observó a la población de manera directa, ya que hubo contacto cercano con los elementos en los cuales se presentó el fenómeno y los resultados obtenidos se consideraron datos estadísticos originales.

Todo lo anterior, permitió seleccionar las variables más significativas y establecer relaciones causales entre los sujetos observados y las condiciones corrientes en que se encuentra inmerso el objeto de estudio.

CONCLUSION.

La empresa familiar, tiene muchas áreas de oportunidad en su camino hacia la profesionalización. La cultura empresarial respecto al proceso de sucesión aún es incipiente, presentando retos importantes a las ciencias administrativas, respecto a la actitud, liderazgo y gestión operativa. Se hace necesario llevar al negocio familiar hacia la competitividad. La agenda está llena de asuntos desde familiares, administrativos, legales, motivadores y financieros que permitirán fortalecerla.

Las empresas familiares además de buscar maximizar el beneficio sobre la inversión, buscan el bienestar de los miembros de la familia. Trabajar con familiares tiene grandes ventajas como fortaleza impulsora, soporte técnico, espiritual y de confianza que hace que el emprender un negocio sea exitoso, pero como todo en la vida tiene su lado oscuro; a veces se termina pagando un precio muy alto cuando las cosas no salen bien, perdiendo el negocio y en ocasiones hasta la familia.

La empresa familiar requiere de una administración diferente. Este estudio mostró que estos negocios son vulnerables debido a la poca cultura de la prevención y gestión profesional.

Posiblemente, las universidades enseñen a hacer negocios, y las familias enseñen a hacer familia, pero la dualidad de hacer negocios en familia, deberá sin duda alguna aprenderse sobre la marcha, combinando los conocimientos, habilidades, actitudes y valores que se dan en el entorno familiar, empresarial y académico.

Lo que hace tener éxito son: reglas claras y plan de sucesión que garanticen la permanencia de la empresa otras tres generaciones. ¿Por qué no pensar en los nietos de los nietos?... de ahí la urgencia de profesionalizarla.

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EVOLUCIÓN DEL CENTRO DESARROLLO EMPRESARIAL-UABC EN EL VALLE DE MEXICALI

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ABSTRACT

El propósito de ésta investigación es analizar la evolución del Centro Desarrollo Empresarial de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, Cd. Guadalupe Victoria, Valle de Mexicali, en México desde el año 2009, hasta el 2011. El CEDEM-UABC inicia con 3 áreas: asesoría financiera y actualización, asesoría a empresas de base social e incubadora de negocios; con 6 estudiantes en la escuela, 23 en trabajo de campo, de la licenciatura en administración de empresas y 3 docentes. En el 2011, tiene 4 áreas, se adiciona el área desarrollo de investigación de mercados y científica; participan 15 estudiantes en la escuela y 17 en trabajo de campo, de la licenciatura de administración de empresas y contabilidad, 1 L.A.E., y 3 docentes. El método seguido fue investigación documental, por medio de la base de datos del CEDEM-UABC, e información sistematizada del mismo. Los resultados indican que el Centro contribuye a la vinculación universitaria, y se ha ido adaptando a las necesidades de las Micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas del Valle de Mexicali, quienes se favorecen aún más con la asesoría integral recibida.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Centro empresarial, desarrollo empresarial, vinculación universitaria.

INTRODUCCION

La presente investigación es acerca de la evolución que ha tenido el programa de servicio social Centro Desarrollo Empresarial-UABC, de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, en la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Guadalupe Victoria en Mexicali. La vinculación universitaria entre estudiantes y empresas, resulta satisfactoria, contribuye al aprendizaje y experiencia del alumno como profesional, favoreciendo las mipymes de la región. El CEDEM-UABC beneficia la economía del valle de Mexicali, a través del desarrollo de la cultura empresarial, asistencia a empresas de base social, asesoría financiera y capacitación legal, e investigación de mercados y científica.

REVISION DE LITERATURA

La vinculación de la universidad con el sector empresarial es uno de los temas de mayor preocupación para los responsables de las políticas educativas y los expertos en educación superior. En los últimos años también se ha enfatizado esta inquietud en los propios empresarios. (De la Cuesta González Marta, 2010) En esta nueva realidad, si lo que se busca es el desarrollo social, el crecimiento económico, la capacidad de competencia de los países, el factor clave es el conocimiento. En este contexto la universidad es el medio que permitirá aprovechar una gran oportunidad para alcanzar el desarrollo. (Abidin Catalina, 2008) La finalidad central de la vinculación debe ser el intercambio de información y conocimiento de un sector al otro: los de la empresa a la universidad para que esta pueda trabajar en base a datos de la realidad de los que, tal vez, carece; y de la universidad a las empresas tratando de colaborar en la búsqueda de respuestas a algunos de sus problemas, ayudando al crecimiento de las mismas en su conjunto e incidiendo, directa o indirectamente, en el desarrollo socioeconómico de la región y nación en forma global. (Sarni, 2005) La vinculación universitaria debe ser entendida como el conjunto de actividades docentes, de investigación, servicios universitarios y preservación y difusión de la cultura explícita y expresamente orientados a la

solución de problemas relevantes para el desarrollo económico social, educativo y cultural de la nación. (Sarni, 2005) En 1993 en la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, se elabora un catálogo universitario de vinculación, en el que se informa de los diferentes servicios de cada una de las unidades académicas pone a disposición de empresas e instituciones, en el que asistieron universidades y representantes empresariales de todo el país. (Piñera Ramírez David, 1997) Las funciones de docencia, investigación, extensión y difusión de la cultura, se realizan por conducto de las Unidades Académicas: Escuelas, Facultades, Institutos, y Unidades de apoyo. (Estatuto General, 2006)

En la escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Guadalupe Victoria, dentro de sus programas de Servicio Social, se encuentra el Centro Desarrollo Empresarial-UABC. Según el catálogo del sistema integral de servicio social UABC SISS-2009, en el programa de servicio social: Centro Desarrollo Empresarial UABC, indica que el objetivo del programa de servicio social comunitario es promover la formación pertinente del estudiante universitario con su entorno, a través de los servicios que ofrece el cedem-uabc a los microempresarios del valle de Mexicali. En lo que respecta al servicio social profesional, se busca la asesoría para la creación de nuevas empresas y orientación para el fortalecimiento financiero, capacitación y actualización empresarial en apoyo al crecimiento económico de la región. El Centro Desarrollo Empresarial nace en el año 2009 a raíz del Programa de Investigación, Asistencia, y Docencia a la Mediana y Pequeña Empresa.

METODOLOGIA

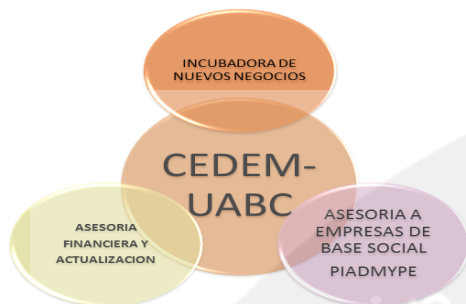
Investigación documental, a través de la base de datos del CEDEM-UABC. Se realizó una lectura Sistemática, se elaboraron fichas de resumen, y de citas. Se utilizaron bases de datos electrónicas como la EBSCO. Se consultaron páginas electrónicas de la UABC.

RESULTADOS

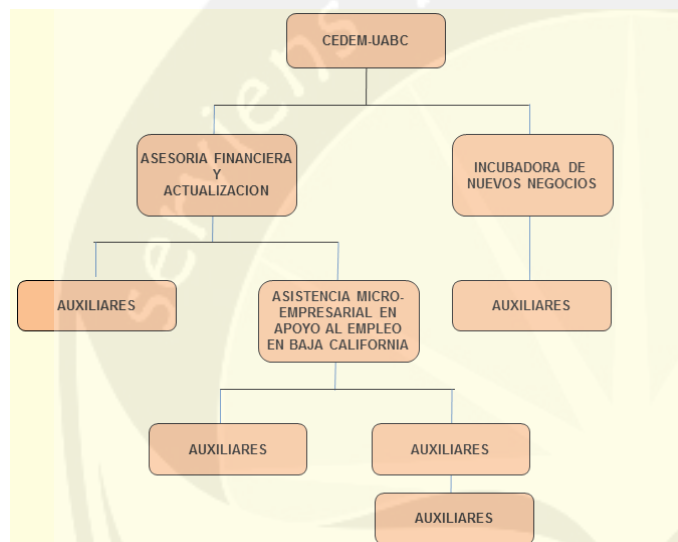
El primer semestre en el que inicia CEDEM-UABC se atendieron 121 personas, en las áreas de asesoría financiera, capacitación y actualización. El área de incubadora de negocios atendió a 40 personas, y de ellas 5 iniciaron su plan de negocios, recibiendo a su vez talleres de administración, fiscal, recursos humanos, y creatividad e innovación. Era visitado por 30 personas en promedio al mes, quienes solicitaban ayuda en áreas de interés relacionadas con sus negocios. El centro desarrollo empresarial inicia con 3 áreas: asesoría financiera y actualización, incubadora de nuevos negocios y asistencia microempresarial en apoyo al empleo en Baja California. En el siguiente diagrama se muestran las áreas generales cuando empezó el cedem-uabc.

El organigrama del CEDEM-UABC estaba formado en un inicio por asesoría financiera y actualización con 1 estudiante a cargo, y 2 estudiantes auxiliares, e Incubadora de negocios con 1 estudiante a cargo y 2 estudiantes auxiliares. Debajo de la primer área se encontraba ubicada asistencia microempresarial en apoyo al empleo en Baja California, con un docente a cargo, y 2 estudiantes auxiliares, además de 23 estudiantes extensionistas.

Areas CEDEM-UABC Año 2009



Fuente: cedem-uabc



fuentes: cedem-uabc

En un inicio el logotipo era con letras minúsculas, y mayúsculas de tamaño grande. A continuación se presenta el diseño.

**Centro
Desarrollo
Empresarial
U A B C**

fuentes: cedem-uabc

La publicidad que existía era de boca en boca, con los estudiantes de la escuela de ingeniería y negocios quienes invitaban a sus familiares y conocidos que tienen negocios a que acudieran para recibir asesoría con el fin de formalizar sus empresas. Este tipo de publicidad hacía que en promedio 30 personas al mes solicitaran al cedem-uabc. El objetivo de CEDEM-UABC es promover la formación profesional pertinente del estudiante universitario con su entorno socioeconómico, a través de la investigación científica y vinculación con micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas del valle de Mexicali, por medio de asesoría para la creación de nuevas empresas, la orientación para el fortalecimiento financiero, y de la capacidad y actualización del conocimiento empresarial.

Los valores que se difunden en el CEDEM-UABC son la honestidad, respeto, confidencialidad, servicio y profesionalismo. La honestidad y el respeto con los compañeros integrantes del Centro Desarrollo Empresarial. La confidencialidad, servicio, respeto y profesionalismo con los microempresarios, quienes ponen en manos de los estudiantes y docentes información personal para recibir una asesoría integral, con la finalidad de que sus negocios progresen. En el año 2011, el centro desarrollo empresarial tiene una reestructuración, en donde se adiciona el área de desarrollo de investigación de mercados y científica, y algunas áreas cambian sus nombres. A continuación se presenta las áreas actuales.

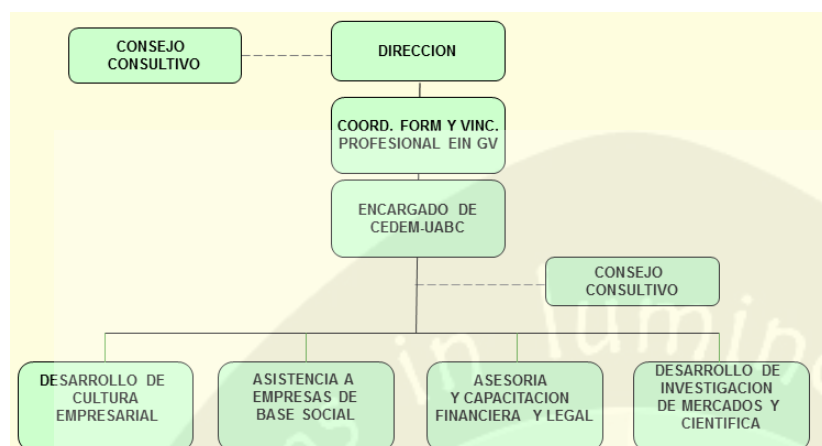
Áreas CEDEM-UABC Año 2011.



fuentes: cedem-uabc

La estructura orgánica actual del CEDEM-UABC está conformada con el primer nivel jerárquico el director de la Escuela de ingeniería y Negocios, en el segundo nivel, el coordinador de formación y vinculación profesional, en el tercer nivel jerárquico el encargado del centro, quien es responsable de asistencia a empresas de base social, asesoría y capacitación financiera y legal, e investigación de mercados y científica, además del área de desarrollo de cultura empresarial, dentro de esta área se encuentra el asesor empresarial de cimarrones emprendedores.

El encargado del centro Desarrollo empresarial es responsable de supervisar las 4 áreas, con la finalidad de llevar un control en los procedimientos, así como gestionar los recursos humanos, técnicos, y financieros para lograr un desarrollo óptimo del centro. En este caso los recursos humanos son prestadores de servicio social comunitario, y profesional; el encargado promoverá el programa con el objetivo de conseguir estudiantes que colaboren de manera eficiente, y eficaz con las actividades del cedem-uabc iniciado el periodo escolar. Los recursos técnicos son las computadoras, ó aparatos electrónicos, para llevar a cabo las funciones correspondientes, y los recursos financieros (aunque son mínimos), son aquellos que ayudan a sustentar el centro en cuestión de papelería, copias, tinta (que se requieren para apoyar a los microempresarios), becas para los estudiantes, entre otros. Otra de las actividades es realizar la planeación estratégica de cada semestre, implementando metas a cumplir con el objetivo de fortalecer el centro, y seguir coadyuvando al mejoramiento de las mipymes del valle de Mexicali. También tener vínculo con organismos públicos y privados que contribuyan al beneficio de la economía de la región, así como la capacitación constante de sus recursos humanos. Se presenta el siguiente organigrama actual del cedem-uabc.



Fuente: CEDEM-UABC

El centro está formado por 3 docentes, 1 asesor empresarial, 29 estudiantes de la licenciatura de administración de empresas, y 1 estudiante foráneo de contabilidad. En el 2011-2 el centro Desarrollo Empresarial se compone de la siguiente manera: 2 docentes quienes coordinan todo el centro, en el área de asesoría y capacitación financiera y legal 2 estudiantes, y un voluntario, en el área de asistencia a empresas de base social 1 docente, 1 estudiante supervisor y 17 estudiantes extensionistas, en el área de desarrollo de cultura empresarial una asesor empresarial de cimarrones emprendedores, con 5 estudiantes, y en el área de investigación de mercados 3 estudiantes. Los consejos consultivos fungen como asesores externos de la escuela de ingeniería y negocios, pero son miembros de otras unidades académicas de la UABC.

Funciones.

A continuación se presentan las funciones de cada una de las áreas del centro desarrollo empresarial-uabc.

Asesoría Y Capacitación Financiera Y Legal.

- Brindar asesoría financiera a micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas.
- Vincular a micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas con dependencias e instituciones de financiamiento.
- Fomentar la cultura de la importancia de la capacitación en las mipymes.
- Crear y ofrecer talleres de capacitación y actualización en temas de interés para los microempresarios y nuevos emprendedores.

Asistencia A Empresas De Base Social

- Brindar asistencia técnica a microempresas con problemas de marginación a partir de una metodología, instrumentos de compilación de datos y un software que facilitan el análisis de la información microempresarial y la elaboración de recomendaciones en un reporte
 - Generar y archivar expedientes sobre cada microempresarios que haya sido asistido para un control de la información.
 - Realizar la supervisión de las etapas de formalización, evaluación y seguimiento.

Desarrollo De Cultura Empresarial

- Asesorar a las personas que desean emprender un nuevo negocio.
- Impartir taller para la elaboración de plan de negocios apoyando al emprendedor.
- Capturar en computadora los planes de negocios de los emprendedores.
- Analizar el plan de números para saber si es viable el negocio.
- Si es viable, vincular a los emprendedores con los financiamientos adecuados para dar marcha a sus proyectos.

Investigacion De Mercados

- Diseñar instrumentos de evaluación como son los cuestionarios.
- Implementar estudios de mercado con el fin de fortalecer negocios que ofrezcan productos y servicios demandados.
- Elaborar y actualizar mapa digital de las mipymes del Valle de Mexicali.
- Realizar investigación científica de mipymes de la región

Logotipo Actual.

Actualmente el logotipo es distinto, el tamaño de las letras mayúsculas es más grande con el nombre abreviado, y el nombre completo en letras minúsculas es pequeño, con una línea en medio.

A continuación se presenta el diseño.



fuentes: cedem-uabc

Publicidad

La publicidad de boca en boca, sigue resultando efectiva para el cedem-uabc, y actualmente acuden 40 personas en promedio al mes, quienes recurren al centro desarrollo empresarial, para ser atendidos en las distintas áreas. La única ocasión que se ha utilizado el perifoneo como medio publicitario fue en el mes de septiembre y octubre del año 2011, con la finalidad de dar a conocer al Centro Desarrollo Empresarial UABC, en la zona norte del valle de Mexicali, en los ejidos Hermosillo y ciudad Morelos. Con los perifoneos acudieron 61 personas al CEDEM-UABC.

A continuación se presenta el diseño de publicidad por medio de volantes, que fue implementada en el mes de marzo del 2011, expo agrobaja, stand de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, Guadalupe Victoria de la UABC, con la finalidad de dar a conocer el centro y captar la atención de más microempresarios.



Fuente: CEDEM-UABC

En el año 2011-2, se atendieron 410 microempresarios en las distintas áreas del Centro Desarrollo empresarial que acudieron a la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios a solicitar asesoría. Durante 10 meses y medio, se obtuvieron éstos resultados, considerando que el centro trabaja durante el ciclo de labores de la UABC, restando los periodos de vacaciones de semana santa, verano e invierno. Desde que inició el Centro Desarrollo empresarial hasta el año 2011-2, se han atendido a un total de 1076 microempresarios, quienes se han beneficiado por las distintas áreas, contribuyendo al desarrollo económico del valle de Mexicali.

CONCLUSIONES

El centro desarrollo empresarial en el tiempo que lleva del 2009 al 2011, ha beneficiado a bastantes micro, pequeños y medianos empresarios de la región del valle de Mexicali, y se ha ido transformado de acuerdo a la demanda y necesidades de los usuarios llamados empresarios y emprendedores. Es importante observar que actualmente más estudiantes de licenciatura en administración de empresas de la Escuela de Ingeniería y Negocios, han adquirido experiencia profesional, y empresarial, con el programa de servicio social CEDEM-UABC. Dentro de los propósitos de cedem-uabc está el lograr ser multidisciplinario, y que estudiantes de otras licenciaturas y unidades académicas, puedan realizar sus prácticas profesionales ó servicio social, fortaleciéndolos a ellos como profesionales y al Centro Desarrollo Empresarial.

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EL COMPORTAMIENTO EMPRENDEDOR DE FRANQUICIADOS A TRAVÉS DE LA INFLUENCIA DE RASGOS PSICOLÓGICOS

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RESUMEN

En este estudio se analiza el comportamiento emprendedor de 53 empresarios franquiciados de tiendas de conveniencia a través de los rasgos de personalidad, con el propósito de establecer la correlación entre la variable dependiente que los motivó a emprender, con los rasgos de personalidad, necesidad de logro, control interno y propensión al riesgo. Se utilizaron preguntas relacionadas con la actitud emprendedora y los rasgos de personalidad ya validadas. Se elaboró un cuestionario para recabar la información con preguntas provenientes de estudios previos. Las respuestas se registraron en una base de datos a través del programa estadístico SPSS versión 17. Se realizó un análisis factorial para determinar las variables de estudio y la aplicación de pruebas "T" para muestras relacionadas para determinar la influencia de la actitud emprendedora (variable dependiente) y los rasgos de personalidad (variables independientes). El resultado de las tres hipótesis muestra que los empresarios de franquicias asumen el riesgo sin problema y cuentan con un alto control interno en la actividad empresarial. Aunque la variable necesidad de logro no influyó en su comportamiento emprendedor. El método utilizado fue el exploratorio asociado con el correlacional bajo la técnica de aplicación de pruebas "T" para muestras relacionadas de hipótesis estadística.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Franquicias, franquiciados, rasgos, emprendedor.

ABSTRACT

In this study is analyzed the enterprising behavior of 53 franchised businessmen of stores of convenience across the features of personality, with the intention of establishing the existence of correlation between the dependent variable that motivated them to the undertaking, and the features of personality need of achievement, internal control and tendency to risk. There were posed questions related to the enterprising attitude and the features of personality already validated. A questionnaire was elaborated to obtain the information with questions from previous studies. The answers were registered in a database across the statistical program SPSS version 17. A factor analysis was realized to determine the variables of study and also the application of "T" tests for related samples to determine the influence of the enterprising attitude (dependent variable) and the features of personality (independent variables). The result of three raised hypotheses shows that businessmen of franchises are people who assume the risk without any problem and they also possess a high internal control of personality in the managerial activity. The variable need of achievement did not influence their enterprising behavior. The method was exploratory associated to the correlational under the technology of application of "T" tests for related samples of statistical hypothesis.

KEY WORDS: franchisees, franchised businessmen, features, entrepreneur.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Actualmente se ha visto una amplia apertura de tiendas de conveniencia a lo largo y ancho de México, que son cedidas a manera de franquicia. Se ha comprendido los motivos de la toma de decisiones de los franquiciadores, sin embargo no se ha tomado en cuenta a los franquiciados. En el transcurso de los años se han encontrado diversas teorías que describen la decisión de franquicia contra la decisión de establecer un negocio por sí mismos o a lo que equivale, crear un establecimiento propio. De esto se hace mención debido a que el franquiciador deberá lidiar, en algunas ocasiones, con ciertas carencias, necesidades o escasez de recursos, (Dant, 1995).

Algunos otros autores como Hunt (1977), han explicado el impulso de la teoría de la decisión de adquirir una franquicia por las ventajas específicas que esta ofrece, esto indicará que pertenecerán a una empresa siendo ellos empresarios independientes, o lo que se asemeja ser, franquiciados. Otros autores como Williams (1998), describen que se debe a que esperan una utilidad mayor a la que como empresarios independientes. Otro de los puntos dentro de la decisión es la preferencia de riesgo, de acuerdo a los antecedentes marcados por la teoría de Knight creada en 1921.

Existen pocos estudios empíricos que presentan diferencias en la decisión de adquirir una franquicia. Por ejemplo se podría preguntar a los franquiciados respecto a las variables que son importantes para la toma de decisiones, esto según los autores Knight (1986), y Bannock y Stanworth (1990). Algunos franquiciados comparan el adquirir una franquicia con el hecho de ser empresarios independientes o lo que es igual trabajar a cuenta ajena, esto dependerá de la forma en que la persona tome su trabajo. La opción de abrir una franquicia depende de mayores ventajas de las que proporciona la opción de negocio independiente. No existe opinión consensuada sobre la importancia relativa de cada ventaja ni de su valoración. Para Knight (1986), la marca es la principal ventaja mientras que para Peterson y Dant (1990), creen que es la formación o el pertenecer a una cadena nacional.

Este trabajo establece una tipología de emprendedores según sus creencias y preferencias ante la opción de franquicia. Se pretende conocer la influencia que ejercen las variables psicológicas riesgo, control interno y necesidad de logro para que una persona decida elegir un negocio a través de una franquicia en tiendas de conveniencia. También se pretende dar respuesta a la siguiente pregunta de investigación. ¿Las variables psicológicas influyen en la conducta del emprendedor para obtener una franquicia de tiendas de conveniencia? La literatura ha mostrado siempre más interés en entender las decisiones de los franquiciadores que las de los franquiciados. Se han establecido teorías que explican la decisión de franquicia frente a la de abrir establecimientos propios tomando en cuenta las carencias o necesidades del franquiciador y escasez de recursos (Dant, 1995), pero no hay ninguna teoría que explique la decisión del franquiciado. Hay pocos estudios empíricos y presentan grandes diferencias entre ellos, unos se basan en preguntar a los franquiciados existentes sobre las variables que fueron importantes para ellos cuando tomaron la decisión (Peterson y Dant 1990), y otros se basan en potenciales franquiciados a los que se les preguntaba por los criterios que tienen en cuenta para decidirse. Este estudio parte con la idea de considerar al franquiciado como un emprendedor que se plantea la decisión de crear una empresa. Debe por tanto analizar la posibilidad que tiene a su alcance, es decir abrir una franquicia y conocer cuáles son los rasgos de personalidad que influyeron en él.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

Hunt (1977), resume situaciones que pasan en el proceso con respecto a lo que ofrece la franquicia como son: una mayor ventaja de pertenecer a una gran cadena de empresas, mientras que al mismo tiempo les permite ser empresarios independientes. Williams (1998), establece que los emprendedores o franquiciados optarán por la franquicia en lugar de inclinarse por un negocio propio, esto si la utilidad del primer caso es mayor que la del segundo. Los estudios empíricos dentro del estado del arte a menudo se han centrado los estudios en los franquiciados ya existentes. Peterson y Dant (1990), encontraron que existían tres factores que condicionaban a los franquiciados misma información que se obtuvo de las encuestas estos tres puntos fueron: la experiencia que poseen como auto-empleados, el número de años que estuvieron como empresarios y el nivel de ventas que obtuvieron en los mismos.

Lafontaine (1992), encontró que la probabilidad de ser franquiciado aumenta con la cantidad de capital inicial disponible. Por lo que respecta a la localización de la franquicia, los autores Mescon y Montanari (1981), establecieron tres tipos de franquiciados esto en función de su localización (franquicia): franquiciados rurales, franquiciados en población de tamaño medio. franquiciados urbanos. Por lo tanto, como se mencionaba anteriormente, no hay estudios que permitan conocer los rasgos más comunes que tienen los emprendedores de franquicia. Con la aplicación de este estudio exploratorio se dará a conocer la influencia de los rasgos, riesgo, control interno y necesidad de logro en los emprendedores de franquicia.

Control interno: Los empresarios tienen una alta puntuación de control interno, ya que otras personas que creen que el resultado de sus acciones no depende de sus decisiones ni de sus esfuerzos, difícilmente podrán decidirse a crear y dirigir una empresa (Veciana, 1989). El control interno que tiene los empresarios para desarrollar sus actividades se deriva de su energía original por la creencia que tienen de que con su esfuerzo personal lograran la consecución de los objetivos que se han trazado, así lo han corroborado los estudios de los siguientes autores: Mescon et al. (1981), Robinson et al., 1991 o Lee y Tsang 2001), Gürol y Atsan (2006), Korunka et al., (2003). Por lo tanto se plantea la siguiente hipótesis: H1. Los emprendedores de franquicia tendrán una influencia del rasgo control interno en su comportamiento emprendedor.

Riesgo: La asunción de riesgo es una variable a destacar en el perfil emprendedor. Stearns y Hills, (1996), han destacado que el emprendedor no es un corredor de riesgos, si no que sabe manejar el riesgo y calcularlo. Brockhaus (1982), sugiere que incluso podría suceder que la propensión al riesgo varié entre el emprendedor con una empresa ya establecido y aquel que acaba de crear su propia empresa. En sus estudios con empresarios los siguientes autores, encuentran que el rasgo propensión al riesgo influye en la toma de decisiones de dichos empresarios, encontrando evidencia empírica a sus argumentos, tales autores son: Schwer y Yucelt (1984), Teoh y Foo (1997) o Korunka et al. (2003), (Brockhaus, 1980; Gupta y Govindarajan, 1984 o Entrialgo Suárez et al., 1999). Aunque Naldi et al. (2007), no encontraron evidencia empírica para comprobar la influencia de la variable propensión al riesgo en su estudio con pequeños empresarios, argumentando que la misma depende del tamaño y estructura de la organización, ya que los empresarios de pequeñas empresas no corren los mismos riesgos que los empresarios de grandes empresas. Por lo tanto se plantea la siguiente hipótesis.

H2. El rasgo de personalidad riesgo, es considerado como una acción que poseen los emprendedores de franquicias.

Necesidad de logro: La necesidad de logro es concebida como ese deseo que tienen ciertas personas para mejorar el resultado de sus acciones y sentirse responsables de las mismas. Se ha relacionado con la probabilidad de convertirse en fundadores y de estar motivados para alcanzar el éxito, (McClelland, 1961). La persona con necesidad de logro tiene reacciones de alegría o tristeza ante los resultados de sus esfuerzos (Veciana, 1989), se inclina hacia tareas retadoras y moderadamente difíciles como incentivo de logro que ofrece un reto, de tal manera que cuando alcance el éxito en su realización se siente satisfecho de haber conseguido un logro personal. Así lo corroboran también los estudios realizados con empresarios los siguientes autores: Robinson et al. (1991), Lee y Tsang, (2001), Ayerbe y Larrea (1995), Gürol y Atsan (2006). Por lo tanto se plantea la siguiente hipótesis:

H3. Los emprendedores de franquicia poseen el rasgo de personalidad necesidad de logro como parte de su comportamiento emprendedor.

Variables De Control Socio Demográficas.

Edad. En diversas ocasiones se aprecia que la edad en las personas influye en gran manera al momento de adquirir un empleo, sin embargo para las franquicias no se limita una edad en la cual se deba adquirir una franquicia y otra edad para dejar esta. El 60% de los emprendedores entre los 18 y 29 años afirman desear su propio negocio y cerca del 80% de los que querrían ser emprendedores están entre los 18 y 34 de edad (Kuratko y Hodgetts, 2004). Se ha argumentado que las personas jóvenes que cuentan con cargas familiares que los hacen responsables además de que poseen el vigor y la energía de su edad, lo que favorece el comportamiento basado en la creación de empresas. Para Veciana (1989), en estudios realizados respecto a la edad, la persona que toma la decisión de convertirse en empresario suele estar entre los 25-40 años. Lo anterior supone que con su edad la persona ha tenido la oportunidad de adquirir cierta experiencia, confianza en sí mismo, así como el conocimiento de los productos y el mercado en el que se mueve, sin que signifique que ha llegado a una posición de prestigio ó responsabilidad en una empresa.

Género: Entre algunos factores que contribuyen al reconocimiento del enfoque del género se destaca la participación generalizada de las mujeres en el mercado de trabajo y en el desarrollo profesional, así como un incremento en la conciencia colectiva (Barberá Heredia, 2004). Han existido estudios referentes a las diferencias que existen para emprender, entre las mujeres y hombres, no hay un acuerdo en común, aunque las investigaciones empíricas parecen indicar que el espíritu emprendedor es mayor en los hombres (Crant, 1996). Esta desigualdad, desgraciadamente, ha generado múltiples formas de opresión hacia las mujeres (Quevedo et al., 2010). El número de mujeres empresarias, como de investigaciones sobre ellas, ha aumentado radicalmente y los negocios pertenecientes a mujeres representan el segmento de mayor crecimiento entre las pequeñas empresas. Sin embargo la vida empresarial de las mujeres todavía es significativamente más baja que la de los hombres (Langowitz y Minniti 2007).

Y aunque el número de mujeres empresarias se ha incrementado drásticamente a lo largo de los años, la vida empresarial es todavía ampliamente dominada por varones (Lerner y Pines 2010). Evidencias empíricas indican que casi el doble de hombres en comparación con mujeres se convierten en empresarios, y que estas diferencias son consistentes en la mayoría de los países (Baron et al., 2001).

Experiencia previ.: La experiencia laboral con la que cuenta la persona ha sido también señalada como un aspecto influyente en la elección de desarrollar la carrera profesional como auto-empleado, así lo afirma Kolvereid (1996). Peterman y Kennedy (2003), encontraron que una relación positiva de la experiencia obtenida por las personas en el deseo y la viabilidad de crear su propia empresa. Por su parte, Benavides

Espinosa y Sánchez García (2004), en su estudio esperaban que la adquisición de conocimientos y la acumulación de experiencia laboral o emprendiendo otras actividades, podía ser a la vez fuente de ideas de negocio o un estímulo para facilitar su puesta en marcha. Leiva Bonilla, (2004), en un estudio exploratorio para detectar la motivación emprendedora, encontró que en un promedio 3 de cada 4 personas tienen experiencias laborales previas, resultando las opciones más comunes la combinación de trabajo y estudio, así como los trabajos temporales no fijos.

Antecedente familiare:. Existen evidencias empíricas de que los empresarios suelen descender en gran medida de familias en la que alguno de sus miembros son empresarios. Es un estudio realizado por Scott y Twomey (1988), encontraron que los encuestados, cuyos padres eran propietarios de pequeñas empresas a las que dedicaban tiempo completo, mostraron las más altas preferencias por el autoempleo y fueron más susceptibles a desarrollar una idea empresarial, reflejando la más baja preferencia por ser empleado en grandes empresas. Crant (1996), encuentra efectivamente que los hijos de empresarios muestran las mayores intenciones empresariales. Rubio López et al. (1999), argumentan en las familias en las que algunos de sus miembros son empresarios, y que cabe esperar que la gente con progenitores involucrados en actividades emprendedoras, tendrán una mayor probabilidad de mostrar tales comportamientos en comparación con aquellos cuyos padres no lo están.

Educación: Para Martín Cruz et al. (2005), la educación en todos sus niveles, desempeña un papel primordial en el desarrollo de la sociedad emprendedora, en donde se ha observado que los empresarios tienen como una de sus principales características un mayor nivel de educación. La educación empresarial, mejora las percepciones que tiene la población hacia la creación de empresas y dicha educación que imparte la universidad puede representar una influencia positiva para la elección de una carrera emprendedora (Rubio López et al., 1999 o Galloway y Brown, 2002).

METODOLOGÍA

El tipo de investigación llevada a cabo fue el exploratorio, asociado con el correlacional bajo la técnica de aplicación de pruebas “T” para muestras relacionadas de hipótesis estadística. Este tipo de pruebas calcula el estadístico *t de Student* para comprobar la significación de muestras relacionadas, como son la variable dependiente e independientes de este estudio. La metodología utilizada fue a través de la aplicación de un cuestionario entre una muestra de 53 franquiciados de un total de 85 existente en el estado de Colima, en México, los cuales valorarán su comportamiento a través de los rasgos de personalidad como son: propensión al riesgo, necesidad de logro y control interno, así como la influencia de las variables de control: edad, género, experiencia en trabajos anteriores, su preparación académica y si tiene familiares empresarios. Se utilizó una escala Likert de uno a diez puntos en el que uno significa estar totalmente en desacuerdo y diez estar totalmente de acuerdo. Para construir y validar las variables psicológicas y de control, se realiza un estudio sobre la fiabilidad que poseen estas cuestiones para valorar la consistencia interna y que proporcione el coeficiente de fiabilidad Alfa de Cronbach. Una vez realizado y aceptado que estas cuestiones son fiables, se procedió a la realización del análisis factorial. Para rotar los factores se utilizó el método de rotación varimax ya que teóricamente las variables de diseño analizadas están relacionadas entre sí. Del análisis factorial realizado, se obtuvieron factores con autovalores mayores que 1, que explicaran el porcentaje de la varianza.

Realizados dichos test, se procedió a la elaboración de un análisis de correlación para contrastar las hipótesis planteadas en este estudio. Dicho procedimiento estadístico permitió cuantificar el grado de relación existente entre dos o más variables. Descripción de la muestra La determinación de la muestra se

llevo a cabo a través de la obtención de datos proporcionados por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, Delegación Colima (INEGI- Colima), siendo un total de 85 tiendas de conveniencia registradas de las cuales se encuestaron 53 que representan el 62% del total de la muestra, cantidad suficiente para justificar el presente estudio, puesto que es una muestra representativa con muchas posibilidades de representar el total de la población. Así mismo, este enfoque es cualitativo y la aplicación de las encuestas es a través de personas, aunque esto no sea necesariamente una representación del universo o población que se estudia (Hernández Sampieri, 2010). Por lo tanto no se realiza procedimiento de muestreo simple en virtud de que la población total es muy pequeña.

Tabla 1: Ficha técnica de estudio

Unidad de análisis.	Propietario de franquicia de tiendas de conveniencia
Ámbito geográfico.	Estado de Colima.
Total de la población.	70 tiendas de conveniencia
Tamaño de la muestra.	53 propietarios/administradores de tiendas de conveniencia
Fecha de realización.	Agosto- Septiembre 2010.

En esta tabla se muestran la descripción detallada del lugar, muestra y la fecha de realización del trabajo de investigación llevado a cabo.

Definida la población y muestra, se procedió posteriormente a elegir las fuentes de información y aquellos instrumentos utilizados para obtenerla. Se consultaron las fuentes primarias diseñando para el fin específico de la investigación una encuesta que fue aplicada directamente a la muestra de franquiciados de tiendas de conveniencia en el Estado de Colima. Para construir el cuestionario, se toman como base trabajos que se relacionan con el tema de las franquicias. Específicamente se mencionan las preguntas que contiene el cuestionario, en los siguientes epígrafes. Operatividad de las variables de estudio.

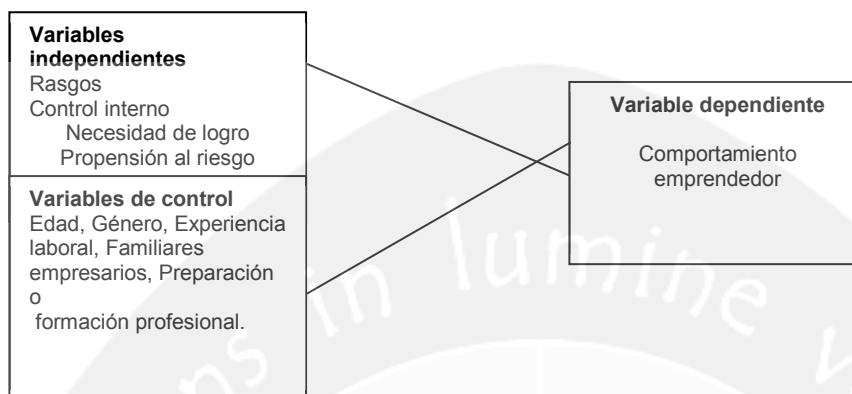
La operatividad de las variables de estudio se llevó a cabo de acuerdo a la elaboración de preguntas que fueron obtenidas de la siguiente forma. Para la variable dependiente comportamiento emprendedor, se tomaron como referencia cuatro dimensiones para elaborar el contenido de las preguntas. Para la variable control interno, se tomaron como base nueve pregunta provenientes del cuestionario aplicado en el estudio desarrollado por Moriano et al. (2006).

La medición de la necesidad de logro en el presente estudio, se ha realizado por medio de la aplicación de nueve preguntas seleccionadas basadas en la escala “Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation” (EAO) de Peterman y Kennedy (2003), después de una adecuada adaptación dadas las características de la población a la que se dirige el estudio, puesto que es aplicada a los franquiciados. En cuanto a la variable propensión al riesgo se tomaron en cuenta diez preguntas del cuestionario que ha elaborado en su estudio Cano et al. (2004). De esto se desprende el siguiente modelo de estudio que se presenta en la figura 1.

RESULTADOS

Se realizó análisis de fiabilidad de la variable dependiente comportamiento emprendedor utilizando el estadístico Alfa de Cronbach, que es una medida para valorar la consistencia interna de las preguntas. La prueba KMO (KAISER MEYER Y OLKIN), que es un índice que refleja si una medida es adecuada. Las comunialidades, que representan la proporción de la varianza con la que contribuye cada variable a la solución final. Y por último, el análisis de varianza, que es utilizado en estudios exploratorios con el fin de explicar el porcentaje total que abarca el estudio. Los resultados se muestran en la siguiente tabla:

Figura 1: Modelo de estudio



En esta figura se muestra el modelo de estudio, donde se muestran la variable dependiente y las independientes, que son la guía para realizar la investigación para conocer la existencia de una correlación, ya sea positiva o negativa.

Tabla 2: Valores obtenidos en las pruebas de fiabilidad

Variables	Alfa de Cronbach	KMO	Comunalidades	Varianza
Dependiente: Comportamiento	0.502	.87	Entre 3.9 y 5.1	54.1 %
Independiente: Riesgo	0.686	.83	Entre 4.5 y 5.8	61.9%
Independiente: Necesidad de logro	0.74	.65%	Entre 3.3. y 4.8	61.1%
Independiente: Control interno	0.729	.67%	Entre 4.1. y 4 9	58.6%

En esta tabla se muestran los resultados obtenidos en las pruebas de fiabilidad, lo cual demuestra que son valores aceptables para realizarse la correlación a través de pruebas "T" para muestras independientes.

Posteriormente se aplicaron pruebas "T" para dos muestras relacionadas con el propósito de verificar la relación existente entre la variable dependiente comportamiento emprendedor y la independiente riesgo (Tabla 2), se encontró una relación positiva significativa del comportamiento emprendedor con el riesgo, con un valor significativo de .098 lo que significa que los empresarios de franquicias muestran una actitud de riesgo al emprender esta actividad, tal y como se muestra en la siguiente tabla. Asimismo se obtuvo un valor de significación positivo de .083 con la variable independiente control interno demostrándose que los empresarios de tiendas de conveniencia tienen bien cimentadas sus acciones y controlan sus actividades sin necesidad de valerse de otros medios. Sin embargo, la variable necesidad de logro, arrojó un resultado no significativo con relación al comportamiento emprendedor de los empresarios de franquicias, al resultar un valor que sobrepasa el .1 Esto quiere decir que los emprendedores no muestran un interés de llegar a tener su propia empresa, sino que están pendientes de que la administración que llevan a cabo sea la correcta, controlando sus acciones y corriendo el riesgo correspondiente.

Tabla 3: Correlaciones de muestras relacionadas con la variable dependiente comportamiento emprendedor y las variables independientes.

Variables independientes	Muestra	Correlación	Significación
Riesgo	53	.230	.098
Control interno	53	.021	.083
Necesidad de logro	53	.078	.577

En esta tabla se muestran los valores de significación obtenidos para cada una de las variables independientes con relación a la dependiente que es el comportamiento emprendedor de los empresarios de franquicias.

CONCLUSIONES

Se han identificado el marco teórico en el que definieron algunos autores lo que es el espíritu emprendedor, sobre todo en empresarios de franquicias. También se ha identificado y realizado un modelo de estudio en el que nos refleja la influencia de las características socio demográficas de personalidad con el comportamiento emprendedor de los empresarios de franquicias, del cual se partió, utilizando el paquete estadístico SPSS versión 17 para realizar los estadísticos descriptivos y las pruebas “T” para muestras relacionadas.

De acuerdo a las hipótesis planteadas, se ha encontrado una relación positiva significativa en dos de ellas, los rasgos riesgo y control interno, no así el rasgo necesidad de logro. Por lo tanto, los resultados obtenidos en este estudio, son congruentes con el objetivo planteado al inicio del mismo, es decir se conoció la influencia de dos rasgos de personalidad en la conducta emprendedora de los emprendedores de franquicia en tiendas de conveniencia. De igual forma se da respuesta a la pregunta de investigación en el sentido de que las variables psicológicas influyen en la conducta del emprendedor para obtener una franquicia de tiendas de conveniencia, y en este caso han resultado que dos variables, control interno y riesgo, influyeron en dicha conducta de los emprendedores de franquicias.

Asimismo, el nivel de estudios que tienen los empresarios encuestados el 57% cuentan con estudios de bachillerato, el 30% de profesional y el 13% con estudios de secundaria, dándonos a entender que en la gran mayoría de este tipo de empresarios solo cuenta con estudios de nivel medio superior. Solo el 30% de este tipo de empresario cuenta con estudios profesionales. Una de las características encontrada y que vale la pena destacar es que el 73% de los encuestados han tenido la experiencia de haber participado como trabajador en una empresa, lo que interpretamos que este tipo de personas decidieron ser empresarios de franquicias por la diferencia que existe de ser trabajador a ser su propio jefe, es decir, administrar una empresa de esta naturaleza. Con relación a la experiencia que han tenido los empresarios de franquicias, si tienen familiares y sus niveles de estudio no existió una correlación, por lo que éstas variables no influyeron en el comportamiento emprendedor de los franquiciados y al ser variables de control resulta irrelevante analizar con profundidad este resultado.

En cuanto a la pregunta de investigación planteada ¿Cuáles son las variables psicológicas y socio demográficas que influyen en la conducta del emprendedor de una franquicia en tiendas de conveniencia?, se encontró que las variables psicológicas control interno y riesgo, son las que influyen en la conducta del emprendedor de una franquicia en tiendas de conveniencia, no así la variable psicológica necesidad de logro, situación que se explica más adelante al abordar la comprobación de las hipótesis planteadas. En cuanto a las variables socio demográficas encontramos que la experiencia laboral es una característica que se destaca por que el 73% de los encuestados tuvieron este antecedente, que de alguna

manera consideramos que existe una influencia de esta variable en la decisión de ser empresario de franquicia. En cuanto a la variable socio demográfica nivel de estudios y familiares empresarios, se considera también que influye en su actitud de tener una empresa de franquicia, pues un elevado número de encuestados tienen familiares empresarios con un nivel de estudios profesionales. Con el resto de las variables socio demográficas (edad y género).

Este estudio ha arrojado datos que pueden ser importantes ya que se han aplicado las técnicas de análisis multivariante necesarias para todo estudio empírico y la metodología adecuada que permitió llevar a cabo el contraste de las hipótesis planteadas así como la definición de los procedimientos necesarios para la obtención de la información. De igual forma el diseño del cuestionario se realizó con el debido cuidado seleccionando las preguntas idóneas y que ya han sido aplicadas por otros autores. Así mismo la medición de las variables se realizó con base en las mediciones que han hecho otros autores en estudios realizados respecto a este tema. Por lo tanto se considera este trabajo reúne todas las características básicas de la investigación. Consideramos tres aportaciones resultantes de este trabajo:

1. La elaboración de un marco teórico específico para la investigar la influencia de tres variables psicológicas que se pueden analizar en la conducta emprendedora de los emprendedores de franquicia.
2. La elaboración de un modelo de estudio que puede servir de base para futuras investigaciones relacionadas con esta disciplina.
3. la comprobación de dos rasgos de personalidad que influyeron en el comportamiento emprendedor de los franquiciados.

Se puede considerar como futuras líneas de investigación:

1. La aplicación de éste modelo en emprendedores de franquicia de otro tipo de giro específico.
2. La inclusión de otras variables psicológicas que se han estudiado en comportamientos de emprendedores que son dueños de su empres y que no han tenido la experiencia de trabajar como franquiciados.
3. La ampliación de la muestra a otro tipo de colectivos estratificando por giros.

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INSTRUMENTOS DE GESTIÓN PARTICIPATIVA EN LA ADMINISTRACIÓN PÚBLICA: PROPUESTA DE UN SISTEMA DE INDICADORES PARA LA PLANEACIÓN ESTATAL EN BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

Los mecanismos de control en la gestión pública generan información que permite evaluar el nivel de eficacia y eficiencia en la toma de decisiones y los alcances de las mismas. El establecimiento de estas políticas tiene como objetivo regular el cumplimiento de las decisiones y los acuerdos tomados, estableciendo mecanismos de control y seguimiento de los mismos. En el proceso de modernización de la administración pública la implementación de indicadores es un mecanismo cada vez más utilizado para el seguimiento y evaluación de políticas, cuyo objetivo fundamental es estimular y facilitar procesos de gestión participativa junto a las comunidades en un sistema donde la rendición de cuentas y la transparencia son un requisito. Esta investigación presenta una propuesta de indicadores para medir el desempeño del sistema de planeación estatal participativa en el estado de Baja California, México, conducido por el Comité para la Planeación del Desarrollo (COPLADE) en la entidad, considerando aspectos de: impacto, gestión, operación y satisfacción. La propuesta se construyó a partir de los resultados obtenidos de dos grupos de discusión y una encuesta aplicada a los asistentes al organismo, con el propósito de conocer su percepción sobre el funcionamiento del COPLADE y la mejor forma de evaluar su desempeño.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Indicadores de Desempeño, Gestión Pública, Planeación Estatal

CLASIFICACIÓN JEL: Z18, M48

INTRODUCCIÓN

En el ámbito empresarial durante las últimas décadas ha tenido preponderancia la búsqueda de modelos de gestión para evaluar el desempeño de las organizaciones. Se ha observado el tránsito de la implementación de modelos rígidos a la adopción de sistemas flexibles en los que “la medida de proximidad a los resultados esperados y la adición del potencial humano a la ventaja competitiva de la organización son los ejes que orientan el proceso conocido como la «gestión»” (Del Castillo y Vargas, 2009, p.58).

En la administración pública no se ha seguido la misma trayectoria, ya que la característica predominante en esos modelos es el dominio de la estructura como eje de la gestión. En esta, “la alta estructuración de la gestión implica un fuerte grado de control en los procesos, los procedimientos y el empleo de recursos, los cuales, al ser públicos, justifican la supremacía de modelos rígidos de gestión”, según señalan Del Castillo y Vargas (2009, pp. 58-59). Esto ha implicado que la medida de la eficiencia en la gestión pública ha sido tradicionalmente vinculada al ejercicio de presupuestos y la contabilidad de acciones desarrolladas a partir de los mismos. De esta manera, el reto que enfrentan los gobiernos es transitar de

modelos de gestión gubernamental desde una lógica funcional rígida hacia una lógica de procesos, “basada en el control de la estrategia y la evaluación de los resultados por medio de indicadores” (Del Castillo y Vargas, 2009, p.60).

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

En el proceso de modernización de la administración pública se han incorporado los indicadores de gestión al retomar la experiencia de la iniciativa privada, con la finalidad de evaluar la contribución a la satisfacción de las necesidades colectivas de los programas de gobierno y el grado de cumplimiento de sus objetivos. Estos mecanismos de control de la gestión pública tienen como propósito obtener información que permita evaluar el nivel de eficacia de la toma de decisiones y su implementación en planes y programas. Por lo tanto, estas políticas tienen como objetivo regular y controlar el cumplimiento de los acuerdos tomados en los comités y comisiones, estableciendo sistemas de control y seguimiento de los mismos (Delhumeau, 2011).

En un sistema tradicionalmente organizado a partir de la estructura, la evaluación del desempeño permite ver con más claridad la asignación de responsabilidades para el cumplimiento de las metas organizacionales. En este sentido, Guinart (2004) señala que en sistema democrático se puede pensar en la responsabilidad pública como parte de un contrato originario entre los ciudadanos y su gobierno. Por ende:

(...) los ciudadanos conceden a su gobierno un alto control sobre sus vidas, permitiendo que el gobierno se lleve parte de sus ingresos (a partir de impuestos) y que limite su libertad (a través de la ejecución de leyes y las regulaciones). (...) Pero los ciudadanos esperan, a vez, que los gobiernos sean responsables por el modo como ejercen su poder. (...) Por lo tanto, supervisar e informar sobre el desempeño de las actuaciones públicas es una de las formas en las que los gobiernos se presentan responsables ante sus ciudadanos (p. 316).

La evaluación a base de indicadores constituye un mecanismo utilizado cada vez más por administraciones públicas, donde la transparencia y la rendición de cuentas son necesarias. Este tipo de evaluación se puede definir como “un conjunto de parámetros especialmente diseñados para obtener información específica, evaluar cuantitativamente los avances o retrocesos hacia las metas, y con ello darle seguimiento a las actividades o planes” (Chávez Alzaga, 2007, p.3). Entonces, el objetivo fundamental de esta herramienta ha sido estimular y facilitar procesos de gestión participativa entre las comunidades y los gobiernos locales para lograr una efectiva participación de la sociedad civil en la toma de decisiones y en la solución de los problemas de las localidades.

A través de la medición de indicadores, los actores locales pueden asumir la visión estratégica de su localidad, “como un propósito definido y compartido, con el cual comprometerse para que, mediante acciones concretas, ofrezcan soluciones para los problemas identificados durante el ejercicio de planificación participativa. La concreción de resultados se hace frente a una motivación sostenida mediante la cual el proceso gana credibilidad y podrá ir sumando cada vez a más ciudadanos interesados en contribuir en el proceso de desarrollo” (Quintana, s.f., s.p.). Además, metodologías como esta fomentan la vida democrática, ya que la planificación participativa es un método que privilegia el diálogo y el consenso en la toma de decisiones, lo cual incide en el clima de confianza necesario entre los actores.

El sistema de planeación democrática en Baja California

De acuerdo a la Ley de Planeación en México de 1983, esta debe ser democrática y participativa, y el organismo creado para conducirla en cada estado son los Comités para la Planeación del Desarrollo (COPLADE). Según afirma Gómez (1983), “[l]os COPLADE son organismos públicos, dotados de personalidad jurídica y patrimonios propios, que tienen como propósito compatibilizar, a nivel local, los esfuerzos de los gobiernos federal, estatales y municipales, en materia de planeación durante las distintas etapas del proceso, propiciando la participación de los diversos sectores de la comunidad” (p.72).

En Baja California, el COPLADE es un organismo paraestatal del Gobierno del Estado y se constituye como el único conducto de propuesta en el ámbito estatal para la coordinación que establece el Ejecutivo del Estado con el Ejecutivo Federal y los Ayuntamientos, de acuerdo a Ley de Planeación del Estado de Baja California de 2001. El decreto de creación del COPLADE se publicó en el *Diario Oficial* el 23 de julio de 1999, definiéndose las actividades a través de las cuales se realiza la planeación del desarrollo en Baja California.

La Ley de Planeación de la entidad, promulgado en 2008, establece el mecanismo para la elaboración del Plan Estatal de Desarrollo con participación ciudadana a través de los foros de consulta pública, los cuales serán organizados por COPLADE. Para sistematizar la consulta permanente en el proceso de planeación del desarrollo, el COPLADE en Baja California cuenta con 21 subcomités que trabajan aspectos prioritarios de la entidad, los cuales están integrados por representantes de los sectores social, económico y gubernamental.

METODOLOGÍA

El propósito de este estudio consistió en proponer una batería de indicadores para medir de manera participativa el desempeño del COPLADE. Con esta finalidad se planteó una metodología mixta a partir de: 1) un análisis del comportamiento del organismo de 2002 a la fecha; 2) la aplicación de una encuesta a participantes en los subcomités para conocer su percepción sobre su organización y funcionamiento; 3) dos grupos de discusión sobre el desempeño del organismo con asistentes al mismo; y 4) el análisis de los indicadores de desempeño que utilizan actualmente.

RESULTADOS

Los resultados obtenidos en el estudio a partir de los métodos de consulta empleados muestran la necesidad de un control y seguimiento más estricto del trabajo que se desarrolla en el COPLADE. La percepción de los ciudadanos sobre el trabajo que realiza el organismo indica que: aún cuando hay un aparato gubernamental que funciona para hacer planeación participativa, no hay un conocimiento claro de las funciones del organismo ni del papel de los participantes en el mismo; y existe un desconocimiento sobre la visión gubernamental del desarrollo estatal y de la relación de ésta con la vida cotidiana de los ciudadanos, el cual propicia una desvinculación en los esfuerzos entre sociedad y gobierno. Por otra parte, se hizo evidente la necesidad de mejorar los canales de comunicación hacia dentro y fuera de la dependencia, de transparentar sus funciones y manejo presupuestal, y de generar un plan de trabajo con medios de verificación y evaluación para garantizar que sea llevado a cabo.

En el análisis del sistema de medición de indicadores de desempeño que tiene actualmente el gobierno del estado de Baja California se identificaron diez indicadores para evaluar los avances de las metas del COPLADE en relación al cumplimiento de las líneas de acción del Plan Estatal de Desarrollo actual y el

ejercicio presupuestal. Estos evalúan las acciones que desempeña la Dirección General, el Departamento de Planeación Sectorial y el del Sistema Estatal de Indicadores. Delhumeau (2011) señala que:

Los indicadores asignados al Comité miden la calidad de la representatividad de los sectores gubernamental, privada y social en las reuniones de los Subcomités, así como el porcentaje de participación de los sectores. Asimismo, miden el número de Subcomités que cuentan con proyectos de coordinación y evalúan sus avances, así como los avances en los Programas Operativos Anuales (POAS) de los mismos (p. 75).

Se encontró que “[a] la fecha, los dos indicadores que corresponden a conocer el porcentaje de instituciones del gobierno estatal y el porcentaje de Subcomités con POAS que dan atención a las prioridades de la política de población aún no son aplicados” (Delhumeau, 2011, p. 75). No obstante, las autoridades estatales tienen planeado evaluarlos en un futuro cercano.

A partir del análisis de la información se construyó una propuesta para complementar los indicadores con que cuenta actualmente la dependencia gubernamental, incorporando algunas propuestas que realizaron los participantes por medio de la encuesta y los grupos de discusión. Dentro del modelo de indicadores para medir la gestión para resultados de gobierno del estado, se consideran los indicadores de: impacto, gestión, operación y satisfacción.

Propuesta de indicadores de medición participativa

La propuesta de indicadores de medición del desempeño para COPLADE constituye un medio para la evaluación sistemática del organismo para realizarse dentro de los subcomités, con la participación de todos los sectores representados. A través de estos se propone medir: 1) la eficiencia del proceso y del trabajo conjunto entre ciudadanos y gobierno; 2) los productos resultantes del trabajo de los subcomités; y 3) el impacto en las áreas y sectores a corto y largo plazo.

Se recomienda realizar la medición a través de las siguientes unidades de medida: 1) la recepción y selección de propuestas de proyectos a desarrollar; 2) la realización de estudios y diagnósticos para determinar su factibilidad y pertinencia; 3) el desarrollo de mecanismos de coordinación intersectorial; 4) la información que generan sobre los proyectos y su influencia; 5) los beneficios en las condiciones de vida de la población objetivo; 6) el mejoramiento en infraestructura resultado de las propuestas recibidas que fueron llevadas a cabo; y 7) la variabilidad de las relaciones e intercambio de ideas entre sectores.

CONCLUSIONES

En conclusión, se puede afirmar que los mecanismos de control en la gestión pública producen información que permite evaluar el nivel de eficacia y eficiencia en la toma de decisiones y los alcances de las mismas. En la actualidad, distintas dependencias gubernamentales en México buscan flexibilizar sus procesos de gestión incorporando mecanismos para la evaluación del desempeño que permitan que las metas sean alcanzadas bajo los criterios de eficiencia y eficacia de la gerencia moderna y que, además, incorporen la participación ciudadana. En Baja California, el COPLADE tiene el mandato por ley de incorporar la participación ciudadana en el proceso de la planeación y en el funcionamiento general del organismo. Sin embargo, en la práctica la estructura y sus inercias hacia el sistema organizacional rígido tradicional de la administración pública en México ha ido debilitando su función y desalentando la participación. A través de la propuesta de indicadores que se presenta en este trabajo, se busca generar un mecanismo de evaluación y control que incluya la participación ciudadana en los subcomités en el

proceso, de tal manera que este ejercicio permita una autorreflexión que lleve a la propuesta de formas de participación y evaluación más eficientes y flexibles.

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RECONOCIMIENTOS

Las autoras agradecen el apoyo financiero del Comité para la Planeación del Desarrollo del estado de Baja California para realizar esta investigación, a partir del proyecto “Estudio de percepción ciudadana de los mecanismos de participación para la planeación en el estado de Baja California”, realizado entre 2009 y 2011. El propósito del estudio fue elaborar la propuesta de indicadores que se presentan en esta publicación. Asimismo, agradecen los comentarios de árbitros y editores del IBFR que contribuyeron a mejorar la calidad de esta investigación.

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INDICADORES DE DESEMPEÑO Y PERCEPCIÓN CIUDADANA. REFLEXIONES SOBRE EL CASO DE SEGURIDAD PÚBLICA EN ENSENADA, BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

La adaptación al cambio es una de las cualidades más valiosas que la iniciativa privada ha desarrollado para subsistir, sin embargo no le es privativa, ya que la administración pública también se ha visto impactada por esta necesidad. Es por ello que los gobiernos han realizado un benchmarking con la iniciativa privada, adoptando tendencias que han revolucionado a la administración pública tradicional y dando lugar a lo que se conoce como la Nueva Gestión Pública. Los indicadores de desempeño, como medidas de control, constituye una herramienta que utiliza el gobierno para determinar si cumple con los estándares establecidos en sus planes y programas. Este trabajo revisa el caso del organismo municipal de seguridad pública en Ensenada, Baja California para el periodo que comprende 2007 a 2010 y analiza la pertinencia del sistema de indicadores de desempeño de la dependencia partiendo de la comparación de sus resultados con la opinión de los usuarios sobre el mismo.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Gestión Pública, Indicadores de Desempeño, Percepción del Usuario

JEL: M48, R50, Z18

INTRODUCCIÓN

A raíz de los procesos globalizantes actuales, por medio de los cuales las reglas del neoliberalismo influyen en los diversos ámbitos de índole social, económica, cultural y política, se ha visto afectada la iniciativa privada, así como la administración pública, con la necesidad de encontrar y adoptar nuevas herramientas y técnicas administrativas. Estas han venido a revolucionar lo que hasta últimamente se conocía como la administración pública tradicional, convirtiéndose ahora en lo que se llama la Nueva Gestión Pública (NGP).

Si bien es cierto que el sector público mostró indicios de evaluar el desempeño, no fue hasta que la Asociación de Municipios de México, Asociación Civil (AMMAC) integrara un conjunto de municipios en 2001 que fueron utilizados, con mayor esfuerzo y empeño, sistemas de evaluación de desempeño. El Ayuntamiento de Ensenada, ubicado en el estado de Baja California, creó un sistema de indicadores similar, conocido como el Sistema de Indicadores de Desempeño y Desarrollo Municipal (SIDEMUN). Con el SIDEMUN el gobierno local evalúa el desempeño de las Secretarías que lo integran vinculando los resultados que alcanzan con las metas del Plan Municipal de Desarrollo. En este trabajo se analiza la efectividad del SINDEMUN como un medio de evaluación del desempeño de la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública del municipio de Ensenada para el periodo de 2007 a 2010, siendo una de las dependencias que ha generado información con mayor regularidad desde la implantación del sistema, además, constituye un tema preocupante para la población de la región.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

La administración pública tiene como objetivos asegurar la estabilidad, expansión y desarrollo de los organismos gubernamentales, teniendo como enfoque principal las acciones del gobierno federal, estatal y municipal (Sánchez, 2001). Por ende, han utilizado varios modelos de seguimiento y control en busca de hacer eficiente sus actividades y procesos como respuesta a la demanda de los ciudadanos, de obtener más y mejores servicios, así como eficacia y transparencia en el uso de los recursos públicos, aunque sin haber logrado cambios sustanciales en la percepción ciudadana respecto a su rol como administrador, según Ballart (2001).

La Nueva Gestión Pública (NGP) nace a raíz del descontento por parte de la ciudadanía en los servicios ofrecidos por el gobierno y los crecientes costos internos, los cuales dieron lugar a la búsqueda de estrategias que permitieron implementar soluciones, para lo cual las autoridades gubernamentales adoptaron las técnicas de *benchmarking* como una herramienta de mejora al imitar al sector privado (Araya & Cerpa, 2009). Según López (2003), la NGP constituyó un conjunto de iniciativas de reforma de la gestión pública, así como los procesos y estructuras de la organización, con la finalidad de mejorar las funciones gubernamentales.

Los planteamientos que aporta la Nueva Gestión Pública a la gestión gubernamental, sumado al desarrollo de las nuevas tecnologías de la información y comunicación, así como el gobierno digital, entre otros, hacen posible la gestión para resultados (GPR). De acuerdo al Centro Latinoamericano de Administración para el Desarrollo (CLAD, 2007), “[l]a gestión para resultados es un marco conceptual cuya función es la de facilitar a las organizaciones públicas la dirección efectiva e integrada de su proceso de creación de valor público, a fin de optimizarlo asegurando la máxima eficacia, eficiencia y efectividad de su desempeño, la consecución de los objetivos de gobierno y la mejora continua de sus instituciones”(s.p.). La GPR responsabiliza a las organizaciones y las autoridades gubernamentales con la entrega de resultados a la ciudadanía con la cual trabajan, de tal manera que la implementación de esta técnica, a través de sistemas nacionales, obtenga un mejoramiento disponible de los resultados en el desarrollo del país.

Actualmente, la mayoría de los gobiernos operan con la certeza de que, para medir el desempeño, se requiere evaluarlo a través de indicadores (Bonnefoy & Armijo, 2005). Estos indicadores deben ayudar a los directivos a determinar el grado de eficiencia y efectividad en el logro de los objetivos organizacionales y, por ende, el cumplimiento de la misión organizacional. Por lo mismo, se requiere saber en qué medida un sistema integral de medición del desempeño hace posible el seguimiento simultáneo y consistente en todos los niveles operativos de la organización, desde el logro de los objetivos estratégicos hasta el desempeño individual de cada ejecutivo y empleado (Sanín, 1999).

Tal como afirma el Foro Permanente de Direcciones de Presupuesto y Finanzas de la República Argentina (2005), “[l]os indicadores de desempeño, son una medida estadística que permite describir y evaluar fenómenos” o permite “resumir la información relevante de un fenómeno particular”. Además, “es una medida específica, objetivamente verificable, de los cambios o resultados de una actividad” (p. 8). Mediante el uso de los indicadores para evaluar el desempeño en la administración privada se ha descubierto que estos no sólo deben ser un mecanismo de revisión de desempeño, sino que su verdadera utilidad debe ser contribuir a mejorar el futuro a través de la toma de decisiones acertadas y oportunas. No tiene ningún sentido evaluar al empleado, señalar sus deficiencias y proporcionarle retroalimentación, si

ésta no funciona para proyectarlo hacia el futuro y mejorar su desempeño para alinearse con los objetivos de la compañía (Sanín, 1999).

La incorporación de puntos de mejora que se establezcan en el tiempo para revisar el progreso de los empleados a través de metas específicas, será evidente hasta la próxima evaluación para determinar el progreso. La administración del desempeño provee un marco práctico para establecer metas, objetivos, así como bases para tomar decisiones relacionadas con estrategias operacionales de la organización. Sin embargo, es importante señalar que el sistema de indicadores no es un sistema perfecto, pero sí una herramienta útil para mejorar el desempeño de la institución (Stubbs, 2004).

La Secretaría de Seguridad Pública Municipal en Ensenada y la medición del desempeño de la gestión municipal

En 2004, al inicio del periodo gubernamental del XVIII Ayuntamiento de Ensenada en el año 2004, se creó el Sistema de la Programación (SPOA), en el cual se logró vincular el presupuesto municipal con las acciones del Plan Municipal de Desarrollo y las dependencias municipales a cargo de las mismas. A partir de la organización de la información lograda con el SPOA y a partir de los criterios de AMMAC para el Sistema de Indicadores (SINDES), se construyó el Sistema de Desarrollo Municipal (SIDEMUN).

El tema de Seguridad Pública es el tema más escuchado en los últimos tiempos, resultando ser un tópico de mucha controversia entre sus participantes, y en el gobierno local no es la excepción. Por esta razón, la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública Municipal (SSPM) se considera un pilar para el bienestar del municipio de Ensenada. El caso de la SSPM resulta relevante para este estudio no sólo por la coyuntura que se vive, sino que, adicionalmente, presenta indicadores objetivos que han sido medidos con mayor consistencia a partir de 2007 que otras dependencias municipales. Es por esto que para este análisis exploratorio se decidió tomar este caso.

En el manual de procedimientos del Sistema de Indicadores (SINDES) de 2008, se presentaron los nuevos indicadores que se tomaron como base para la medición del desempeño de los ayuntamientos inscritos en dicho programa. Estos son cuatro grupos de indicadores, los cuales se han utilizado desde 2008 en el área de Seguridad Pública a través del SIDEMUN y son: 1) Quejas que sí procedieron para la SSPM; 2) Incidencia delictiva para la SSPM; 3) Bajas definitivas para la SSPM; y 4) Inversión en Programas de Prevención por cada mil habitantes de la SSPM (AMMAC & ICMA, 2008).

METODOLOGÍA

El tipo de investigación realizada fue cuantitativa y exploratoria. Para realizarla, en un primer momento se condujo una búsqueda de información primaria, analizando los indicadores del SIDEMUN para la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública en Ensenada. Como segunda fase se realizó una encuesta a 166 personas mayores de 18 años en seleccionadas a partir de un método de muestreo no probabilístico por criterio. Por ser Ensenada un puerto turístico, otro de los criterios para ser encuestado consistió en que el participante debía ser habitante del centro de población.

RESULTADOS

En el análisis se buscó hacer un contraste de los resultados que los indicadores municipales muestran con respecto a los cuatro rubros anteriormente mencionados, con respecto a la percepción ciudadana obtenida

en las encuestas aplicadas. Se presentan a continuación organizadas a partir de los cuatro grupos de indicadores que propone el SINDES.

Respecto al indicador *Quejas que sí procedieron*, para la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública Municipal (SSPM) en 2006 procedieron 15.33% de quejas del total; el año siguiente, el total de quejas que acogió el Ayuntamiento pertenecían a esta Secretaría. Sin embargo, para el 2008 el número de quejas disminuyó a 77.4% lo que demuestra un comportamiento nada constante con respecto a la seguridad. Por su parte, la encuesta de percepción ciudadana en 2010 arrojó que casi 60% de los encuestados no sienten confianza en la Secretaría ni en el trato que brinda a los ensenadenses.

En cuanto al indicador *Incidencia Delictiva para la SSPM*, en el 2007 se presentaron 15,583 denuncias de delitos en Ensenada y para el año 2008 esta cifra se redujo en 1.8%, ya que se registraron 15,305 denuncias. En 2009 se mantuvo la tendencia a la baja en la incidencia ya que hubo 14,942 (2.4 menos que en 2008) denuncias ante el Ministerio Público. Para el año 2010, en total se presentaron 14,963 (tan solo 21 delitos más que en 2009). Con esas cifras, en ese mismo año, Ensenada fue el segundo municipio del estado con menor proporción de delitos respecto al tamaño de su población al registrar 3,209 denuncias por cada 100 mil habitantes, por debajo del resultado estatal que reflejó 3,425 para ese mismo periodo, solo superado por Playas de Rosarito con una tasa de 3,155. No obstante, los resultados de la encuesta revelan que 7 de cada 10 personas están total o parcialmente de acuerdo en que la inseguridad pública en Ensenada aumentó en 2010.

Para el indicador *Bajas Definitivas para la SSPM*, en el año 2006 se presentaron 8 bajas definitivas de elementos, para 2007 se registraron 5 bajas y en 2008 sólo hubo 2 muy por debajo del promedio de AMMAC, el cual es de 27.62. Estos resultados contrastan con la respuesta que dio la gente encuestada la cual opina 5 de cada 10 no perciben que los cuerpos policiacos se caractericen los valores como el servicio, respeto y honestidad.

Finalmente, en el indicador de *Inversión en Programas de Prevención* por cada mil habitantes de la SSPM, del año 2006 a 2010 se ha ido reduciendo el gasto para los programas de prevención, de \$3,976.27 para 2006 a \$138.69 para 2008. Por su parte los resultados de la encuesta indicaron que sólo 4 de cada 10 de las personas encuestadas (38.5%) conocían los programas preventivos que implementa la SSPM de Ensenada.

CONCLUSIONES

Los controles administrativos, como una herramienta de mejora continua, en la iniciativa privada son instrumentos que se utilizan cotidianamente desde hace más de una década. Sin embargo, en la administración pública su implementación ha representado toda una revolución, mediante la cual pueden evaluarse los resultados de la administración pública. En este trabajo se analizaron los indicadores de desempeño que son utilizados por la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública Municipal del Ayuntamiento de Ensenada como un sistema de monitoreo de las acciones de la dependencia.

Dentro de los principales hallazgos se encontró que, si bien para la Secretaría de Seguridad Pública Municipal (SSPM) los indicadores de desempeño son herramientas idóneas que permiten evaluar sus resultados en la ejecución y cumplimiento de sus tareas institucionales, para que estos sean útiles y arrojen resultados que aporten información para la toma de decisiones se requiere se realicen de manera estricta y objetiva, de lo contrario puede provocar fácilmente la manipulación de los indicadores para que

arrojen resultados predecibles. Por ejemplo, la falta de periodicidad y continuidad en los indicadores aplicados por la Secretaría trae como consecuencia lógica que la confiabilidad y por lo tanto la validez sean cuestionables.

La aportación brindada por el presente trabajo deja en claro la necesidad de encontrar formas para obtener mayor información estadística hacia el interior de las Instituciones de seguridad pública, además de generar mecanismos de validación a través de la ciudadanía con la finalidad de tener procesos de calidad y transparencia.

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RECONOCIMIENTO

Se hace un agradecimiento al Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología por el apoyo brindado para la formación de Isabel Adriana Escobedo Fuentes como Maestra en Administración.

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RELACIONES INTERGUBERNAMENTALES TRANSFRONTERIZAS. UN INSTRUMENTO DE ANÁLISIS PARA LAS INTERACCIONES ENTRE CALIFORNIA Y BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

Las fronteras entre países construyen en sus dinámicas cotidianas problemáticas compartidas que en la práctica demandan mecanismos de gestión rápidos y eficientes para solucionarlas, pero que en lo legal enfrentan limitaciones para la toma de decisiones y la coordinación en los asuntos fronterizos. Estas regiones artificiales, creadas por las dinámicas mismas de la vida binacional, son espacios privilegiados para observar los intercambios y reorganización de las relaciones institucionales entre las distintas agencias gubernamentales que en ellas actúan. En México, estas relaciones han sufrido transformaciones a lo largo del tiempo y en los últimos veinte años han sido afectadas por los procesos de descentralización, fortalecimiento municipal y liberalización económica que han cambiado las atribuciones y responsabilidades públicas de estos actores, con efectos en la organización de sus prácticas y sus relaciones con la sociedad. El enfoque de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales ofrece un marco para el análisis de las relaciones transfronterizas que tienen lugar entre California y Baja California. En este trabajo se analiza la propuesta de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales en el marco de la Teoría de la Organización y se revisan las posibilidades y alcances de este modelo en el estudio de las relaciones transfronterizas.

JEL: Z18

PALABRAS CLAVE: Relaciones Intergubernamentales, Teoría de la Organización, Relaciones transfronterizas.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las interacciones cotidianas en las fronteras de los países presentan a los gobiernos una problemática compartida, y en la práctica demandan mecanismos de gestión rápidos y eficientes para solucionarlas, mientras que sus acciones se ven restringidas por aspectos legales que limitan su desempeño. Es por esto que estas regiones construidas por las dinámicas mismas de la vida binacional, son espacios privilegiados para observar los intercambios y reorganización de las relaciones institucionales entre las distintas agencias gubernamentales que en ellas actúan: municipales, estatales y federales, así como entre estas y sus contrapartes en el país vecino.

En México, estas relaciones han sufrido transformaciones a lo largo del tiempo y en los últimos veinte años han sido afectadas por los procesos de descentralización, fortalecimiento municipal y liberalización económica que han cambiado las atribuciones y responsabilidades públicas de estos actores, con efectos en la organización de sus prácticas y sus relaciones con la sociedad.

El objetivo de este ensayo es explorar el enfoque de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales (RIG) como un instrumento de análisis para las relaciones transfronterizas que tienen lugar entre California y Baja

California. Con esta finalidad, el texto se ha dividido en tres apartados: en el primero se desarrolla una comparación de los sistemas federales de gobierno en México y en los Estados Unidos, al constituir estos el marco normativo de referencia en el que se desarrollan las RIG; en el segundo se presenta y analiza la propuesta de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales en el marco de la teoría de la organización y se revisan en ese marco las posibilidades y alcances de este modelo en estudio de las relaciones transfronterizas. Por último, se hacen algunos comentarios finales.

REVISIÓN TEÓRICA

En la frontera entre California y Baja California interactúan los tres ámbitos gubernamentales de ambos países (el local, el estatal y el federal) para la gestión de asuntos transfronterizos, creando en sus interacciones un espacio binacional a partir del cual se construye una agenda con los problemas binacionales que comparten. Cada país tiene mecanismos de política y gestión para tratar con los asuntos fronterizos de acuerdo a la organización de su sistema político federal.

Federalismo y descentralización en la frontera México-Estados Unidos.

En los sistemas federales los gobiernos tienen intensas interacciones entre unidades de gobierno de distintos niveles, creando en ocasiones fricciones por las restricciones que el mismo sistema ofrece en términos de autonomía y atribuciones para la toma de decisiones. La normatividad de cada país determina con qué instituciones se vincula cada nivel y sus atribuciones en dichas interacciones.

En las ciudades fronterizas en México, se comparten recursos, cultura, economía y medios ambiente, se construyen regiones en sus similitudes y dinámicas, que se enfrentan a la limitación de no compartir un mismo sistema político y administrativo. La mayoría de los problemas políticos transfronterizos son resueltos formalmente en el ámbito federal debido a que pueden implicar cuestiones de soberanía y de seguridad nacional, pero los problemas locales a menudo se resuelven por medios informales en esta esfera. Sin embargo, la capacidad gubernamental, política y económica, de los gobiernos locales a cada lado de la frontera es distinta, aún cuando muchos de los problemas que enfrentan son los mismos. “Los sistemas federalistas en ambos países han impedido que los gobiernos locales gestionen exitosamente los desafíos que se encuentran en las comunidades fronterizas” (Collins, 2006, p.10).

En el federalismo estadounidense los poderes de los gobiernos locales y su autoridad para abordar ciertos asuntos están definidos por las constituciones estatales, que desde la década de 1980 promueven la descentralización y transferencia de autoridad. Sin embargo, la federación y el gobierno estatal siguen teniendo control en decisiones mayores de políticas en áreas que se cree que son para el bien de la nación.

Otro obstáculo que enfrentan los gobiernos locales en Estados Unidos es la escasez de recursos para financiar su gestión. Durante la década de 1990 se pone el énfasis en la competencia por recursos federales entre los estados y localidades, limitando “el proceso de toma de decisiones de arriba hacia abajo con respecto a quien obtiene financiamiento, en el cual el gobierno federal tiene mayor voz, estableció un sistema de competencia entre gobiernos locales” (Collins, 2006, p.26).

Por su parte en México, la Constitución y las legislaturas estatales establecen los derechos básicos y autoridad municipal, respectivamente. A partir de las reformas al Artículo 115 constitucional que tuvieron lugar en los años ochenta, se inicia el proceso de descentralización otorgando más atribuciones y recursos financieros a los municipios. A pesar de estos cambios, el poder municipal aún es limitado en cuanto a

toma de decisiones y campos de acción en áreas estratégicas, como el desarrollo económico y la seguridad pública. Asimismo, carecen de atribuciones para establecer por si mismos convenios o tratados con sus contrapartes en Estados Unidos para gestionar problemas comunes.

En cuanto a capacidades financieras, al igual que en Estados Unidos, el gobierno federal mexicano concentra la mayor parte de los recursos al tener la atribución de recaudar mayores impuestos, mientras que la capacidad de los gobiernos estatales y municipales es limitada.

Tanto el sistema federal mexicano como el estadounidense promueven la división de poderes. En el caso mexicano, dos factores han contribuido a la centralización del sistema: la consolidación del presidencialismo, por un lado, y la creación de los partidos políticos nacionales.

Las asimetrías que se encuentran en la región fronteriza estadounidense y mexicana hacen preguntarnos sobre las posibilidades de adoptar medidas conjuntas para solucionar las problemáticas compartidas por sus habitantes en distintas materias, como el medio ambiente, la economía y la movilidad poblacional. Collins (2006) concluye que el federalismo ha limitado la capacidad de las administraciones locales tanto en México como en Estados Unidos, mostrando que “aun cuando los sistemas federalistas son diferentes en ambos países, el impacto en las administraciones locales ha sido similar” (p. 29).

De esta manera, un importante aspecto a resolver en México para la promoción de una política transfronteriza de manejo de problemas más eficiente es la descentralización de estas facultades a los municipios y de la autonomía en la toma de decisiones.

La perspectiva de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales.

Las administraciones públicas han sufrido transformaciones en las últimas décadas como parte del proceso de la aplicación de principios de la Nueva Gestión Pública al desarrollo de sus funciones. Se ha señalado que para observar los procesos de cambio al interior de los gobiernos se requiere modificar los supuestos tradicionales sobre la conceptualización del gobierno y entenderlo como un conjunto de estructuras organizacionales, diferenciadas y complejas, con una lógica que obedece a las necesidades y al marco legal que les dieron origen. Esto implica el entendimiento del gobierno como un conjunto de *organizaciones duales*, que se deben a una doble lógica: “nacen predeterminadas, en sus fines y en los mecanismos generales de acción y obtención de resultados. A la vez, continúan siendo organizaciones por sí mismas, con su vida interna, su cultura y su contexto” (Arellano y Cabrero, 2000, p.12).

El estudio de las relaciones intergubernamentales (RIG) es considerado una aportación reciente de la ciencia política, cuyos antecedentes surgen en Estados Unidos en los años treinta; es considerada una teoría de alcance medio y aplicaciones concretas para comprender las prácticas gubernamentales y proponer una manera más eficiente de prestar los servicios públicos. Estas se refieren al conjunto de actividades e interacciones que tienen lugar entre unidades de gobierno de todo tipo y nivel territorial de actuación. Por su novedad, no es un enfoque que se utiliza comunmente en México.

Cuando se habla de las RIG en los sistemas federales, se toma como punto de partida al gobierno central y, a partir de este, se habla de las interacciones entre agencias de un mismo nivel -relaciones horizontales, o de niveles distintos -relaciones verticales. Sin embargo, en la práctica pueden aparecer instancias intermedias de relación (como representaciones regionales para determinados asuntos, como la Comisión para asuntos de la Frontera Norte del gobierno federal creada el sexenio pasado).

Mediante las RIG se busca comprender los nuevos problemas que han traído consigo la democratización, el federalismo y la descentralización. A partir de este enfoque es posible examinar las actitudes, la interacción, la negociación, la cooperación, la coordinación y el conflicto intergubernamental. También pretende explicar el funcionamiento del sistema de relaciones de gobierno aplicado a la solución de problemas específicos (políticas y programas) y detectar obstáculos institucionales, políticos o administrativos que limitan el desarrollo de la coordinación y la cooperación y determinan en última instancia el fracaso o ineficacia de las actuaciones públicas.

Esta perspectiva estudia al gobierno como una estructura compleja, dinámica e interdependiente. Los estudios sobre las RIG se enfocan a aspectos específicos, cotidianos de las administraciones públicas, en los agentes que representan a las unidades y órganos de gobierno, así como en los intercambios reales entre ellos y los resultados de los procesos de negociación. Sus principales aplicaciones han sido en análisis sobre el sistema político nacional y problemas públicos regionales.

A partir de estos trabajos se han observado nuevas pautas en las prácticas de gestión gubernamental, relacionadas con las capacidades de los agentes gubernamentales para negociar y coordinarse, dentro de los marcos jurídicos y normativos determinados, resultando en innovaciones en las relaciones intergubernamentales entre las unidades de gobierno.

Las herramientas de análisis del proceso intergubernamental.

Las RIG se presentan en dos planos de acción institucional donde se construye en el espacio de las interacciones: el formal, integrado por las leyes, acuerdos y convenios de coordinación para la administración, distribución y ejecución de los recursos; y el real (de la política), compuesto por las interacciones entre los funcionarios de las diferentes unidades: cómo llevan a la práctica los acuerdos del plano formal y los traducen en prácticas concretas. Esta capacidad, que pueden o no tener los gobiernos, está determinada por sus intereses y poder dentro de la relación.

La aportación de este enfoque consiste en la inclusión del factor humano en el análisis de las relaciones, ya que considera que son los actores (los funcionarios), quienes negocian e interactúan en representación de estas organizaciones, lo que define el carácter las relaciones intergubernamentales. De esta manera, en contrapeso del contexto que provee el marco regulatorio, indicando las relaciones y el carácter de las mismas para la atención de los asuntos públicos, está el aspecto político, en el cual la posición de la organización la define el proyecto e intereses de cada grupo de gobierno. Cuando la capacidad y poder de cada actor durante la interacción es desigual, se tiende a la cooperación y la búsqueda de consensos.

Para el análisis del comportamiento gubernamental a partir de las RIG, se identifican una serie de dimensiones que exploran los diferentes momentos por los que pasan los organismos al interactuar en el proceso intergubernamental:

- De legitimación: cuando la demanda o problema se hace presente y entra en la agenda gubernamental.
- De competencia: al identificarse las unidades gubernamentales competentes y gestionarse las atribuciones y responsabilidades de cada una de ellas.
- De límites: dados por las prácticas, normas, agenda e intereses políticos de los involucrados.
- De tácticas: para negociar las posibles soluciones a la problemática.
- De costos: políticos, económicos y sociales al tomar una decisión.

Para el análisis de las RIG en la frontera Baja California - California, se pueden trasladar estos criterios y aplicar las dimensiones para comprender el proceso de las relaciones entre distintos órganos de gobierno, que convergen en un determinado problema público.

El tránsito por estos momentos durante las interacciones y la negociación tiene lugar en un contexto regulado por un pacto federal que regula las relaciones entre los distintos órdenes de gobierno, apoyado en ordenamientos jurídicos concretos, como lo son la Constitución y las Leyes, acuerdos y convenios de coordinación, etcétera. De esta manera, las RIG son un proceso continuo que trasciende eventos como los cambios sexenales o trianuales de gobierno, ya que son relaciones normadas y reguladas a partir de las atribuciones y responsabilidades mismas de los órganos que las realizan.

CONCLUSIONES.

Las principales limitaciones del estudio de las RIG en el contexto binacional es que los organismos públicos que interactúan parten de diferentes marcos regulatorios en los que basan sus acciones los actores de uno y otro lado de la frontera. Esto requiere un esfuerzo adicional al aplicar esta perspectiva en este contexto, pues hace necesario considerar dos marcos legales distintos para explicar el proceso intergubernamental. Otro aspecto a considerar es la variedad de los funcionarios que toman parte en las interacciones. Es común encontrar a lo largo de la frontera problemáticas que pasan por largos procesos de cabildeo y consenso antes de que puedan llegar a soluciones que beneficien a los ciudadanos de ambas partes.

Uno de los principales aportes de las Relaciones Intergubernamentales (RIG) al análisis de las políticas públicas consiste en haber integrado el pluralismo institucional y territorial en el estudio de los procesos de decisión y ejecución de las mismas, con la finalidad de analizar el papel de actores públicos y privados, sus interacciones y los mecanismos formales o informales de articulación institucional. A partir de este enfoque, es posible examinar las actitudes, la interacción, la negociación, la cooperación, la coordinación y el conflicto intergubernamental transfronterizo y elaborar propuestas para la creación de mecanismos de cooperación y mejoras a los procesos de toma de decisiones.

En este contexto, el enfoque de las RIG proporciona un modelo de análisis de las interacciones entre los actores que participan en los procesos institucionales, así como sus distintos intereses políticos, económicos e ideológicos. De esta manera, es una útil herramienta para analizar las negociaciones y estrategias políticas que desarrollan las agencias gubernamentales y los grupos de interés transnacionales, nacionales y subnacionales ante los distintos problemas que afectan la vida fronteriza, así como sus consecuencias en la centralización o descentralización del sistema a partir de sus acciones. Al incluir en su propuesta, además de los actores gubernamentales, a otros actores políticos que interfieren en distintos momentos de la toma de decisión gubernamental, las RIG se presentan como un instrumento de gran utilidad para estudiar la coyuntura política y social en que se encuentran los municipios fronterizos en México y sus contrapartes en los Estados Unidos.

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EL INVENTARIO DE BAR-ON EN EL DEPARTAMENTO DE ASIENTOS DE DESARROLLO TÉCNICO DE VOLKSWAGEN DE MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

En este trabajo se presenta un estudio acerca del adecuado manejo y control de las emociones, manifestado a través de las relaciones intra e interpersonales del Departamento de Asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México, con la finalidad de diagnosticar la mejor forma de aprovechar los aspectos que abarca la inteligencia emocional. De tal forma que se conozca cómo los empleados manejan sus relaciones sociales y controlan sus emociones, respecto al ambiente laboral.

En este sentido, la pregunta central de la investigación es: ¿Cuáles son los factores de inteligencia emocional, que se pueden mejorar de las relaciones personales, del departamento de asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México? Por lo tanto el objetivo de la presente investigación, es determinar a través del instrumento Inventario de Bar-On, en qué medida los factores de la inteligencia emocional, específicamente en el manejo de las relaciones sociales de los integrantes del grupo de Asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México, son relevantes en el desempeño de sus actividades, a fin de mejorar la calidad en el servicio.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Inteligencia emocional, emociones, relaciones interpersonales, relaciones intra personales.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La inteligencia emocional es la base de las relaciones interpersonales tanto en el ambiente laboral como personal de cada individuo, en este sentido los seres humanos somos entes sociales por lo cual no podemos vivir aislados unos de otros. Existen diversas publicaciones sobre inteligencia emocional que se han realizado, entre las cuales se pueden mencionar las de los autores Goleman y Boyatzis, en ellas se plantea el porqué de la importancia de este tema y cómo es que las personas podrían mejorar sus relaciones interpersonales si pudieran controlar sus emociones.

Se ha demostrado que las emociones manejadas adecuadamente en el ambiente laboral promueven innovaciones, logros individuales, grupales y organizacionales, creando beneficios como compromiso y satisfacción de los empleados, todo esto se ve reflejado en un servicio de excelencia hacia todos los clientes, por tanto la actitud y calidez del prestador de servicios son claves en los resultados económicos de las empresas. El objeto de estudio en esta investigación se centra en la empresa Volkswagen de México, que en adelante se denota como VWM, en específico se estudió a la gerencia de asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México, debido a que le interesa mejorar este indicador, para mantener en todo momento el mayor grado de eficiencia laboral de sus empleados. Es por ello, la necesidad de determinar y conocer cómo los trabajadores de este departamento, enfocan sus habilidades hacia el adecuado manejo y control de las emociones, manifestado a través de las relaciones intra e

interpersonales, con la finalidad de diagnosticar la mejor forma de aprovechar los aspectos que abarca la inteligencia emocional. (IE).

Cabe resaltar la presente investigación, no pretende medir el nivel de inteligencia emocional de los trabajadores, únicamente se determinará la forma en cómo éstos manejan sus relaciones sociales y controlan sus emociones, respecto al ambiente laboral. Lo anterior con la finalidad de detectar áreas de oportunidad que permitan mejorar dichas relaciones y fomentar así un mejor clima laboral y prestar un excelente servicio a los clientes de VWM. En este sentido, la pregunta central de la investigación es: ¿Cuáles son los factores de inteligencia emocional, que se pueden mejorar en las relaciones personales, del departamento de asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México? Por lo tanto el objetivo de la presente investigación, es determinar a través del instrumento Inventario de Bar-O, en qué medida los factores de la inteligencia emocional, específicamente en el adecuado manejo de las relaciones sociales de los integrantes del grupo de Asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México, son relevantes en el desempeño de sus actividades, a fin de mejorar la calidad en el servicio.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Inteligencia Emocional

Por mucho tiempo, el término de inteligencia se utilizaba para denotar únicamente la habilidad cognitiva para aprender y razonar. Aunque existen diferentes tipos de inteligencia, en términos generales este concepto implica la reunión de información, el aprendizaje y el razonamiento sobre esta información. En la psicología contemporánea se ha puesto énfasis en la funcionalidad de las emociones como fuente principal para la motivación, como modelador de la opinión y juicio de las personas (Salovey y Mayer, 1990). La palabra emoción, viene del latín “Motere” (Moverse) es lo que hace que nos acerquemos o alejemos a una determinada persona o circunstancia. Se puede entender también la emoción como una respuesta mental a un evento que incluye aspectos psicológicos, cognitivos y experiencias. (Salovey y Mayer, 1990). Goleman acude a un sentido más literal, del diccionario Oxford: “cualquier agitación y trastorno de la mente, el sentimiento, la pasión; cualquier estado mental vehemente o excitado”. El concepto de Inteligencia Emocional tiene sus antecedentes iniciales en los estudios de Thorndike (1920) sobre la Inteligencia social la cual define como: “La habilidad para comprender, dirigir a los hombres y mujeres, y actuar sabiamente en las relaciones humanas”.

Howard Gardner, en 1983 desarrolló la teoría sobre “Inteligencia Múltiple” y propuso dentro de ella, los conceptos de “Inteligencia interpersonal” y la “Inteligencia intrapersonal”. Weisinger (1998) define inteligencia emocional como el uso inteligente de las emociones: de forma intencional, hacemos que nuestras emociones trabajen para nosotros, utilizándolas con el fin de que nos ayuden a guiar nuestro comportamiento y a pensar de manera que mejoren nuestros resultados. Así, Bar-On (1997), denomina a la Inteligencia Emocional como el “conocimiento emocional de sí mismo, seguridad, empatía, relaciones interpersonales, tolerancia a la tensión y control de los impulsos (habilidades emocionales)”. Se relaciona con otros determinantes de la capacidad para tener éxito en el manejo de las exigencias del entorno. En todas las definiciones el punto más importante se refiere a las emociones. Todo gira alrededor de cómo se identifican, cómo se controlan y cómo se utilizan de forma positiva, tanto en nuestro interior (lo que se puede hacer con nuestras emociones en nuestro comportamiento y en nuestras relaciones con los demás) como en el exterior (lo que se puede hacer con las emociones de los demás, las que podemos identificar o generar en otros).

Modelo de competencia emocional y social

El modelo de Bar-On (1997, 2000) –Inteligencias no cognitivas (EQ-i) se fundamenta en las competencias, las cuales intentan explicar cómo un individuo se relaciona con las personas que le rodean y con su medio ambiente. Por tanto, la IE y la inteligencia social son consideradas un conjunto de factores de interrelaciones emocionales, personales y sociales que influyen en la habilidad general para adaptarse de manera activa a las presiones y demandas del ambiente. En este sentido, el modelo “representa un conjunto de conocimientos utilizados para enfrentar la vida efectivamente”. (Bar-On, 1997).

Este modelo está compuesto por cinco elementos: 1) el componente intrapersonal, que reúne la habilidad de ser consciente, de comprender y relacionarse con otros; 2) el componente interpersonal, que implica la habilidad para manejar emociones fuertes y controlar sus impulsos; 3) el componente de manejo de estrés, que involucra la habilidad de tener una visión positiva y optimista; 4) el componente de estado de ánimo, que está constituido por la habilidad para adaptarse a los cambios y resolver problemas de naturaleza personal y social; y por último, 5) el componente de adaptabilidad o ajuste.

Además, Bar-On dividió las capacidades emocionales en dos tipos principales: 1) las capacidades básicas (core factors), que son esenciales para la existencia de la IE: la autoevaluación, la autoconciencia emocional, la asertividad, la empatía, las relaciones sociales, el afrontamiento de presiones, el control de impulsos, el examen de realidad, la flexibilidad y la solución de problemas; y 2) las capacidades facilitadoras (facilitators factor), que son el optimismo, la autorrealización, la alegría, la independencia emocional y la responsabilidad social. Cada uno de estos elementos se encuentra interrelacionado entre sí. Por ejemplo, la asertividad depende de la auto seguridad; mientras que la solución de problemas depende del optimismo, del afrontamiento de las presiones y de la flexibilidad. El modelo de Bar-On provee la base para el EQ-i, Inventario de Coeficiente Emocional, instrumento que se comenzó a usar en 1988. De acuerdo a este modelo, la inteligencia emocional-social es una interrelación de competencias emocionales y sociales, habilidades y facilidades que determinan que tan efectivos nos entendemos y expresamos con otros, nos relacionamos y lidiamos con nuestras tareas diarias.

Departamento De Asientos De Desarrollo Técnico De Volkswagen México

El Departamento de Desarrollo Técnico se encuentra dentro de la planta VW en las naves 54, 62, 70 y 71, éste es uno de los departamentos de más reciente creación dentro de la empresa en México. La principal función de este departamento es la innovación. Desarrollo Técnico está constituido por diferentes departamentos, todos y cada uno tienen una gran importancia para que esta área sea una de las más importantes dentro de VWM; los departamentos más representativos que la conforman son: 1) Dirección de desarrollo técnico; 2) Coordinación general; 3) Vehículo completo; 4) Desarrollo de motores y transmisiones; 5) Desarrollo de chasis; 6) Diseño; 7) Desarrollo Carrocería, Interiores, Asientos y Seguridad Vehicular; 8) Desarrollo Eléctrico – Electrónico

En Seguridad Vehicular como su nombre lo indica, se dedican a buscar la máxima eficiencia en cuanto a los componentes con que cuenta un automóvil para brindar la mayor seguridad y confort a los pasajeros. Dentro del área de asientos y seguridad existe una célula llamada Fakom que se encarga de las telas, pieles, vinil y claves de colores con que se confecciona el interior del automóvil completo. Asientos, es la célula que coordina temas de prueba y construcción para nuevos modelos de asientos, así como para asientos de la serie (que ya se encuentran en producción), cambios según requerimientos de mercado y nuevas normas internacionales, además de pruebas de duración; esta célula se encuentra conformada por

10 ingenieros especialistas en pruebas y 20 especialistas en construcción. La parte de construcción se dedica a verificar todos los componentes con que cuenta un asiento, desde metálicos hasta fundas; en cuanto a pruebas, esta es la parte que se encarga de corroborar que todos los componentes del asiento realicen correctamente la función para la cual han sido creados.

METODOLOGÍA

Se aplicó el test de Inteligencia emocional denominado Inventario de Bar-On, al personal que labora en el Departamento de Asientos de Desarrollo Técnico, integrado por 30 personas los cuestionarios fueron aplicados de junio a diciembre 2010. El cuestionario de Bar-On está compuesto por 133 ítems que deben responderse de acuerdo a la siguiente escala, ver tabla 1.

Tabla 2: Escala de calificación.

Escala de calificación	
Rara vez o nunca es mi caso	1
Pocas veces es mi caso	2
A veces es mi caso	3
Muchas veces es mi caso	4
Con mucha frecuencia o siempre es mi caso	5

Esta tabla muestra la escala de calificaciones en escala de likert que va de 1 = raras vez a 5 = que se presenta con mucha frecuencia.

Las respuestas se traducen en un puntaje total de cociente emocional, se evalúan además los 5 componentes y las 15 sub escalas del modelo, los componentes a evaluar son:

1) Componente intrapersonal (CIA): área que reúne las siguientes sub escalas: comprensión emocional de sí mismo, asertividad, autoconcepto, autorrealización e independencia.: a) Comprensión emocional de sí mismo (CM): la habilidad para percatarse y comprender nuestros sentimientos y emociones diferenciarlos y conocer el porqué de éstos: b) Aserividad (AS): la habilidad para expresar sentimientos, creencias y pensamientos sin dañar los sentimientos de los demás y defender nuestros derechos de una manera no destructiva: c) Auto concepto (AC): La habilidad para comprender, aceptar y respetarse a sí mismo, aceptando nuestros aspectos positivos y negativos, así como también nuestras limitaciones y posibilidades: d) Autorrealización (AR): La habilidad para realizar lo que realmente podemos, queremos y disfrutamos hacerlo: e) Independencia (IN): Es la habilidad para auto dirigirse, sentirse seguro de sí mismo en nuestros pensamientos, acciones y ser independientes emocionalmente para tomar nuestras decisiones.

2) Componente interpersonal: (CIE): área que reúne las siguientes sub escalas: empatía, responsabilidad social y relación interpersonal: a) Empatía (EM): Habilidad de percatarse, comprender, y apreciar los sentimientos de los demás: b) Relaciones interpersonales (RI): Habilidad para establecer y mantener relaciones mutuas satisfactorias que son caracterizadas por una cercanía emocional e intimidad.: c) Responsabilidad Social (RS): Habilidad para demostrarse a sí mismo como una persona que coopera, contribuye y es un miembro constructivo del grupo social.

3) Componente de adaptabilidad: área que reúne las siguientes sub escalas: prueba de la realidad, flexibilidad, y solución de problemas.: a) Solución de problemas (SP): La habilidad para identificar y definir los problemas como también generar e implementar soluciones efectivas. : b) Prueba de realidad

(PR): La habilidad para evaluar la correspondencia entre lo que experimentamos y lo que en la realidad existe: c) Flexibilidad (FL): La habilidad para realizar un ajuste adecuado de nuestras emociones, pensamientos y conductas a situaciones y condiciones cambiantes.

4) Componente del manejo del estrés (CME): área que reúne las siguientes sub escalas: tolerancia al estrés y control de impulsos: a) Tolerancia al estrés (TE): la habilidad para soportar eventos adversos, situaciones estresantes y fuertes emociones sin desmoronarse, enfrentando activa y positivamente el estrés.: b) Control de los impulsos (CI): La habilidad para resistir o postergar un impulso o tentaciones para actuar y controlar nuestras emociones.

5) Componente del estado de ánimo en general (CAG): área que reúne las siguientes sub escalas: felicidad y optimismo: a) Felicidad (FE): habilidad para sentirse satisfecho con nuestra vida, para disfrutar de sí mismo y de otros y para divertirse y expresar sentimientos positivos.: b) Optimismo (OP): habilidad para ver el aspecto más brillante de la vida y mantener una actitud positiva, a pesar de la adversidad y los sentimientos negativos.

El enfoque topográfico organiza los componentes de la inteligencia no cognitiva de acuerdo con un orden de rangos, distinguiendo “factores centrales” (FC o primarios) relacionados con “factores resultantes” (FR o de más alto orden) y que están conectados por un grupo de “factores de soporte” (FS de apoyo o secundarios o auxiliares). Los tres factores centrales más importantes de la inteligencia emocional son: la comprensión de sí mismo; la asertividad y la empatía. Los otros dos factores centrales son: la prueba de la realidad y el control de los impulsos. Estos factores centrales traen como resultado la solución de problemas, las relaciones interpersonales y la autorrealización ver tabla 2.

Tabla 2: El modelo Bar-On de la inteligencia emocional y social

Componente intra personal Evalúa la auto identificación general del individuo, la autoconciencia emocional, la asertividad, la autorrealización e independencia emocional, la autoconciencia, la autoevaluación.
Componente interpersonal La empatía, la responsabilidad social, las relaciones sociales.
Componente de manejo de emociones La capacidad para tolerar presiones y la capacidad de controlar impulsos.
Componente de estado de ánimo El optimismo y la satisfacción.
Componente de adaptación-ajuste Este componente se refiere a la capacidad del individuo para evaluar correctamente la realidad y ajustarse de manera eficiente a nuevas situaciones, así como a su capacidad para crear soluciones adecuadas a los problemas diarios. Incluye las nociones de prueba de la realidad, flexibilidad y capacidad para solucionar problemas.

Esta tabla muestra los componentes intra personal, interpersonal,, manejo de conflictis, estado de ánimo y adaptación-ajuste. Del modelo de Bar-On.

RESULTADOS

El Departamento de Desarrollo Técnico, como ya se mencionó, está integrado por 30 personas, los cuales representan la población total, a continuación se muestra la clasificación de dicha población conforme al sexo, edad y escolaridad.

SEXO. La población del departamento de desarrollo técnico se distribuye de la siguiente forma , en 40% mujeres y 60% hombres, ver figura 1.

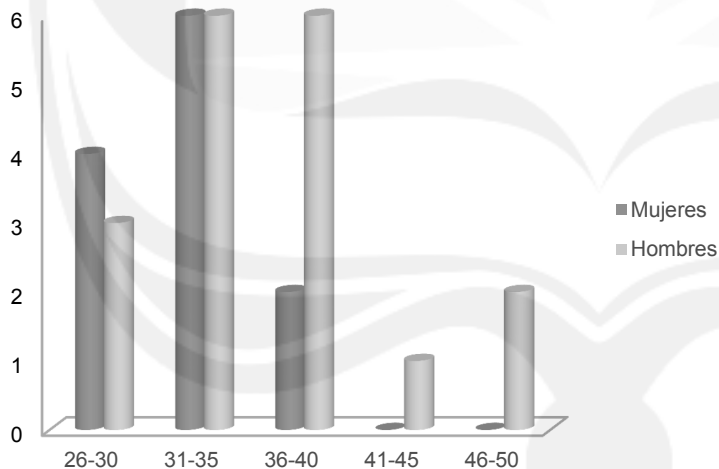
Figura 1: Sexo.



Esta figura muestra que en el departamento de Desarrollo técnico trabajan 18 hombres y 12 mujeres.

EDAD. Se distribuyó a la población en 5 intervalos, todos los integrantes se encuentran en edad productiva. El 40% de la población tiene entre 31 y 35 años de edad siendo el rango más representativo. Únicamente el 3% de la población (1 persona) está en los rangos de edad entre 41 y 45 años, ver figura 2.

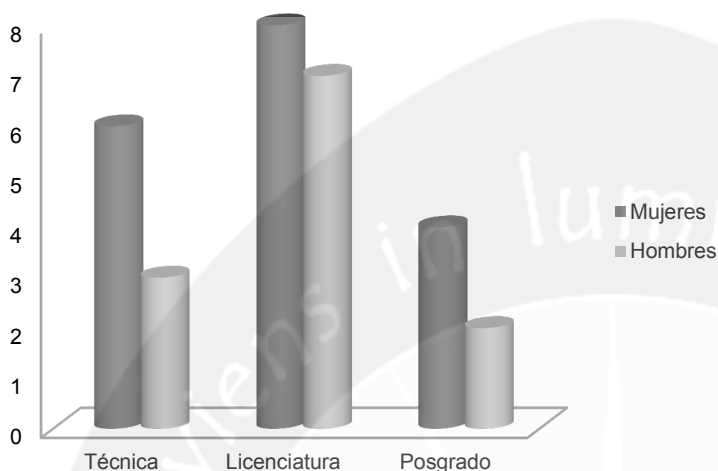
Figura 2: Población por edad.



Esta figura muestra la edad de los empleados de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen de México. Que el promedio de edad es de 31-35 años de edad.

Escolaridad: Según la variable escolaridad, la población tiene en un 50% grado de licenciatura, siendo en su mayoría hombres ver figura 3. Es importante mencionar que el 30% de la población tiene únicamente carrera técnica y sólo el 20% tienen estudios de posgrado, siendo en su mayoría hombres.

Figura 3. Población por escolaridad



Esta figura muestra la escolaridad de los empleados del departamento de Desarrollo técnico de VW.

A continuación se presentan los resultados del Inventario de Bar-On. Los datos de la estadística descriptiva se concentraron en la tabla 3.

Tabla 3: Estadística descriptiva de sub escalas del inventario de Bar-On

	N	Mínimo	Máximo	Media	Desviación típica
CM: Comprensión emocional de sí mismo	30	21	38	29.83	4.579
AS: Asertividad	30	20	34	25.27	5.092
AC: Auto concepto	30	23	43	35.07	6.357
AR: Autorrealización	30	25	43	36.00	5.305
IN: Independencia	30	16	33	26.43	4.629
EM: Empatía	30	23	35	29.60	2.621
RI: Relaciones Interpersonales	30	33	54	42.70	4.991
RS: Responsabilidad Social	30	32	46	37.73	3.118
SP: Solución de Problemas	30	20	40	32.63	5.255
PR: Prueba de la realidad	30	26	45	38.43	5.853
FL: Flexibilidad	30	17	34	26.83	4.371
TE: Tolerancia al estrés	30	22	43	32.53	5.124
CI: Control de Impulsos	30	21	42	33.73	5.614
FE: Felicidad	30	26	45	35.97	6.688
OP: Optimismo	30	19	38	31.87	5.296
IPS: Impresión Positiva de Sí Mismo	30	16	35	30.13	5.557
INS: Impresión Negativa de Sí Mismo	30	15	29	23.73	4.186
N. válido	30				

Esta tabla muestra la estadística descriptiva de las sub escalas del inventario de Bar-On.

El puntaje mínimo obtenido en la evaluación de las sub escalas del inventario es de 15 puntos, mientras que el valor máximo es de 54. Con este rango los resultados obtenidos se clasificaron en 5 intervalos, definidos de la siguiente manera, ver tabla 4:

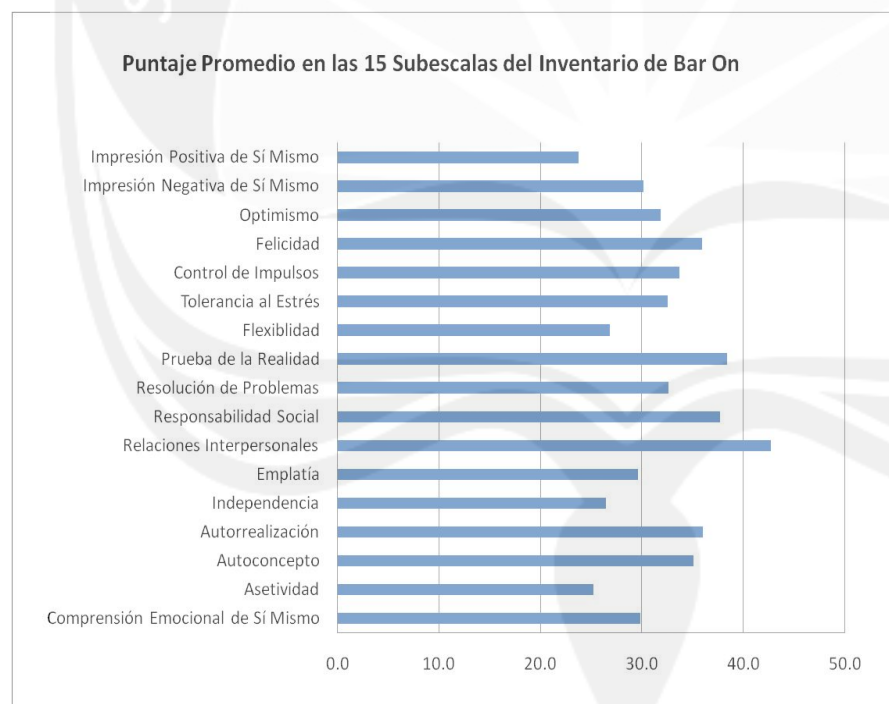
Tabla 4: Intervalos por puntaje

Puntaje Obtenido	Clasificación
14 – 22	Necesario Mejorar
23 – 31	Por Mejorar
32 – 40	En Equilibrio
41 – 49	Desarrollado
50 – 58	Muy Desarrollado

Esta tabla muestra los intervalos por puntaje que va de 14-22, es necesario mejorar; hasta de 50-58 muy desarrollado

Con ellos, se pretende determinar si el componente o sub escala del Inventario de Bar-On requiere mejorarse o se tiene ya desarrollados. La aplicación del Inventario de Bar-On muestra los siguientes resultados promedio. Los puntaje promedio no deben ser revisados de manera absoluta sino sólo indicativa. En este sentido, los empleados del Departamento de Asientos de Desarrollo Técnico de Volkswagen México perciben que las subescalas “Relaciones Interpersonales” y la “Prueba de la Realidad” están muy desarrolladas; por el contrario, las sub escalas “Flexibilidad”, “Independencia” y “Asertividad” podrían mejorarse, ver figura 4.

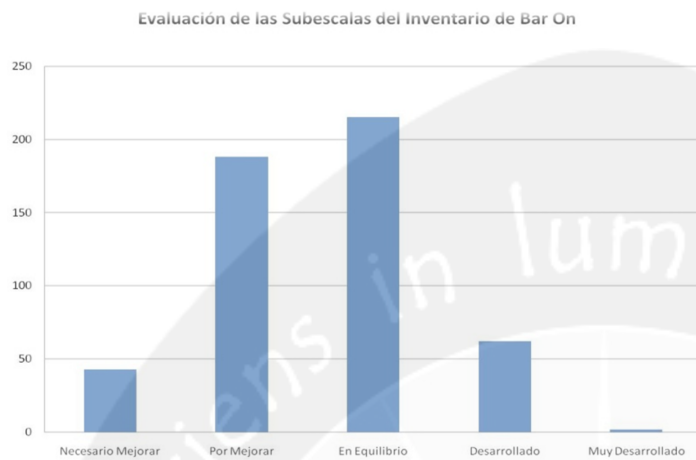
Figura 4: Puntajes en las sub escalas del Inventario de Bar-On



Esta figura muestra el puntaje promedio de las 15 sub escala del inventario de Bar-On.

En promedio los empleados perciben que tienen las Sub escalas en equilibrio, circunstancia favorable dentro del grupo, porque nos indica que ya han trabajado con sus emociones, ver figura 5.

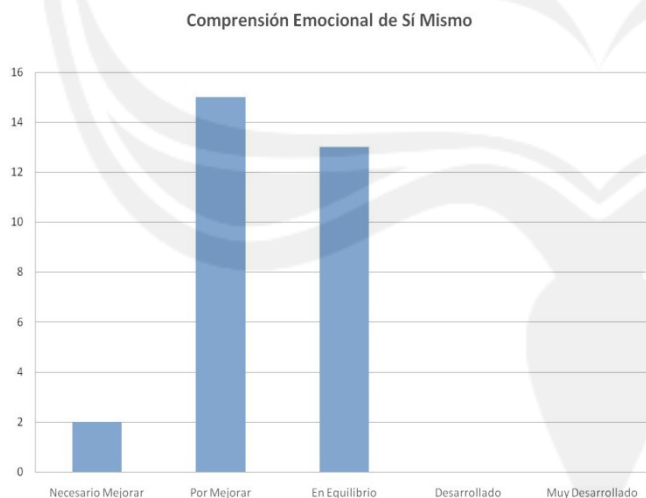
Figura 5: Evaluación de las sub escalas del Inventario de Bar-on



Esta figura muestra en una sub escala del inventario de Bar-ON.

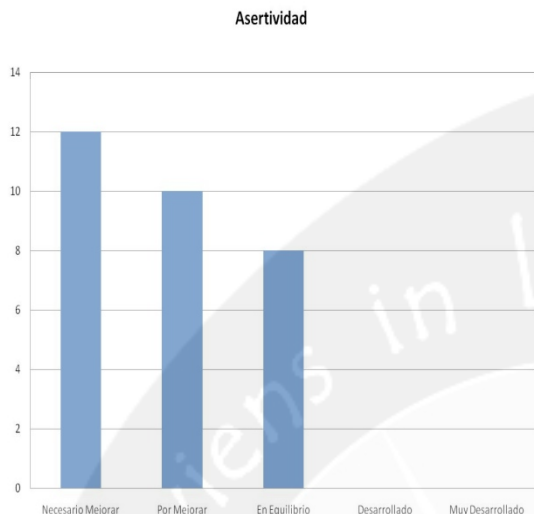
Al realizar los histogramas por separado para cada sub escala del Inventario de Bar-On,, se obtienen los siguientes resultados: Para el componente Intra personal compuesto por las sub escalas: Comprensión Emocional de Sí Mismo, Asertividad, Auto concepto, Autorrealización e Independencia los resultados indican que la mayoría de los empleados del Departamento perciben tener este componente en Equilibrio y algunos por Mejorar, ver figura 6, 7, como ejemplo.

Figura 6: Comprensión emocional de sí mismo.



Esta figura muestra la sub escala comprensión emocional de sí mismo.

Figura 7: Asertividad



Esta figura muestra la asertividad de los empleados del departamento de Desarrollo técnico de VW

En resumen se puede decir que los empleados del departamento de Asientos de VWM, en promedio se encuentran dentro del rango en equilibrio, en las 15 subescalas comprendidas en el Inventario de Bar-On, lo cual representa que los empleados de alguna manera han trabajado con el manejo de sus relaciones sociales. Por lo tanto los puntajes más altos y bajos del inventario de Bar-On nos indican que, las subescalas “Relaciones Interpersonales” y la “Prueba de la Realidad” están muy desarrolladas, presentando una escala de calificación arriba de 40 puntos; por el contrario, las subescalas “Flexibilidad”, “Independencia” y “Asertividad” se encuentran dentro del rango por Mejorar, con menos de 30 puntos. De los 5 componentes que integran el Inventario de Bar-On, se observó que los resultados de las pruebas aplicadas a los empleados de VWM, se encuentran en promedio en un nivel intermedio, es decir, en calificaciones por mejorar y en equilibrio.

De tal forma que el puntaje promedio por género indica que en la herramienta del cuestionario de Bar-On, en los 5 componentes que lo integran, las mujeres obtuvieron puntajes más altos que los hombres, obteniendo una calificación de 2 puntos arriba. En la sub escala Comprensión emocional de sí mismo, los hombres calificaron más alto que las mujeres, con menos de un punto de diferencia. El promedio general obtenido en la aplicación de la encuesta de satisfacción de los clientes internos fue de 3 puntos, lo cual según la escala de calificación indica que es buena. El puntaje correspondiente a la satisfacción de los clientes externos fue de 3.5 puntos lo que representa también que la calificación es buena. Adicional a las 15 subescalas, se evaluaron la Impresión positiva y negativa de uno, cuyos resultados fueron baja y alta respectivamente, lo que nos indica que son los factores en los que se debe trabajar con los empleados, ya que se considera que las calificaciones no son las adecuadas.

CONCLUSIONES

A manera de conclusión se puede decir que la clave de la inteligencia emocional está en desarrollar la habilidad para reconocer los sentimientos propios y los sentimientos de los demás, con la finalidad de manejar en forma adecuada las relaciones inter e intra personales. Un factor esencial dentro de las empresas, consiste en conocer las necesidades de los clientes y más aún el nivel de satisfacción alcanzado

por ellos al consumir el producto o al recibir el servicio. Se determina que los resultados de esta investigación muestran que las personas que obtienen mayor éxito en las organizaciones no son siempre las que tienen más capacidades intelectuales, el verdadero éxito requiere algo más: desarrollar la habilidad de tratar en forma conveniente, a las personas convenientes, en la situación favorable. En este contexto se responde a la pregunta central de investigación planteada al inicio, estableciendo que las relaciones inter e intrapersonales desempeñan un papel fundamental en la vida de todo individuo, a nivel personal y laboral, cuyo adecuado manejo le permiten sobrellevar las diversas situaciones que se le presentan diariamente.

Las relaciones inter e intrapersonales, mediante diversas prácticas y con el tiempo, pueden desarrollarse de tal modo que permitan mejorar el desempeño laboral. De tal forma que desarrollar la inteligencia emocional hará mejores personas, y ayudará a que los demás lo sean. El obtener un buen desarrollo de la inteligencia emocional no es fácil, sin embargo, si se tiene la intención firme de desarrollarla, traerá múltiples beneficios tanto personales como a nivel organizacional.

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MÉTODOS MIXTOS PARA EL ESTUDIO DE LAS DECISIONES ESTRATÉGICAS EN LAS PYMES

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ABSTRACT

Tradicionalmente la literatura sobre el análisis de las decisiones estratégicas se ha sustentado en modelos teóricos que bien se ajustan a describir el comportamiento de las grandes empresas pero que presentan algunos problemas de aplicación al entorno de las Pymes. Es por ello que en la actualidad se evidencia una creciente necesidad por indagar en las diferencias para promover la construcción de teorías que incorporen el contexto y las características específicas de las Pymes. Esta necesidad implica, simultáneamente, discutir acerca del modo de abordaje empírico y las estrategias de investigación utilizadas para analizar los procesos decisorios teniendo en cuenta las especificidades del sector. De ahí que, el objetivo de este artículo es presentar una revisión teórica y metodológica de los estudios publicados en el ámbito de las decisiones estratégicas en las Pymes y presentar, a modo ilustrativo, un diseño metodológico integral que permita caracterizar los perfiles decisorios y las prácticas observadas en este tipo de empresas. La hipótesis es que el uso de métodos mixtos mejora la fiabilidad de los resultados ya que favorece la triangulación de datos (cuantitativos y cualitativos) y permite captar las características idiosincráticas. Además, facilita la elaboración de modelos integrales y naturalizados que amplían la comprensión del fenómeno estudiado.

JEL: M10- M20

PALABRAS CLAVES: decisiones estratégicas- metodología mixta- Pymes argentinas

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las pequeñas y medianas empresas cumplen un rol clave en la economía de mercado moderna por su dinamismo y capacidad para generar empleo. Además, la flexibilidad de su estructura le permite enfrentar los cambios propiciados en el entorno. En un contexto actual de alta incertidumbre, de disponibilidad inmediata de información global y escenarios competitivos se requieren competencias que faciliten la toma de decisiones adecuadas para enfrentar estos cambios. Es por ello que en el ámbito de la dirección estratégica cada vez más se destaca la importancia de las decisiones empresariales como elementos claves para el desarrollo competitivo de las empresas. De hecho, se ha observado que aquellas empresas que toman decisiones oportunas y efectivas han evidenciado comportamientos empresariales más exitosos que las que no lo hacen (Pekar y Abraham, 1995).

En los últimos años, la literatura ha profundizado en la elaboración de modelos teóricos y diseños metodológicos que analizan el proceso de toma de decisiones empresariales. Sin embargo, en muchos casos, estos modelos son poco aplicables al contexto de las Pymes, dadas las características idiosincráticas de las mismas- por ejemplo sus rasgos estructurales, las estrategias que implementan, las características del empresario, el grado de formalización y descentralización de las decisiones, etc.-. De hecho, el escaso desarrollo de la temática en el entorno específico de las Pymes da cuenta de la baja eficacia que ha tenido la investigación académica para estudiar el proceso de decisiones en este colectivo empresarial. Una posible reflexión respecto a este problema está directamente asociado al uso de técnicas metodológicas que si bien se adaptan en muchos casos a la realidad de las grandes empresas

(disponibilidad de estadísticas, acceso a muestra de gran tamaño, entre otras) en ocasiones son de baja aplicabilidad en otros sectores. Es en este sentido que el artículo propone discutir las estrategias metodológicas utilizadas en la investigación sobre los procesos decisorios en las Pymes. Específicamente se formulan las siguientes preguntas de investigación: a) ¿cómo ha sido tradicionalmente estudiado el fenómeno de la toma de decisiones en las empresas Pymes en las publicaciones académicas?; b) ¿cuáles son las características que definen los diseños mixtos y el grado de aplicabilidad a la temática? y, c) ¿cómo elaborar una estrategia de investigación mixta que permita caracterizar los perfiles decisorios en las empresas y describir las prácticas asociadas a dichos perfiles? En base a esta revisión metodológica, el objetivo de este trabajo será proponer una metodología mixta (cuantitativa y cualitativa) para indagar empíricamente en el campo de la decisión estratégica desde el enfoque descriptivo de la toma de decisiones en las Pymes.

Es decir, diseñar una estrategia de abordaje que contemple al proceso de toma de decisiones y al decididor “real” con sus expectativas muchas veces contradictorias, con sus conflictos de intereses, valores y de poder. Esto es, en el caso particular de las Pymes, incorporar la heterogeneidad y flexibilidad que caracteriza a estas organizaciones y revalorizar el contexto donde toman las decisiones. En base a estas consideraciones, creemos que el uso excluyente de metodología cuantitativa o cualitativa reduce el alcance explicativo de la problemática ya que su visión parcializada subestima la comprensión de alguno de estos atributos. De hecho, la hipótesis que formulamos es que el uso de métodos mixtos mejora la fiabilidad de los resultados ya que favorece la triangulación de datos (cuantitativos y cualitativos) y permite captar las características particulares del sector.

El trabajo se estructura de la siguiente manera. En primer lugar se sintetizan los avances teóricos en la caracterización de las Pymes, resaltando los aspectos metodológicos que describen las contribuciones empíricas en el tema. En segundo lugar se describen las ventajas y desventajas observadas por la literatura respecto al uso de la metodología mixta a fin de reflexionar sobre su aplicabilidad a los estudios empresariales. En tercer lugar se presenta la propuesta de diseño metodológico para el análisis empírico de los perfiles decisorios en las Pymes aplicado a un estudio del empresariado pyme argentino, describiendo las principales dimensiones de análisis y las ventajas y recomendaciones para su aplicación. Finalmente se exponen las conclusiones y las futuras líneas de investigación.

REVISIÓN TEÓRICA

La Toma De Decisiones En Las Pymes Desde La Perspectiva Teórica. Características Generales

Distintos modelos se han desarrollado para intentar explicar cómo se toman las decisiones y por qué varían considerablemente entre distintos agentes. De hecho, de acuerdo a la perspectiva y a los fundamentos metodológicos que sostienen los modelos, suelen agruparse los mismos en torno a tres enfoques teóricos: descriptivo, prescriptivo y normativo (Simon, 1979). Mientras que el enfoque descriptivo analiza las decisiones que se han tomado en el pasado o se ejecutan en la actualidad, el enfoque el normativo se centra en el estudio de lo que en teoría deberían hacer y decidir los agentes de acuerdo a principios racionales de decisión. Y finalmente, el enfoque prescriptivo, de modo integrado, focaliza en lo que los individuos deberían y/o pueden hacer (combinación del enfoque normativo y descriptivo). Con la consolidación de los principios de Simon (1979) acerca de los supuestos conductistas que limitan la maximización de las decisiones (racionalidad limitada e información perfecta), el predominio de la perspectiva descriptiva en la mayoría de los estudios empíricos ha sido absoluta.

Perfilar las características de quien decide dentro de la empresa, cómo elabora su estrategia y el tipo de decisiones que adopta sigue siendo un aspecto fundamental para el diseño de estas estructuras de soporte, procurando maximizar el rendimiento de la empresa tanto en su configuración interna como en el entorno competitivo que enfrenta. Si bien se han desarrollado numerosos modelos desde la perspectiva descriptiva, en general se basan en las fases del proceso de decisión propuesto por Simon (1979): a) inteligencia (identificación de la necesidad de decidir); b) diseño (investigar y diseñar las estrategias de resolución del problema) y, c) elección (selección la alternativa más apropiada de las identificadas previamente). Asimismo esta elección tiene implícita una estrategia de evaluación de las decisiones de acuerdo al modo de comparar las alternativas consideradas.

En este sentido, Dillon (2003) divide los modelos de toma de decisiones en holísticos, donde la elección y evaluación del impacto de la decisión es global y con ausencia de procedimientos secuenciales de elección, y no holísticos donde cada alternativa es comparada con otras en base a atributos singulares y procedimientos estandarizados. Esta clasificación no es menor, si se tiene en cuenta que para realizar un adecuado abordaje a la problemática en las Pymes es necesario comprender no sólo el proceso decisorio sino los factores contextuales que definen las acciones ejecutadas. De hecho, mientras que los métodos cuantitativos permiten analizar los procesos singulares, la comparación de atributos y focalizar en los procesos individuales, el método cualitativo permite captar los procesos holísticos, asistemáticos, de difícil abordaje mediante técnicas de análisis estandarizadas.

Esta reflexión orienta la propuesta que presentamos posteriormente en la revisión metodológica. Junto a la consolidación del enfoque descriptivo, en los últimos años, se ha comenzado a reconocer también que, tradicionalmente, el análisis de las decisiones empresariales ha aportado evidencia empírica que bien ilustra el comportamiento de las grandes corporaciones dirigidas por los gerentes profesionales, pero que ignora las peculiaridades que se presentan en las empresas pequeñas y medianas dirigidas por los emprendedores (Gibcus et al. 2004; Papadakis et al., 1998; Brouthers, 1998; Gilmore y Carson, 2000). Estas teorías pueden reflejar erróneamente la realidad de las Pymes dado que: a) las Pymes tienden a tomar decisiones menos racionales; b) enfrentan entornos más hostiles e inciertos, y c) los empresarios de las Pymes suelen tener características particulares que influyen en el proceso de decisión que los diferencian de los gerentes profesionales. Además, otro problema que algunos autores han criticado es el método utilizado y las conclusiones planteadas al analizar el fenómeno decisorio en las Pymes. Hart (1991) plantea que la proliferación de numerosas tipologías de análisis de los perfiles ha llevado a carencias en la consistencia de resultados y una tendencia confusa en cuanto al avance en el conocimiento de la problemática. Más aún si se intenta responder preguntas como ¿qué estrategias y decisiones se adoptan en las empresas Pymes teniendo en cuenta el perfil decisor del emprendedor? o ¿cómo inciden estas decisiones en las estrategias y desempeño de la empresa? Partiendo de estas limitaciones, en el siguiente apartado se analizan los principales aportes de la literatura internacional y argentina en el campo de las decisiones estratégicas en las Pymes desde un abordaje empírico.

Una Revisión Sobre La Contribución Empírica En El Campo De Las Decisiones En Las Pymes

En relación a la investigación empírica en las Pymes, se realizó la búsqueda de artículos publicados en revistas indexadas en la base del *Social Science Citation Index* (ISI, inglés) y la base del *Centro de Ciencias Humanas y Sociales* (ISOC, español), que analizan el fenómeno de las decisiones estratégicas dentro de este colectivo empresarial. En total, se han registrado 115 artículos, observándose una tendencia creciente a la producción científica en la temática en los últimos 5 años. Los pilares temáticos que han dado origen a los distintos modelos de decisión en la década de los 80, basados en los sistemas de

información y control y en los mecanismos de gestión de las organizaciones profesionalizadas desde la perspectiva normativa, han sido reemplazados por líneas de investigación que más se ajustan a explicar la realidad de las Pymes. En este sentido, destacamos que los principales aportes de la literatura se han dado en áreas relacionadas con las decisiones de financiamiento (Larrán et al, 2010; Rodríguez, 2004), comercialización e internacionalización (Alshawi et al, 2011; García y Avella, 2010; Fabian et al. 2009), decisiones de cooperación y alianzas estratégicas (Fink et al, 2010; Díaz et al. 2010; Saviano y Berardi, 2009), gestión del conocimiento e innovación (Heavon y Adam, 2010; Coduras, 2010; Camisón et al. 2010; Rubio y Aragón, 2008; Fernández et al. 2005); gestión de recursos humanos (Jansen et al, 2011); gestión de la información (Velmurugan y Narayanasami, 2009; Sadok y Lesca, 2009); decisiones de e-commerce (Wang y Lin, 2009; Guan, 2009) y en responsabilidad social empresarial (Redmond et al. 2008). En la tabla 1 presentamos una muestra de artículos académicos para analizar de forma cronológica cuál ha sido el método de abordaje predominante en el estudio de las decisiones empresariales en las Pymes y las muestras diseñadas para tal fin.

Tabla 1: Artículos empíricos publicados sobre decisiones en las Pymes.

año	autores	metodología	muestra
1987	Miller, D.	cuantitativa	97 empresas
1987	Segev, E.	cuantitativa	252 empresas
1989	Sterman, J.	cuantitativa	192 sujetos
1994	Hart, S. y Banbury, C.	cuantitativa	285 gerentes
1995	Lumpkin, G.T. y Dess, G. G.	cuantitativa	96 ejecutivos
2000	Culkin, N. y Smith, D.	cualitativa	2 empresas
2003	Wiesner, R. y Millett, B.	cuantitativa	1230 empresas
2004	Perks, K y Bouncken, R.	cualitativa	24 empresas
2004	Gibcus, P.; Vermeulen, P. y Jong, J.	cuantitativa	646 empresas
2005	O'Regan, N., Sims, M. y Ghobadian, A.	mixta	1000 empresas
2005	Gibbons, P. y O'Connor, T.	cuantitativa	359 empresas
2005	Verreyne, M. y Meyer, D.	cuantitativa	477 empresas
2006	Verreyne, M.	cuantitativa	447 empresas
2006	Salles, M.	mixta	158 empresas
2007	Raspin, P. y Terjesen, S.	cuantitativa	394 gerentes
2007	Brunetto, Y. y Wharton, R.	cuantitativa	40 gerentes
2008	Boohene, R.; Sheridan, A. y Kotey, B.	cuantitativa	600 propietarios
2009	Xueli, H.	mixta	20 empresas
2009	Kalinic, I.	cualitativa	5 empresas
2009	Metts, G.	cuantitativa	500 empresas
2011	Díaz, K.; Rietdorf, U. y Domberger, U.	mixta	149 empresas
2011	Rausch, E. y Anderson, C.	cualitativa	8 procedimientos
2011	Jansen, R. et al.	cuantitativa	443 decisiones

Fuente: Elaboración propia

Analizando la información presentada e indagando en los artículos referenciados se observó una clara tendencia en los primeros estudios a la utilización de muestras de mayor tamaño analizadas mediante el uso de métodos cuantitativos. Cabe destacar que los primeros trabajos se originan principalmente en países anglosajones (Estados Unidos, Inglaterra, Australia). Países con larga trayectoria en el uso de estadísticas en las Pymes y un alto nivel de sistematización de la información en este colectivo empresarial. De ahí la posibilidad de acceder a muestras de empresas adecuadas para el manejo de este tipo de metodología. En cambio, los trabajos cualitativos que se identificaron durante la década de los 90 tienen su origen en países latinos (México, Francia, Italia, Portugal) y asiáticos (China, Japón). Una explicación podría ser, por un lado, el menor desarrollo en muchas de estas economías de la información y estadísticas sobre las Pymes, pero también, por otro lado, podríamos inferir que existen características culturales diferentes que influyen en la participación de los empresarios en las encuestas empresariales.

Las técnicas cualitativas permiten realizar un trabajo de campo más interactivo y comprometido entre el investigador y el empresario que facilita el involucramiento de éstos en los estudios académicos.

Cualquiera sea el motivo que explique el uso alternativo de estas metodologías, la conclusión relevante que extraemos de la tabla anterior es que en los últimos años, aparecen trabajos que utilizan un enfoque mixto en el estudio del proceso decisorio en las Pymes. Enfoque que se construye a partir de una perspectiva epistemológica pragmática, es decir, un modo de analizar el fenómeno partiendo de la asunción de que no hay una perspectiva predominante para este tipo de estudios, sino que la validez está relacionada a la utilización del mejor método para responder a la pregunta de la mejor forma posible (Burke y Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Frente a este supuesto, la posibilidad de combinar técnicas cuantitativas y cualitativas en el análisis de la misma problemática aumentaría el nivel de validez de los estudios empresariales. A continuación sintetizamos las principales características que definen la metodología mixta en el estudio de los fenómenos sociales.

La Metodología Mixta De Investigación Aplicada A Los Estudios Empresariales

Tashakkori y Teddlie (2003) definen el diseño mixto como un estudio en donde se aplican diferentes abordajes en una o varias fases del proceso de investigación, combinando métodos cualitativos y cuantitativos en diversas formas y secuencias. De esta manera, el surgimiento de una postura epistemológica que contempla la posibilidad de integrar técnicas cuantitativas y cualitativas constituye uno de los avances más importantes en el campo metodológico. Burke y Onwuegbuzie (2004: 16) consideran que “filosóficamente la postura pragmática es un tercer movimiento en investigación que aparta la guerra de paradigmas ofreciendo una alternativa lógica y práctica. Esta lógica incluye la inducción (o descubrimiento de patrones), la deducción (contrastación de teorías e hipótesis), y la abducción (descubriendo y confiando en lo mejor de una serie de explicaciones para comprender cada uno de los resultados)”. Bajo este paradigma, se legitima la adopción de múltiples métodos de distinta naturaleza en vez de restringir su uso, siempre que mejore la validez teórica de acuerdo a las preguntas de investigación. En este sentido, los autores identifican las siguientes características que definen los métodos mixtos: a) se niega el dualismo tradicional (racionalismo versus empirismo, etc.) se adopta una postura basada en el sentido común basado para la resolución de los problemas planteados; b) se reconoce la existencia e importancia de la realidad, las instituciones humanas y los pensamientos subjetivos; c) se otorga un papel importante a la experiencia y a la acción como ejes para analizar la realidad social; d) el conocimiento se construye sobre la base de la realidad; e) las teorías son temporales y contextuales y constituyen el instrumento que permite enmarcar perspectiva de análisis de los fenómenos.

Por lo tanto la validez de las investigaciones, su significado y contribución es contextual y cambiante a lo largo del tiempo; f) se prefiere la acción a la especulación filosófica, y g) la situación presente siempre es un punto de partida. Para la discusión que planteamos en este trabajo, queda claro que la postura pragmática es altamente pertinente para investigar las decisiones estratégicas en las Pymes desde un enfoque descriptivo. Las ventajas más importantes que ofrece son: a) palabras, figuras y relatos pueden ser usados para interpretar números; b) números pueden ser usados para añadir precisión a las palabras, figuras y relatos; c) los investigadores puede generar y testar una “teoría fundamentada en datos”; d) puede responder un amplio y completo rango de preguntas de investigación porque el investigador no está atado a un único método o enfoque; e) permite el diseño secuencial de la investigación y por etapas; f) puede añadir otra visión y comprensión que puede perderse utilizando un único método y de esta forma mejorar la validez y representatividad de los resultados (Burke y Onwuegbuzie, 2004). En los últimos años, se observa en las investigaciones empíricas en procesos decisorios en las Pymes distintas estrategias

metodológicas que combinan la utilización de técnicas cuantitativas (encuestas a muestras grandes de Pymes o estadísticas secundarias) con cualitativas (entrevistas a gerentes, estudios de caso en empresas, etc.). A modo de ejemplo podemos mencionar los artículos de García et al. (2006) sobre la influencia de las estrategias en el crecimiento y rentabilidad de las Pymes españolas, Chong y Shafaghi (2009) para analizar las capacidades de las Pymes para capitalizar las oportunidades del entorno virtual. Otros artículos que pueden consultarse son O'Reagan et al. (2005); Salles (2006); Xueli (2009) y Díaz et al (2011).

METODOLOGÍA

Una propuesta metodológica para el estudio de los perfiles decisorios en las Pymes.

De acuerdo a la revisión teórica y metodológica que hemos expuesto, a modo de ilustración, presentamos la estrategia metodológica que hemos utilizado para caracterizar los perfiles decisorios en un grupo de Pymes argentinas. A través del análisis de los atributos de las decisiones y de los empresarios que las toman, se diseñó una investigación mixta para comprender cómo influyen estas características decisorias en el desempeño de la empresa a corto plazo y a largo plazo.

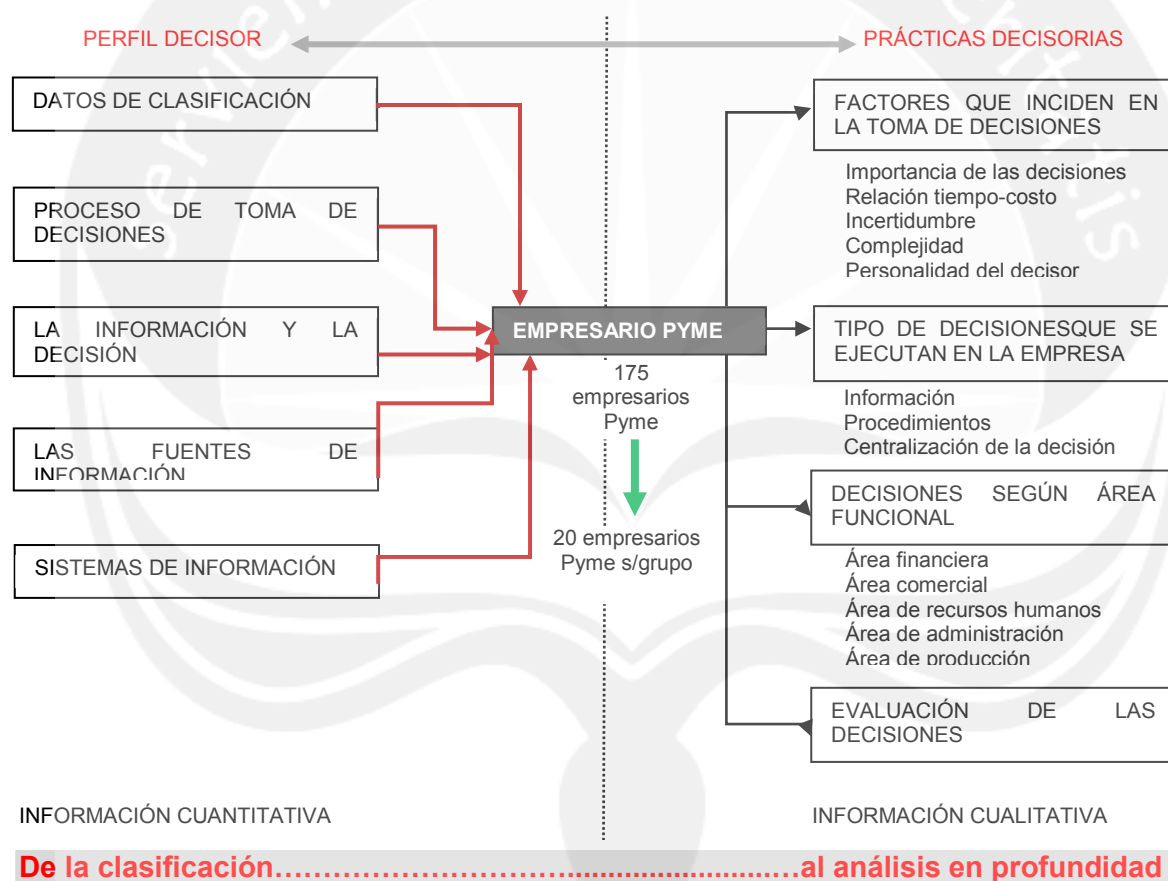
En lo que refiere al contexto argentino, las investigaciones a nivel empírico sobre los perfiles decisorios en las Pymes son prácticamente inexistentes. Respecto a estudios sobre las generalidades de la toma de decisiones en las Pymes argentinas se destaca el trabajo de Kantis (1996, 1998) e investigaciones aplicadas al área de las decisiones de financiamiento (Briozzo y Vigier, 2004; Bleger, y Rozenwurgel, 2000) o de las estrategias exportadoras (Kantis, 1996). Sin embargo no hemos localizado artículos empíricos que identifiquen los perfiles decisorios en las Pymes argentinas en base a datos de características sociodemográficas del empresario, niveles de decisión y fuentes de información utilizada para la toma de decisiones. Por ello, proponemos presentar una estrategia de recolección y análisis de datos que permita analizar el proceso decisorio en las Pymes identificando en primer lugar la heterogeneidad en los perfiles decisorios y posteriormente indagando en profundidad en aspectos de las decisiones desde una perspectiva naturalizada, es decir, a través de la interpretación de la percepción del empresario y del contexto dónde éste decide. Consideramos que la principal contribución es poner a discusión los instrumentos de recolección y análisis de datos para su replicabilidad en otros contextos.

La estrategia metodológica mixta se diseñó para aplicar a una muestra de Pymes que operan en Mar del Plata, Argentina. Las características del entramado productivo de Mar del Plata favorece para la aplicación de este tipo de diseños ya que cuenta con un gran número de empresas Pymes, que representan el 95% del empleo total, una elevada diversificación sectorial y, a nivel regional, existen adecuadas fuentes de información secundaria que facilita la triangulación de información (Producto Bruto Geográfico y los datos del Observatorio Pyme de Mar del Plata). La figura 1 resume la metodología y las fases de análisis que consideramos relevante para elaborar una propuesta integral y holística sobre las decisiones en las Pymes.

El estudio se diseñó de forma secuencial. Para la fase de identificación de los perfiles se administró un cuestionario semi estructurado y estandarizado que indagó en las principales dimensiones que considera la literatura sobre las características de las decisiones empresariales y el decididor. Dado el carácter exploratorio y descriptivo de la investigación se priorizó la representatividad de la muestra mediante la diversidad sectorial y las características socioeconómicas diferenciales de los empresarios. En total se realizaron 175 encuestas a empresarios Pyme de Mar del Plata. El tamaño de la muestra alcanzado así como la información del cuestionario facilitó la realización de un análisis de clasificación por etapas (clusters) que permitió observar el grado de heterogeneidad y especificidad de las Pymes según

características estructurales como son el sector, los atributos socio demográficos del empresario, el tipo de información utilizada y las características de la decisión. De esta forma, la clasificación permitió agrupar empresarios con características homogéneas dentro del grupo de pertenencia pero heterogéneas respecto al resto. En la segunda fase, se seleccionaron 20 empresas para interpretar, mediante entrevistas en profundidad, las acciones realizadas por estos empresarios, las actitudes y estilos de conducción y dirección que practican. La entrevista indagó en ejes temáticos como los factores que inciden en la toma de decisiones, las especificidades en relación a las distintas áreas de la empresa, la temporalidad y el costo de la toma de las decisiones y la evaluación que los mismos empresarios realizan de sus procesos decisorios. Dada la validez teórica del muestreo cualitativo, se pudo obtener información contextual y de comportamiento que permitió comprender las acciones y reflexiones que los mismos empresarios reconocen y evalúan.

Figura 1: Proceso de análisis de la información mixta. Una propuesta de análisis secuencial



Fuente: Elaboración propia.

REFLEXIONES FINALES

Hacia una reflexión metodológica en estudios sobre decisiones en las Pymes.

Como hemos desarrollado a lo largo del artículo, el objetivo de esta revisión teórica y metodológica en el ámbito de las decisiones estratégicas en las Pymes es reflexionar sobre las prácticas de investigación en la temática y discutir sobre la eficacia de métodos para describir adecuadamente la realidad empresarial en un grupo con características particulares, las Pymes. Los resultados de la búsqueda de la literatura han arrojado una serie de conclusiones que llevan a repensar sobre la relevancia de los modelos que habitualmente se utilizan para describir fenómenos de naturaleza idiosincrática, tácita y contextual. De hecho, desde el enfoque estratégico cada vez más se consolida la idea de que las empresas necesitan del desarrollo de capacidades singulares orientadas a la innovación y al desarrollo de aprendizajes organizativos que constituyan la base para la obtención de ventajas sostenibles a largo plazo. Entender este proceso de desarrollo requiere de herramientas académicas fiables y adecuadas para captar la esencia de estos fenómenos. En este sentido, hemos planteado la propuesta metodológica que hemos presentado en este artículo. El objetivo de esta ejemplificación es demostrar la factibilidad de aplicación del método mixto a los estudios en el ámbito de las decisiones estratégicas en las Pymes, por un lado, y de poner en evidencia la baja aplicación de esta metodología en la trayectoria de investigación de la temática.

Del diseño mixto basado en el análisis de contenido de las entrevistas y en los resultados derivados de la realización de la encuesta semiestructurada hemos observado que la información cualitativa favorece a la contextualización de los datos categóricos (mediante el uso de ejemplos, análisis del entorno, interpretación de las acciones y las expectativas). Fundamentalmente, resaltamos que el uso combinado de métodos potencializa las ventajas reconocidas en la metodología cuantitativa y cualitativa. En lo que refiere a la metodología cuantitativa se destaca: 1) la capacidad para generar datos comparables y en muestras grandes que favorecen la representatividad de los estudios empresariales; 2) la facilidad en la captación y análisis de sus datos, en términos de tiempo de ejecución y rapidez de procesamiento, y 3) la capacidad de describir comportamientos agregados. Sin embargo, su carácter ahistórico es una debilidad frente a la utilización de otras metodologías, especialmente en estudios que indagan en procesos y conductas empresariales. En este sentido, muchos estudios basados únicamente en datos cuantitativos descansan en el rigor estadístico, pero carecen de una amplia interpretación de los resultados, especialmente porque ignoran las características del contexto donde se aplican, perdiendo la información idiosincrática y particular del objeto inserto en un contexto determinado.

A diferencia del enfoque cuantitativo, en la fase cualitativa de la investigación, el investigador puede indagar en profundidad diversas categorías que son interpretadas por los mismos sujetos y que permite describir situaciones complejas y dinámicas (Burke y Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Más aún, el análisis de la información en casos reducidos permite explorar situaciones que no se orientan al contraste de hipótesis previamente definidas, sino que son capaces de dar lugar a nuevos interrogantes y planteamientos. La objeción en este caso, es que la ganancia en “profundidad” que alcanzan sus resultados se logra sacrificando su “alcance”, dada su imposibilidad de generalización.

En base a estas consideraciones es que creemos que el uso combinado de métodos cuantitativos y cualitativos mejora la validez de los estudios en el ámbito de las decisiones estratégicas ya que permite captar la heterogeneidad del colectivo Pyme a través de la ampliación de técnicas de muestreo estratificado e indagar en profundidad en casos de relevancia teórica que faciliten la comprensión de los procesos decisorios en contextos específicos y complejos. De esta forma se evita el abuso en la manipulación de las variables en búsqueda del modelo que más se “ajusta” a la realidad a estudiar, como la posibilidad de fallar en el control de la neutralidad en los cualitativos. La triangulación no sólo amplía el alcance y los objetivos de las investigaciones en el área de las decisiones estratégicas, sino que controla eficazmente la validez teórica y operativa de estas investigaciones. Asimismo, la presentación de un

modelo operativo que permita estudiar de forma holística las características del proceso decisorio en las Pymes mejora la validez externa y la transferibilidad a otros contextos.

Finalmente, cabe destacar que dada la incipiente utilización de estos diseños en la temática considerada, surgen algunos interrogantes en relación a la forma de administración de las técnicas propuestas (orden de selección e importancia), de la prioridad que tiene cada uno de estos métodos en la construcción de los resultados agregados o las decisiones que deben adoptarse en el caso de obtener resultados contradictorios entre los datos cuantitativos y cualitativos. Futuras investigaciones deberían contribuir en la contrastación de este tipo de modelos y en la reflexión metodológica que hemos propuesto discutir en este artículo.

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LA RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL CORPORATIVA

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Tradicionalmente la pequeña y mediana empresa se ha definido como a una organización cuyo objetivo es la maximización de beneficios. Este tipo de empresa se preocupa por el bienestar y los beneficios de los propietarios de la empresa, los accionistas. Recientemente, sin embargo, ha ganado fuerza la visión de que la empresa debe tener un comportamiento Socialmente Responsable. Desde el enfoque de gestión empresarial Socialmente Responsable, la empresa a la hora de diseñar e implementar sus estrategias debe tener en cuenta los efectos externos de las mismas sobre todos los agentes sociales implicados en su actividad, los stakeholders. Desde el punto de vista de la Ventaja Competitiva, esta forma de gestión va a conducir además de a una redistribución del excedente de la empresa, a una mejor asignación final de los recursos globales además de una mayor aceptación y por ende a un mejor posicionamiento. El objetivo de este trabajo no radica en hacer una revisión de la literatura referente a la responsabilidad Social Corporativa, si no identificar los conceptos claves de la ésta con un enfoque crítico, discutiendo los pros y los contras de este tipo de gestión empresarial, desde el punto de vista de la Ventaja Competitiva Empresarial.

METODOLOGÍA

Se plantea un esquema sencillo de “*Best Practice*”, a través de un análisis literario que permite clarificar algunos aspectos del debate que rodea la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa. Observándose cómo la motivación subyacente en las decisiones y estrategias empresariales juega un papel importante en el concepto de la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa; analizando y diferenciando aquellas políticas de la empresa que favorecen a alguno de los involucrados o *stakeholders*. Es decir, las que estén simplemente destinadas a incrementar la rentabilidad de la empresa de las que verdaderamente van encaminadas a favorecer al total de los involucrados, y que por ende pueden llegar a catalogarse como parte verdadera de la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa de la pequeña y mediana empresa.

Marco Teórico

La Responsabilidad Social Corporativa consiste en un comportamiento que voluntariamente adoptan las empresas, que van más allá de sus obligaciones jurídicas, que contribuye al desarrollo económico de la comunidad y de la sociedad en general, mejorando la calidad de vida de las personas y sus familias, y que redundará a largo plazo en su propio interés. (Iturbide & Reyes, 2005) La responsabilidad social de las empresas es una parte importante de este contrato social. La responsabilidad social se define como el conjunto de relaciones, obligaciones y deberes generalmente aceptados que las organizaciones tienen con la sociedad. (Robin & Reindenbach, 1987) Tradicionalmente se ha definido la ética empresarial como "un conjunto de principios que prescriben un código de conducta que explica lo que es bueno o malo, lo que está bien o mal" (Kaler, 2003), o como "la aplicación de los valores morales en la solución de problemas a través de un proceso racional de toma de decisiones" (Churchill, 1982).

La función de la responsabilidad social consistiría en clarificar lo que constituye el bienestar social y el tipo de conducta necesaria para alcanzarlo. Definir el bienestar de la sociedad es un proceso continuo en respuesta a los cambios políticos y demográficos, las nuevas tendencias sociales, las nuevas tecnologías y

los vaivenes económicos. (Kreps, 2000). Se entiende por ventaja competitiva aquel conjunto de atributos que posee una empresa que la distinguen de sus competidores y que hace posible la obtención de unos rendimientos superiores a los de éstos, los cuales son además reconocibles por sus clientes. (Villalba, 1996) Para que una ventaja competitiva sea sostenible en el tiempo los recursos y capacidades que la sustentan deben reunir las siguientes características (Collins & Montgomery, 1995): Una de las estrategias para formar las pequeñas y medianas empresas responsables y altamente competitivas es, precisamente, formando alianzas con la gran empresa, donde el gobierno, la academia, las asociaciones y cámaras empresariales y de comercio juegan un papel importante para fomentar la relación y el acercamiento entre empresas, generando un ambiente de negocios de entendimiento y ayuda mutua.

RESULTADOS

A continuación se presenta de acuerdo al análisis literario realizado como una pequeña y mediana empresa puede implementar políticas que se alinean con los intereses de sus fundadores y accionistas, sino con un esquema de “Best Practice”, con las siguientes figuras. El dilema de los directivos es que no pueden separar las consecuencias individuales y colectivas de las organizaciones, como lo muestra la

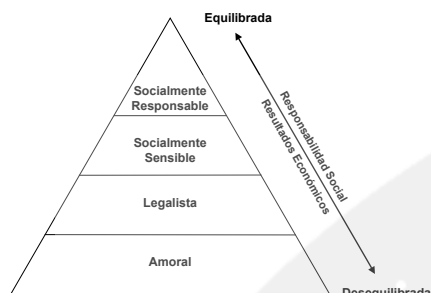
figura 1: Allen & Gale, 2000)



Figura 1: La realidad cambiante de nuestras organizaciones nos plantea la necesidad de encontrar una definición más dinámica que la aproxime a los conflictos y dilemas empresariales y cumpla con objetivo

de servir de guía. El bienestar social se va transformando a partir de las percepciones cambiantes de la sociedad. Satisfechas la mayoría de necesidades básicas, la sociedad se plantea nuevos niveles de bienestar, como el respeto al medio ambiente, la calidad de vida, etc.

Figura 2 :(Hassman, 1996)



Desde el nivel más bajo, la empresa amoral, hasta la empresa socialmente responsable, las empresas se desplazan bajo unas coordenadas enmarcadas por los resultados económicos y la responsabilidad social. Alcanzar el último estado, en que las organizaciones se plantean el reto de conseguir el difícil equilibrio entre los resultados económicos y la responsabilidad social, requiere un modelo de organización cuya misión, valores, estrategia y normas de comportamiento sea coherente con el concepto de bienestar y la conducta definida para alcanzarlo, como lo muestra la

figura 3: (Young, Campbell, & Devine, 2000)



Figura 3

Las empresas socialmente responsables deben incorporar el modelo de bienestar social desarrollado por la sociedad en que se hallan inmersas, adaptando al mismo el porqué de la existencia de la organización, la visión de lo que la organización quiere hacer y llegar a ser a largo plazo, es decir la propia misión; adaptando los objetivos que se plantea alcanzar en su definición de de esta.

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ANÁLISIS DE LA PRESCRIPCIÓN FISCAL EN MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

En la presente investigación se analiza el tema de la prescripción de las obligaciones en materia fiscal en México. La figura de la prescripción ha sido considerada como un medio para adquirir el derecho de extinguir una obligación, por el simple transcurso del tiempo al cumplirse los requisitos que marca la ley. Por consiguiente, la prescripción desempeña un papel de seguridad y certeza jurídica en la relación del particular frente al Estado, por una parte regula el derecho de las autoridades hacendarias para exigir un crédito fiscal a cargo del contribuyente, y por otra, regula la obligación de la propia autoridad a restituir un importe generado a favor del gobernado, al configurarse la prescripción. El objetivo del presente estudio es determinar los factores a favor del contribuyente, que se desprenden al configurarse la prescripción fiscal y el procedimiento legal que éste debe seguir para solicitar a la autoridad la cancelación de la carga tributaria prescrita. Este es un estudio de corte cualitativo de tipo documental que analiza la normatividad vigente y las resoluciones del Tribunal Fiscal, así como el procedimiento a seguir. El resultado de esta investigación confirma la importancia que tiene esta figura jurídica en la práctica en México.

PALABRAS CALVE: prescripción, fiscal, crédito, autoridad.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La prescripción es una de las figuras más antiguas del Derecho e introducida por los romanos al Derecho Común, que la ha reglamentado y de donde las demás ramas de la ciencia jurídica la han adoptado. Sin embargo, el pago de los impuestos y la omisión del pago de los mismos, es un proceso casi tan antiguo como el hombre mismo, el hombre en su devenir, ha estado cobrando y pagando impuestos respectivamente, en este sentido la actividad tributaria ha ido de la mano con la omisión del pago, por consiguiente, el sujeto obligado a tributar, desde siempre ha buscado la forma de extinguir la obligación. En este sentido, se puede entender que la prescripción proviene de nuestros antepasados al igual que la creación del impuesto mismo.

Atendiendo su naturaleza y efectos se ha definido a la prescripción como la adquisición de un derecho o la extinción de una obligación por el simple transcurso del tiempo, al cumplirse las disposiciones establecidas en la ley, de esto deriva la existencia de dos tipos de prescripción: la adquisitiva y la liberatoria. La primera se caracteriza por ser un medio legal que otorga el derecho para llegar adquirir ciertos bienes. En cambio la prescripción liberatoria consiste en la extinción de una obligación. Así, en materia fiscal la obligación de pagar el adeudo de un Crédito Fiscal se extingue por prescripción en un plazo de cinco años a partir de la fecha en que el pago pudo ser legalmente exigido y la autoridad no haya ejercido sus facultados, exigiendo al contribuyente el pago del adeudo.

Sin embargo de acuerdo con Carrasco (2008) el derecho fiscal en México solo contempla la prescripción liberatoria, en efecto, dentro de nuestra disciplina la prescripción opera como una forma de extinguir dos clases de obligaciones, por una parte la obligación del contribuyente de pagar las contribuciones y por la

otra la obligación de la autoridad fiscal de devolver al contribuyente los importes que hubiere pagado de manera indebida o las cantidades que éste tuviera a su favor, cuya devolución deba hacerse conforme a la ley. El presente trabajo tiene por objeto hacer un análisis de lo dispuesto en Código Fiscal de la Federación, así como del procedimiento para obtener la declaratoria de prescripción de créditos fiscales. Cuando la autoridad determine un crédito fiscal, este debe ser notificado de manera correcta para que pueda hacerse exigible legalmente, por consiguiente, la autoridad debe actuar conforme a la normatividad que rige la materia, de esta manera podrá realizar la ejecución forzosa de las cantidades determinadas. El crédito fiscal puede estar integrado por impuestos omitidos, multas, recargos, actualizaciones, así como sus accesorios legales. De acuerdo con Margain (2008), en beneficio del orden público y de la seguridad y certeza jurídica, el derecho de las autoridades para determinar y exigir prestaciones fiscales o restituirlas a los contribuyentes, deberá extinguirse por la prescripción.

Con base en lo establecido en el Código Fiscal de la Federación, la facultad de la Autoridad de hacer exigible el crédito fiscal, se extingue en 5 años, luego entonces, el contribuyente está en condición una vez superado el plazo para solicitar que se confeccione a su favor dicha figura. En este sentido cabe resaltar que bien podemos saber cuándo opera la figura jurídica de la prescripción, más sin embargo el cómo obtener la declaratoria de prescripción es distinto, más aún, cuando la Autoridad no otorga la razón al contribuyente que solicito tal declaratoria, o en caso contrario cuando es la propia Autoridad quien hace uso de tal figura para no regresar las cantidades pagas indebidamente por parte del contribuyente. Luego entonces, es necesario rescatar la figura de la prescripción como una manera de extinguir obligaciones en materia fiscal, de tal forma que el contribuyente no tenga una deuda indefinida con el fisco federal por la inactividad de la Autoridad, o en su caso, la indebida forma de dar a conocer al Contribuyente el adeudo determinado, a través de un crédito fiscal.

De la misma manera, cuando es la propia autoridad quien hace uso de esta figura, recurriendo a la configuración de la prescripción, evitar la devolución de cantidades que tengan derecho a percibir los contribuyentes. Con base en esta figura jurídica los importes no devueltos dentro de los plazos establecidos, en los mismos términos y condiciones quedan a favor de la Autoridad hacendaria.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

El origen constitucional de la figura de la prescripción en nuestro país, se traduce en garantía de seguridad y certeza jurídica, se encuentra establecida en el artículo 16 de la Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos (2011), el cual establece, el derecho a la privacidad, al mencionar que nadie puede ser molestado en su persona, familia, domicilio, papeles o posesiones, sino en virtud de mandamiento escrito de autoridad competente, mismo que debe estar fundado y motivado.

Por su parte el Código Fiscal de la Federación (2011), establece en su artículo 146 que el crédito fiscal se extingue en un término de cinco años, a partir de la fecha en que la autoridad pudo haber exigido la contraprestación, este término inicia, a partir de que el crédito pudo haber sido exigido por la autoridad. La gestión de la autoridad para recuperar el crédito fiscal, interrumpe el término de ley, siempre que se haga del conocimiento del deudor. Se considera gestión de autoridad cualquier diligencia que ésta lleve a cabo tratando de recuperar el monto del crédito fiscal, incluyendo el procedimiento administrativo de ejecución. Es necesario tener en cuenta que de acuerdo al CFF, se considera interrumpido el término de la prescripción, cuando el contribuyente, haya cambiado su domicilio fiscal sin haber dado aviso a la autoridad correspondiente, también cuando este señale de manera incorrecta su domicilio y no sea encontrado por la autoridad fiscal que le busca para notificarle. La interrupción corta el cómputo del

plazo, de manera que cada vez que se actualiza una causal de interrupción, se debe iniciar nuevamente el cómputo de los cinco años.

Por el contrario, si el crédito fiscal ya prescribió por el transcurso del plazo que estipula el artículo 146 del CFF, la interposición de los medio de defensa que después se hagan valer no interrumpirán el plazo correspondiente, pues jurídicamente no es posible interrumpir lo que ya venció; es decir, si ya transcurrió el plazo de la prescripción, ningún reconocimiento podría interrumpir plazo, ya que antes de dicho reconocimiento el crédito fiscal ya se había extinguido por prescripción.

Cuando haya transcurrido el plazo establecido para que se configure la prescripción fiscal, el contribuyente podrá solicitar la declaratoria de prescripción por parte de la autoridad fiscal, con base en el artículo 146 del C.F.F. último párrafo, a través de escrito dirigido a la propia autoridad. A continuación se muestran algunas resoluciones y contradicciones de los de los tribunales colegiados, respecto de la configuración de la prescripción fiscal. Nulidad de la Notificación del Requerimiento de Pago o Gestión de Cobro. No Interrumpe el Plazo para que Opere la Prescripción a que Alude el Artículo 146 del Código Fiscal de la Federación.

En términos de la disposición legal de mérito, el plazo de cinco años para que opere la prescripción de las facultades de las autoridades para hacer efectivos créditos fiscales, inicia a partir de la fecha en que el pago de éstos pudo ser legalmente exigido, y se interrumpe con cada gestión de cobro que el acreedor notifique o haga saber al deudor; o, por el reconocimiento expreso o tácito del deudor respecto de la existencia del crédito. En ese sentido, cuando no pueda acreditarse de manera fehaciente que el deudor tuvo pleno conocimiento de la existencia del crédito, y la gestión de cobro no se notificó con las formalidades exigidas, dando lugar a que se declare la nulidad de dicha notificación, ésta no surte efecto jurídico alguno, por lo que se entiende que el contribuyente no conoció tal acto. Por tanto, esa diligencia no puede tomarse en consideración para la interrupción del plazo de la prescripción a que alude el artículo 146 del Código Fiscal de la Federación, pues es precisamente la notificación la que genera certeza de las gestiones que lleva a cabo la autoridad hacendaria para hacer efectivo un crédito. 2a./J. 198/2009. Contradicción de tesis 353/2009. Entre las sustentadas por el Décimo Sexto Tribunal Colegiado en Materia Administrativa del Primer Circuito y el Tercer Tribunal Colegiado del Octavo Circuito. 28 de octubre de 2009. Cinco votos. Ponente: Margarita Beatriz Luna Ramos. Secretaria: Claudia Mendoza Polanco. Tesis de jurisprudencia 198/2009. Aprobada por la Segunda Sala de este Alto Tribunal, en sesión privada del cuatro de noviembre de dos mil nueve. Prescripción en Materia Fiscal. Su Plazo se Interrumpe con Cada Gestión de Cobro, aun Cuando sea Declarada su Nulidad por Vicios Formales.

De conformidad con el artículo 146 del Código Fiscal de la Federación, el plazo de prescripción se interrumpe con cada gestión de cobro que el acreedor notifique o haga saber al deudor o por el reconocimiento expreso o tácito de éste respecto de la existencia del crédito. Bajo esa óptica, el término de cinco años previsto en el referido precepto para que opere la prescripción de un crédito fiscal cuyo pago se exige al deudor principal o, en su caso, a la institución afianzadora, se interrumpe con cada gestión de cobro efectuada por la autoridad hacendaria competente, aun en el supuesto de que se combata y sea declarada su nulidad para efectos, por contener algún vicio de carácter formal. Ello es así, pues el acto fundamental que da lugar a la interrupción del plazo de la prescripción lo es la notificación, por la cual se hace saber al deudor la existencia del crédito fiscal cuyo pago se le requiere, así como cualquier actuación de la autoridad tendente a hacerlo efectivo, es decir, la circunstancia de que el actor quede enterado de su obligación o del procedimiento de ejecución seguido en su contra, lo que se corrobora con el indicado artículo 146 al establecer como una forma de interrumpir el término de la prescripción, el

reconocimiento expreso o tácito del deudor respecto de la existencia del crédito, de donde se sigue que tal interrupción no necesariamente está condicionada a la subsistencia del acto que constituye la gestión de cobro, sino a la circunstancia de que el deudor tenga pleno conocimiento de la existencia del crédito fiscal exigido por la autoridad hacendaria. 2a./J. 141/2004. Contradicción de tesis 50/2004-SS.

Entre las sustentadas por los Tribunales Colegiados Tercero del Décimo Sexto Circuito, Octavo y Noveno, ambos en Materia Administrativa del Primer Circuito. 10 de septiembre de 2004. Cinco votos. Ponente: Genaro David Góngora Pimentel. Secretaria: Marcia Nava Aguilar. Tesis de jurisprudencia 141/2004. Aprobada por la Segunda Sala de este Alto Tribunal, en sesión privada del veintidós de septiembre de dos mil cuatro. Prescripción de Créditos Fiscales. Una Vez Transcurrido el Término para que Opere, no se Interrumpe por el Posterior Reconocimiento Expreso del Contribuyente al Interponer la Demanda del Juicio Contencioso Administrativo Contra la Resolución que Determina Aquéllos.

De la interpretación del artículo 146 del Código Fiscal de la Federación, se colige que los créditos fiscales se extinguen por prescripción en el término de cinco años, el cual inicia a partir de la fecha en que puede ser legalmente exigido y se interrumpirá con cada gestión de cobro que la autoridad realice dentro del procedimiento administrativo de ejecución y que se notifique al deudor, o por el reconocimiento expreso o tácito de éste sobre la existencia del crédito; bajo tal premisa, una vez transcurrido el citado término, no es dable considerarlo interrumpido por el posterior reconocimiento expreso del contribuyente al interponer la demanda del juicio contencioso administrativo contra la resolución determinante de los créditos impugnados, pues si bien tal reconocimiento constituye uno de los supuestos previstos en el aludido precepto para interrumpirlo, ese reconocimiento se realizó cuando ya los créditos fiscales se habían extinguido al haber transcurrido el plazo previsto para ello. De ahí que si la Sala responsable, toma como base para el cómputo del plazo de cinco años la fecha en que se interpuso el juicio contencioso administrativo y determina que los créditos fiscales no se han extinguido, infringe en perjuicio del quejoso las garantías de legalidad y seguridad jurídica consagradas en los artículos 14 y 16 de la Constitución Federal al interpretar y aplicar indebidamente el precepto en cita. Segundo Tribunal Colegiado en Materias Penal y Administrativa del Vigésimo Primer Circuito. XXI.2o.P.A.84 A. Amparo directo 10/2008. Rigoberto Gallegos Contreras. 15 de mayo de 2008. Unanimidad de votos. Ponente: Jesús Rafael Aragón. Secretaria: Ma. Guadalupe Gutiérrez Pessina.

METODOLOGÍA

Se realizó un estudio documental sobre los ordenamientos constitucionales y fiscales que regulan la materia de la prescripción, se verificaron casos reales en los cuales el contribuyente solicita la prescripción en materia fiscal y el pronunciamiento de los tribunales federales al respecto. El método que se utilizó en esta investigación es el descriptivo, ya que se realizó un análisis, acerca de cómo influyen los factores o elementos para que se confeccione la prescripción en materia fiscal. Se describió la relación entre el fisco federal y el contribuyente a partir del diagnóstico previo de la prescripción, lo cual se podrá corroborar con las situaciones de hecho y de derecho que los propios Tribunales del Poder Judicial de la Federación han emitido en sus tesis en relación a la prescripción. La solicitud de la prescripción por parte del contribuyente y la resolución de las autoridades correspondientes, así como el análisis de las demás disposiciones aplicables a la prescripción permiten dar contestación a la pregunta de esta investigación.

RESULTADOS

Como principales factores a favor del contribuyente para que se configure la prescripción fiscal y se cancele su obligación de pago tenemos:

- 1) Que haya transcurrido el tiempo establecido en las disposiciones fiscales.
- 2) Que durante el periodo establecido en ley, no haya habido acto de autoridad mediante notificación al propio contribuyente, para exigir el pago del crédito fiscal.
- 3) Que el contribuyente deudor no haya hecho cambio de domicilio fiscal sin informar al fisco.
- 4) Una vez que se han reunido los requisitos establecidos en las disposiciones fiscales para que se configure la prescripción fiscal, el contribuyente debe solicitar mediante escrito a la autoridad correspondiente, la declaratoria de prescripción del crédito, a efecto de concluir su responsabilidad.

CONCLUSIONES

Primera. Con base en la resolución de los Tribunales Colegiados de Circuito, la omisión de requerir el pago en el plazo previsto por el Código Fiscal de la Federación da lugar a que el contribuyente ejerza el mecanismo legal para obtener la declaratoria de prescripción. Segunda. Se confirma la importancia que tiene esta figura jurídica para en la extinción de obligaciones fiscales. Tercera. Es un hecho que la prescripción puede ser ejercitada por cualquier contribuyente, cuando el plazo de cinco años ha transcurrido y éste no ha sido requerido de pago por parte de la autoridad.

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ESTUDIO DEL COMPROMISO ORGANIZACIONAL EN UN COLEGIO PARTICULAR, EN ENSENADA, B.C.

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RESUMEN

En este trabajo se analiza el compromiso organizacional de los colaboradores en un colegio de educación básica en la ciudad de Ensenada, Baja California Norte, a través del compromiso afectivo, (el cual consiste en la identificación del colaborador con los valores y filosofía de la empresa), del compromiso continuo (revela el apego de carácter material que el colaborador tiene con la empresa como planes de pensiones, de compra de acciones o por antigüedad o liquidación) y del compromiso normativo (fuerte sentimiento de obligación de permanecer en la empresa por lealtad o adeudo).

El método es cuantitativo, de forma censal, los instrumentos de medición son el de Mowda y Porter y Steers (1979, 1982), se utiliza una combinación de la versión corta de 9 reactivos puntuados en una escala tipo Likert y también el cuestionario desarrollado por Meyer et al. (1993) versión corta en una escala tipo Likert.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Compromiso organizacional, afectivo, normativo y continuo.

INTRODUCCION

Las investigaciones realizadas sobre compromiso organizacional inician a partir de 1960 y se incrementan en la siguiente década, cuando se crean modelos para entender este concepto de gran interés principalmente para los psicólogos, (Becker, 1960; Blau y Scott, 1962; Grusky, 1966; Hrebiniak y Alutto, 1972; Porter Steers, Mowday y Boulian, 1974; Dubin, Champoux y Porter, 1975; Steers 1977).

El compromiso organizacional ha sido definido por diferentes investigadores y coinciden en que es considerado el lazo ó vínculo entre la organización y el trabajador (Mathiew y Zajac, 1990). Por lo cual la definición destaca la relevancia del vínculo como “La fuerza relativa de la implicación y participación del individuo con una organización en particular” (Mowday, Steers y Porter, 1979, p.226).

Como comenta Bentazos y Paz (2007), para los investigadores y personal de recursos humanos la importancia del compromiso organizacional se debe principalmente a que tiene un impacto directo en actitudes y conductas del empleado; como aceptación de metas, valores y cultura de la organización, menor ausentismo y baja rotación de personal entre otros.

A través de diferentes estudios realizados y conforme el término va evolucionando, los investigadores lo han clasificado en 3 perspectivas, desde una perspectiva de intercambio social, definen el compromiso con la organización como el vínculo que establece el individuo con su organización, fruto de las pequeñas inversiones realizadas a lo largo del tiempo, según Becker (1960).

Asimismo, la perspectiva psicológica lo señala como “la fuerza relativa a la identificación individual e implicación con una organización en particular”, un fuerte deseo de permanecer como miembro de una organización en particular, un acuerdo de mantener altos niveles de esfuerzo en beneficio de la

organización y una creencia definitiva y aceptación de los valores y metas de la organización, que resulta de la orientación individual hacia la organización como un fin en sí mismo (Mowday, Steers, y Porter, 1979).

Desde una perspectiva de atribución, se define el compromiso como una obligación que el individuo adquiere como resultado de realizar ciertos actos que son voluntarios, explícitos e irrevocables (Reichers, 1985). Para este estudio, se adoptan los componentes que proponen Allen y Meyer (1990): El compromiso afectivo refleja el apego emocional, la identificación e implicación con la organización, mientras que el continuo se refiere al reconocimiento de los costos asociados con dejar la organización, y el normativo revela los sentimientos de obligación del colaborador de permanecer en la empresa.

Existen una variedad de estudios realizados sobre el compromiso organizacional, sin embargo, el compromiso se ha analizado poco desde la perspectiva de una organización educativa de Latinoamérica, para conocer las diferencias en la percepción que existe en este tipo de instituciones y que además nos permita establecer nuevos modelos aplicables a los países latinos que funcionan con dinámicas completamente distintas a las que se observan en países del primer mundo.

El problema se identifica como la falta de motivación, falta de satisfacción en las compensaciones y estabilidad laboral, variables del compromiso organizacional que tienen los empleados hacia la organización, así como la alta rotación, provocando a la organización empleados que no están comprometidos con la misión, visión y los valores de la institución.

El objetivo general en este estudio de caso es: Describir la relación del compromiso afectivo, compromiso continuo e involucramiento que permiten determinar en un colegio particular en Ensenada. Como objetivos específicos tenemos: el identificar el grado de compromiso afectivo de los empleados en la organización, identificar el involucramiento que mueve a seguir en la organización y relacionar el grado de compromiso continuo de los empleados, basado en utilizar el instrumento de medición de Mowday Porter y Steers (1979, 1982).

Las preguntas de investigación son ¿Cuál es el grado de compromiso afectivo que tienen los empleados hacia el colegio particular? ¿Cuál es el grado de compromiso continuo que tienen los empleados hacia el colegio particular? ¿Cuál es el grado de involucramiento que tienen los empleados hacia el colegio particular? ¿Cuál es el grado de compromiso organizacional que tienen los empleados hacia el colegio particular? y ¿Qué tipo de compromiso los mueve a seguir en la organización?

La justificación del presente estudio de caso que dentro de la organización debe de realizarse diferentes actividades en función de la Misión y Visión, que dependen del desempeño en cada uno de los puestos, las cuales afectan el funcionamiento de la misma y los colaboradores puedan satisfacer sus necesidades y una satisfacción laboral, lo que presenta la necesidad de identificar el grado de compromiso organizacional que tienen los colaboradores hacia la organización y qué tipo de compromiso los mueve a seguir en la organización o a tomar la decisión de irse, los datos que se obtengan serán de utilidad para el personal directivo, para tomar las medidas necesarias e implementar estrategias para integral el total de los colaboradores a tener un alto compromiso organización y así aumentar su desempeño en el trabajo.

El alcance de esta investigación es descriptivo, realizada a un colegio de Ensenada, B.C., México, de nivel primaria y secundaria de forma censal a los 45 empleados de todos los niveles de la organización,

utilizando el método cuantitativo, se les entregó el cuestionario correspondiente con un encabezado que contiene la explicación y presentación del propósito.

REVISION LITERARIA

Compromiso Organizacional

Allport (1942) El grado en que un empleado participa en su trabajo teniendo en cuenta necesidades, prestigio, auto-respeto, autonomía y autoimagen. Involucrándose en la organización, por sus propios intereses personales de auto superación y centrado en sus propios beneficios para Lodahl y Kejner (1965) Definen el compromiso como el grado en el que el desempeño del trabajo de una persona afecta a su autoestima.

Porter y Lawer (1965) Como el deseo de realizar elevados esfuerzos por el bien de la institución, el anhelo de permanecer en la misma y aceptar sus principales objetivos y valores. La involucración en la organización para los sesentas ya se relaciona con el intercambio de intereses de la organización poniendo como principal no tanto en base a lo económico según Kanter (1968) Mantiene, desde una perspectiva ideal, que el compromiso se debe cimentar en unas bases algo más complejas que un simple intercambio económico.

Buchanan (1974) Ve al individuo comprometido, como un miembro de la institución, lo cual genera un sentimiento de apego hacia los objetivos y valores organizacionales. Cuando existe la relación de comprender la misión y visión de la organización y relacionarse con sus valores, el empleado tiene una implicación positiva en la organización como señala Etzioni (1975) El compromiso es la implicación positiva del individuo en la institución.

Esta perspectiva sugiere que se debe integrar la experiencia de compromiso que siente el individuo con los otros aspectos organizacionales que tradicionalmente se han asignado al concepto de compromiso. Para estos autores la integración del individuo en la organización reafirma el sentido de pertenencia que representa continuar en la organización y acatar normas y reglas.

Mathieu y Zajac, (1990) Es un vínculo o lazo del individuo con la organización Identificación: (aceptación de las metas organizacionales) tener las mismas creencias, propósitos, ideas, objetivos, que los de la empresa. Membresía: (deseo de permanecer como miembro) sentimiento de pertenencia hacia la organización (ser parte de) Lealtad: cumplimiento y respeto hacia la organización mediante acciones dirigidas a defenderla. La relación que establece con la organización aceptar, deseo de ser parte y tener el sentido de respeto hacia la organización es el grado de compromiso.

Meyer y Allen (1991) Es un mejor predictor de desempeño y contribución del capital humano, pues es una respuesta más global y duradera a la organización como un todo, que la satisfacción en el puesto. Un empleado puede estar insatisfecho con un puesto determinado, pero considerarlo una situación temporal y, sin embargo, no sentirse insatisfecho con la organización como un todo. Pero cuando la insatisfacción se extiende a la organización, es muy probable que los individuos consideren la renuncia.

Schein, (1992) En una organización pueden existir múltiples culturas, y cualquier grupo de trabajadores desarrolla su propia cultura, por lo que esta puede diferir de unos equipos a otros, incluso dentro de una misma organización cultura de equipo se maneja como un término sinónimo de cultura organizacional. La

combinación de grupos dentro de la organización influyen para determinar si los empleados se involucran obteniendo compromiso organizacional.

Desde perspectivas empleados y organizaciones

En el compromiso organizacional intervienen empleados y organizaciones, que son las principales protagonistas en propiciar el compromiso y han sido objeto de estudio las relaciones entre sí, identificando los beneficios que representa como nos señala Betanzos y Paz (2007) Empleados Permite estabilidad laboral, que impacta en prestaciones, jubilación, beneficios sociales, y garantiza cubrir necesidades tanto materiales como psicológicas (reconocimiento, desarrollo de habilidades, socialización, estatus) beneficiando a las familias y economía del país. Investigadores y personal de R. H. un impacto directo en actitudes y conductas del empleado; como aceptación de metas, valores y cultura de la organización, menor ausentismo y baja rotación de personal entre otros.

Desde perspectiva de intercambio social, intercambio psicológico, perspectiva de atribución el compromiso. La perspectiva de intercambio social Becker (1960) definió el compromiso con la organización como el vínculo que establece el individuo con su organización, fruto de las pequeñas inversiones (sidebest) realizadas a lo largo del tiempo. Según esto, la persona continúa en la organización porque cambiar su situación supondría sacrificar las inversiones realizadas.

La perspectiva psicológica es la fuerza relativa a la identificación individual e implicación con una organización en particular” Un fuerte deseo de permanecer como miembro de una organización en particular, Un acuerdo de mantener altos niveles de esfuerzo en beneficio de la organización, Una creencia definitiva y aceptación de los valores y metas de la organización, que resulta de la orientación individual hacia la organización como un fin en sí mismo (Mowday, Steers, y Porter, 1979) La formación del compromiso psicológico, depende del intercambio que mantiene el empleado con la organización, puesto que la persona espera recibir determinadas recompensas psicológicas como obtener nuevos conocimientos, reconocimiento de su grupo de trabajo etcétera. (Mathieu y Zajac, 1990).

La perspectiva de atribución el compromiso como una obligación que el individuo adquiere como resultado de realizar ciertos actos que son voluntarios, explícitos e irrevocables (Reichers, 1985) está más vinculada a la dimensión de “ética del trabajo” propuesta por Morrow (1983). Esta ética del trabajo puede ser definida como una responsabilidad que nace del interior del individuo y que impulsa a hacer el mayor esfuerzo posible por realizar un buen trabajo Varona, (1993).

El compromiso es la implicación en el puesto es un constructo diferente del compromiso organizacional. Mowday et al., (1979) y Porter et al., (1974) consideran la implicación en el puesto como parte del compromiso, aspecto que también fue hipotetizado. Kanungo (1982) Incluye en su definición de implicación ya sea con un trabajo en particular o con el trabajo en general. Marca que la implicación se lleva a cabo bajo un proceso de discriminación del individuo que decide intencionalmente orientarse a la organización como un fin en sí mismo y que es “una creencia o estado cognitivo de identificación psicológica”.

Morrow (1983) Considera a la implicación en el puesto como aspecto del compromiso y la incluye como faceta del compromiso con la organización. O Reilly y Chatman (1986) Lo enfocan principalmente a la atadura psicológica por medio de una identificación e implicación empleado – empresa.

Mathieu y Zajac (1990) Indicarón que las dos variables pueden estar correlacionadas pues la organización provee a los empleados de trabajos que ellos desean y esto hace que los trabajadores se ligen a su organización. Meyer y Allen (1991) No la consideran como variable relevante en su modelo Guthrie, Spell, y Ochoki (2002) Investigaron el compromiso y la implicación como variables correlacionadas.

Compromiso Organizacional

Las dimensiones propuestas por Allen y Meyer incluyen el compromiso afectivo, el cual consiste en la identificación psicológica del colaborador con los valores y filosofía de la empresa. En realidad es muy frecuente que el colaborador no se percate de la sintonía entre sus valores y los de la empresa, sin embargo, esta identificación y afinidad con la organización se manifiestan con actitudes tales como un marcado orgullo de pertenencia del colaborador hacia su compañía. Esta identificación también se refleja en la solidaridad y aprehensión del colaborador con los problemas de su empresa, se preocupa cuando su empresa va mal, y muestra una gran felicidad cuando va bien. En términos coloquiales, el colaborador que tiene un alto compromiso afectivo es aquel que “tiene bien puesta la camiseta”. Normalmente los colaboradores con un alto compromiso afectivo, tienden a manifestar una buena predisposición a los cambios organizacionales, se implican en ellos, y están dispuestos a trabajar más de lo que está establecido, actitudes que son altamente deseables por gerentes y directores. Por otra parte, diversos estudios han demostrado que el compromiso afectivo de los colaboradores tiende a aumentar en la medida en que éstos experimentan mayor autonomía, responsabilidad, y significación de su trabajo (Arciniega. y González, 2002).

El compromiso continuó revela el apego de carácter material que el colaborador tiene con la empresa. Con el paso del tiempo el colaborador percibe que va haciendo pequeñas inversiones en la compañía, las cuales espera que le reditúen, pudiendo ser inversiones monetarias tales como planes de pensiones, de compra de acciones o bien la parte que se paga por antigüedad en una liquidación, hasta inversiones intangibles como el estatus que tiene en la empresa y que perdería si se fuera (Bayona, Goñi y Madorrán 1999).

Otro aspecto que considera esta variable son las oportunidades que tiene el colaborador para conseguir otro trabajo de condiciones similares al que tiene en su empresa actual, luego entonces en la medida en que percibe que sus oportunidades fuera de la compañía son reducidas, se incrementa su apego con la empresa para la cual trabaja.

El colaborador que tiene un alto compromiso continuo, y que en los otros dos tipos mantiene un nivel bajo o moderado, tiende a manifestar estabilidad laboral, la cual puede ser puramente situacional. Por otra parte, su esfuerzo, dedicación y entrega al trabajo radican en alcanzar los niveles de “mínimos aceptables”, es decir el colaborador sólo cumple con lo estrictamente necesario para seguir trabajando en la empresa y capitalizar sus inversiones, o bien, espera una mejora en las oportunidades externas para dejar la empresa. (Arciniega. y González, 2002).

El compromiso normativo, el cual al igual que el compromiso afectivo es de naturaleza emocional, y consiste en la experimentación por parte del colaborador de un fuerte sentimiento de obligación de permanecer en la empresa. Este sentimiento de obligación suele tener sus orígenes en la formación del valor de lealtad en el individuo desde su niñez, su adolescencia, e inclusive en sus primeras experiencias

laborales, es decir el sujeto aprende y da por hecho, que debe ser leal con la empresa que le contrate, desde luego la aplicación de este valor se hace presente en otros contextos de la vida de la persona.

Por otra parte, el individuo puede llegar a desarrollar un fuerte sentimiento de obligación a permanecer en su empresa, por efecto de experimentar una sensación de deuda hacia su compañía por haberle dado alguna oportunidad y/o recompensa que fue intensamente valorada por el colaborador.

En síntesis, y recurriendo nuevamente al lenguaje cotidiano el colaborador con un alto compromiso normativo es el “colaborador incondicional”. El colaborador con un alto compromiso normativo será por tanto, un incondicional al momento de desarrollar un nuevo proyecto, aunque quizás no con la energía y el entusiasmo del colaborador con alto compromiso afectivo, pero si con la garantía que estará presente en todo momento (Arciniega y González, 2002).

El instrumento de medida utilizado con más frecuencia para cuantificar esta dimensión ha sido el OCQ de Porter et al. (1974), si bien el instrumento pone más énfasis en la lealtad (la intención de continuar) y el esfuerzo en beneficio de la organización, que en el contenido afectivo. Más recientemente se han propuesto el cuestionario de Meyer, Allen y Smith en el año de 1993 cuyo contenido apunta de una forma más precisa al aspecto emocional, que coincide con la descripción de la dimensión afectiva, el vínculo psicológico a través de sentimientos como la lealtad, afecto, calor, apego y pertenencia, entre otros.

Compromiso Personal hacia la Organización, de Meyer y Allen (1991), el cual fue construido con el propósito específico de medir los tres componentes del compromiso descrito antes. Dicho instrumento ha sufrido diversas modificaciones a lo largo del tiempo. Una de los dos instrumentos aplicados el primero se tomo la versión dada a conocer por Meyer, Allen y Smith en 1993. Ha mostrado validez y confiabilidad en otras culturas, incluyendo la coreana Ko, Price y Mueller (1997). Vandenberghe (1996) aplicó una versión un tanto modificada de este instrumento.

entre personas dedicadas a la enfermería en la región francoparlante de Bélgica. Encontró apoyo para el modelo de los tres factores mencionados. En esas pesquisas, la confiabilidad de las escalas de compromiso afectivo y normativo han sido las aceptadas internacionalmente, mientras la correspondiente al compromiso de continuidad ha resultado baja. Mencionan Galicia, Mercado y Beláusteguigoitia (1998) En México igualmente, se encontraron índices adecuados de confiabilidad en las escalas de Compromiso Afectivo, y Normativo (alphas respectivas: afecto, de .71 a .81; Normativo, de .63 a .82; de Continuidad, de .47 a .48. En un Análisis psicométrico del compromiso organizacional como variable actitudinal menciona Betanzos y Paz (2007) Se analizó la estructura factorial y consistencia interna a partir de la respuesta de 369 empleados de una empresa de telecomunicaciones, el análisis factorial exploratorio arroja tres factores empíricos. Posteriormente mediante un análisis factorial de segundo orden, estos factores quedan agrupados en un macro factor que tiene un valor propio de 2.2, explica el 71.8% de la varianza y muestra una adecuada consistencia interna $\alpha = 0.80$

METODOLOGIA

Proceso

Es una investigación realizada a un colegio de Ensenada, B.C., México, de nivel primaria y secundaria turno matutino de forma censal a los 45 empleados de todos los niveles de la organización. Se consideraron como variables de control el involucramiento y el compromiso afectivo. Las dimensiones

que se manejan son el compromiso afectivo evaluando la percepción de un trabajo seguro y estable en el futuro, el saber su percepción sobre si la empresa le faculta para tomar decisiones que repercuten sobre su trabajo diario y, además, si siente que su trabajo le llena como persona, entre otras.

Instrumentos

Los instrumentos utilizados de medición es el de Mowday Porter y Steers (1979, 1982). Se utiliza una combinación de la versión corta de 9 reactivos puntuados en una escala tipo Likert que va de (a) siempre (b) Casi siempre (c) Neutral (d) Casi Nunca (e) Nunca. Se tiene una consistencia interna alpha de cronbach del instrumento de 0.87 (Bayona et al., 2000) y también se aplicó el cuestionario desarrollado por Meyer et al. (1993) versión corta de 9 reactivos en una escala tipo Likert que va de (a) siempre (b) Casi siempre (c) Neutral (d) Casi Nunca (e) Nunca. La muestra se compone de 32 mujeres y 12 hombres de una edad promedio de 43 años, con escolaridad promedio de licenciatura, con una antigüedad promedio de 6.4 años en la empresa. Utilizando el método cuantitativo, de forma censal se les entregó el cuestionario correspondiente con un encabezado que contiene la explicación y presentación del propósito del estudio, se les permitió responderlo sin recibir información o ayuda adicional.

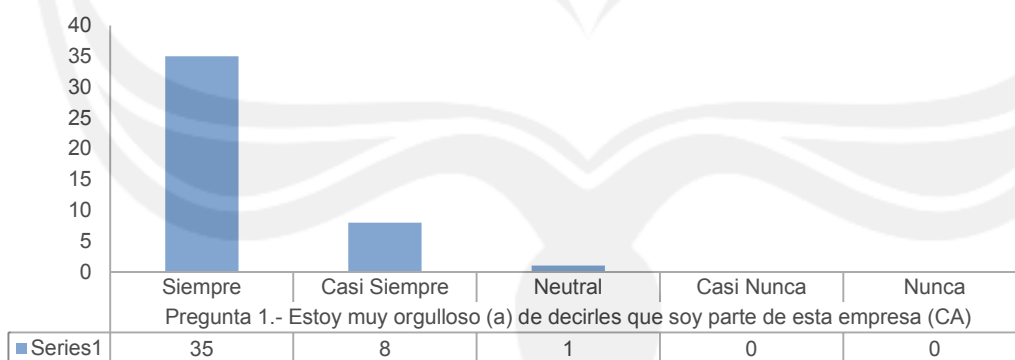
Las variables independientes estudiadas son: Compromiso Afectivo (CA), Compromiso Normativo (CN)

La variable dependiente es: Involucramiento (INV)

RESULTADOS

En los resultados obtenidos se observa un alto compromiso afectivo en la mayoría, pues de los 44 empleados, el 79% respondieron que se sienten orgullosos de laborar en la empresa.

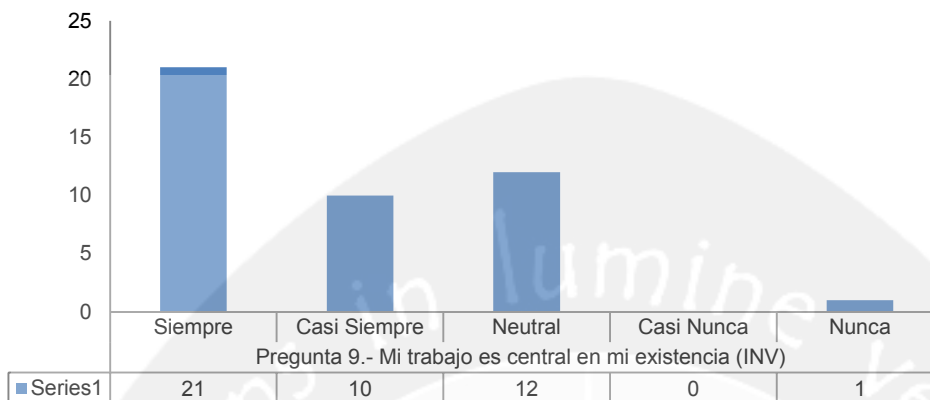
Figura No.1 Estar orgulloso de pertenecer a esta empresa.



laboración propia

En la pregunta 9, ya observamos que el involucramiento va siendo menor, pues hay un 27.3% que dice sentirse neutral ante la propuesta de que sea su trabajo central en su existencia y solo el 47.7% declara sentirse así. (Tabla 5, página 48)

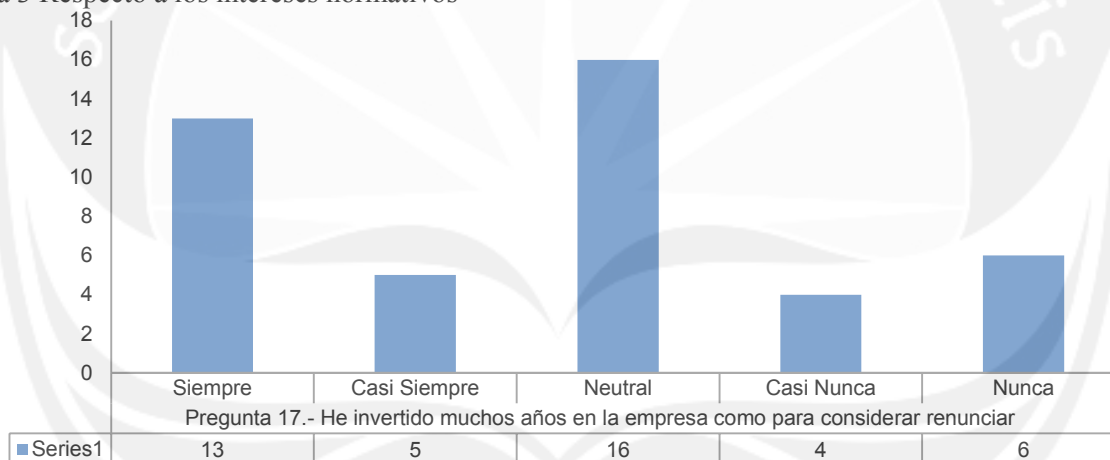
Figura No.2 El trabajo es central en su existencia



Elaboración propia

La mayoría de los empleados tienen intereses en permanecer en la organización porque han invertido muchos años en la empresa como para considerar renunciar.

Figura 3 Respecto a los intereses normativos



Elaboración propia

Correlacion De Pearson-En cuanto a las correlaciones, se observa una alta correlación entre el compromiso afectivo y el normativo, no siendo así para el involucramiento, aunque es significativo a un nivel de significancia de 0.01

CONCLUSIONES

Se observan las distintas escalas del compromiso que van desde el afectivo hasta el normativo en las respuestas recibidas de esta muestra, ya que el empleado también percibe el alto costo que representaría para el dejar la organización, pero igualmente manifiesta su identificación con las metas de la empresa.

El compromiso afectivo alude a lo que el empleado siente por la empresa como un todo, ya que el sentimiento refleja la cualidad afectiva (Vega y Garrido, 1998) en Bentazos y Paz (2007).

La mayor parte de empleados que tienen alto compromiso afectivo son los que han estado en la organización un promedio de 6.4 años, sin embargo, dentro de la muestra existen empleados con 20 años de antigüedad o más, los cuales demuestran mayor compromiso normativo que afectivo, por el alto costo que para ellos representaría dejar su trabajo después de haber invertido tanto tiempo ahí.

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ESTRATEGIAS DE COMERCIALIZACIÓN INTERNACIONAL DEL QUESO COTIJA REGIÓN DE ORIGEN

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RESUMEN

Este estudio analiza la posibilidad de comercializar internacionalmente el Queso Cotija Región de Origen, por medio de estrategias de marketing. Es importante señalar que la elaboración de los productos elaborados a base de leche, es una de las principales actividades económicas en México. Durante el desarrollo de la investigación se especifica la situación económica y social del Queso Cotija Región de Origen, así como la aceptación que éste tiene a nivel internacional. Los resultados indican que dicha situación y aceptación ha generado una demanda del producto que deberá satisfacerse. En este sentido se demuestra que, con base en la aceptación que el queso tiene, y a la demanda actual del mismo, existen las condiciones para generar una mayor comercialización que beneficiará a productores y al estado de Michoacán en general. A partir de los argumentos vertidos en esta investigación para afirmar el potencial del producto en el exterior, se analizarán y discutirán los factores que determinan el diseño de una estrategia eficiente para la comercialización internacional de este producto.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Estrategias, Comercialización, Producto Artesanal.

INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES MARKETING CHEESE COTIJA REGION OF ORIGIN

ABSTRACT

This study examines the possibility of marketing internationally the Cheese Cotija Region of Origin through marketing strategies. Importantly, the development of products made from milk, is one of the main economic activities in Mexico. During the development of research specified the economic and social situation of Cheese Cotija Region of Origin, and acceptance that it has internationally. The results indicate that this situation and acceptance, has generated a demand of the product, to be should satisfy. Works focused on the acceptance the cheese have, and the current demand, there are conditions to generate increased trade that producers benefit and the state of Michoacán, Mexico. From the arguments presented in this investigation so affirm the potential of the product abroad, is analyzed and discuss the factors that determine the design of an efficient strategy for the international marketing of this product.

JEL: M16, M30, M31, M39

KEYWORDS: Strategies, Marketing, products crafts.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El problema del fracaso empresarial de microempresas impacta en la actividad económica de la misma y en el desarrollo del lugar donde se encuentra. La situación de crisis actual en el mundo se manifiesta por la gran cantidad de empresas quebradas y por la falta de estrategias por parte de la empresa para adaptarse

de manera ágil a los cambios constantes del ámbito empresarial. Esto ha impulsado el desarrollo de estrategias de comercialización que sean competitivas internacionalmente, para que la empresa se mantenga en constante actualización de sus actividades diarias, así como de los cambios de su entorno, logrando así una rápida y eficiente toma de decisiones.

Esta investigación se presenta organizada de la siguiente forma. En la sección de revisión de la literatura se plantean los argumentos que sustentan el uso de las estrategias de comercialización basados en las necesidades de la empresa y del mercado en el que se desempeña. Posteriormente se presenta la metodología utilizada, en donde se describe el procedimiento para la recopilación de información necesaria para ver el impacto de la aplicación de estrategias en las empresas que conforman la asociación de productores de Queso Cotija Región de Origen; se identifican las variables que impactan en toda estrategia de mercado (producto, precio, plaza y promoción), se evalúa la estrategia que se está utilizando en cada una de las variables, así como de qué manera se podría hacer más eficiente. Posteriormente se presentan los resultados de la investigación, para finalmente presentar las conclusiones, limitaciones y futuras líneas de investigación.

PANORAMA GENERAL

El Queso Cotija Región de Origen es un producto que se ha elaborado de manera artesanal desde hace más de 400 años. Su producción ha representado el sustento económico de las familias que lo producen (200 familias, actualmente), las cuales se han visto afectadas por la aparición de las grandes industrias productoras de quesos (Villegas, 2000). Su periodo de elaboración se restringe a los meses de lluvia debido a que la vegetación con la que se alimenta el ganado es más abundante durante esta época, aumentando la producción de leche (Álvarez, 2005). Las piezas suelen ser de 20 kilos en promedio derivados de los 200 litros de leche de excelente calidad.

El Colegio de Michoacán afirma que la demanda del citado queso ha entrado en un proceso de recuperación ya que hasta el año 2000 esta había disminuido en más del 80%, sin embargo, gracias a una serie de eventos y que ilustran con toda elocuencia la bondad de la organización y el camino posible a seguir para los actores económicos lo constituyen la experiencia de un grupo de productores de queso Cotija que ha impulsado una serie de acciones tendientes a lograr el reconocimiento de la denominación de origen para el queso Cotija.

En el año 2005, los productores de la región de Jalmich crearon una asociación llamada Asociación Regional de Productores de Queso Cotija mediante la cual han logrado obtener la Marca Colectiva (MC) para el queso que se elabora en esta región, bajo la figura legal de la Sociedad de Producción Rural, por parte del Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial (IMPI) (Álvarez, 2005).

De acuerdo con lo publicado por Bustar Alimentos en 2007, los productos lácteos participaban con un 97% dentro del mercado de nostalgia hasta agosto del 2006, lo que implica en que en realidad se cuenta con un mercado potencial. Así mismo también publicó la demanda queso semi-seco que para finales 2006 en algunos estados de Estados Unidos era de: California 1,559,220 lb, Texas 952,043 lb, New York 1,341,718 lb, Louisiana 299,321 lb y Florida 1549,305 lb, todas estas anualizadas.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

En la literatura de la comercialización internacional revisada se distinguen por tener un enfoque mercadológico, ya que integra estrategias propias del marketing, para ello Lerma (2004), destaca varios

elementos que intervienen en la aplicación de la mercadotecnia internacional: Producto. Aquellos bienes o servicios que puedan ser necesitados en el mercado meta, además que presenten alguna ventaja competitiva significativa y observable con respecto a otras opciones que puedan tener los consumidores. Precio. Se establece para ser manejado dentro del país del vendedor, el cual debe cubrir los costos fijos y variables, gastos y margen de utilidad correspondientes, además de atender a la situación del mercado, competencia y objetivos de la organización. Plaza (Distribución). Consumidores, clientes, mercado meta, segmento, nichos, canales de distribución, logística, posicionamiento, mapas perpetuables y diferenciación. Promoción. Actividad o proceso destinado a estimular al comprador potencial a la adquisición de bienes, servicios, ideas, valores y estilo de vida y Posventa que se refiere a la atención al cliente después de la venta.

En general los estudios teóricos respecto a la comercialización hacen énfasis a las variables antes mencionadas, y en el desarrollo de una estrategia para cada variables de acuerdo a las necesidades del mercado y de la propia empresa, (McCarthy y Perreault, 2006; Kotler y Armstrong, 2002; Fischer y Espejo, 2004; Lamb, Hair y McDaniel, 2002; Czinkota, 2002; Keegan y Green, 1998; entre otros). En el proceso de selección de la muestras, se tomaron a todos los productores de Queso Cotija Región de Origen que pertenecen a la asociación y que no han obtenido resultados, para implementar una estrategia de comercialización basada en el marketing.

MÉTODO

Para recolectar la información se recurrió a la aplicación de una encuesta 92 productores miembros de la Asociación de productores de Queso Cotija Región de Origen los días 11, 12 y 13 de Agosto de 2010. Dicha encuesta incluyó 42 preguntas, dividida en cinco aspectos: Producto, Precio, Distribución, Promoción y Comercialización. Para ordenar las respuestas, se utilizó una escala de medición tipo likert, la información obtenida se procesó mediante una distribución de frecuencias.

En la primera fase, se entrevisto de manera presencial a cada uno de los 92 productores, posteriormente se procesaron los datos obtenidos, para verificar la relación directa de las estrategias usadas con la comercialización internacional, y poder proponer, de ser necesario estrategias más eficientes.

RESULTADOS

Aplicando la metodología descrita en la primera fase se obtuvo como resultado que no se cuenta con estrategias establecidas para una comercialización eficiente, el producto es elaborado con los mayores estándares de calidad, sin embargo no se tienen planes para mejorar el atractivo en la presentación del producto, de igual manera no hay estrategias para el precio, este se establece mediante costos y gastos aplicados en el producto. Los canales de distribución son muy escasos y es el único apartado donde se cuenta con una estrategia para nichos de mercado.

El 48% de los productores encuestados consideran que el mayor obstáculo para comercializar internacionalmente son las normas existentes para la exportación de productos elaborados de manera artesanal, sin embargo no cuentan con ninguna estrategia para garantizar el cumplimiento de dichas normas.

CONCLUSIONES

La validación interna y externa se realizó para poder hacer una propuesta de estrategia para comercializar internacionalmente, a través de encuestas, análisis de capacidades y aplicación de estrategias, esto dio como resultado que la falta de comercialización del Queso Cotija Región de Origen se debe a falta de planeación estratégica dentro de la propia asociación de productores.

El Queso Cotija Región de Origen es un producto de calidad que es demandado en el sector externo, la demanda ha crecido anualmente preponderantemente, por lo cual hay un porcentaje muy alto de garantía para la comercialización. La gran mayoría de este producto se destina a mercados nacionales, donde extrañamente la mayoría de los clientes no saben diferenciar entre un Queso Cotija genuino y un queso Tipo Cotija, sin embargo esta cuestión si es puramente identificada entre los clientes del extranjero. Los productores no realizan la comercialización internacional. El principal factor para la falta de comercialización internacional, es que no tienen estrategias por lo tanto no hay un plan a seguir y eso detona la falta de estudios para el logro de la internacionalización del producto.

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FACTORES QUE INTERVIENEN EN EL DESARROLLO Y CONTINUIDAD DE LAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES DE TEHUACÁN

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RESUMEN

La empresa familiar es un motor generador de riqueza económica y bienestar social a nivel mundial. Sin embargo, presenta una tasa de mortalidad muy alta, debido principalmente al reto que representa el conjuntar los diferentes fines e intereses de los sistemas que la componen. Un problema grave al que se enfrenta la empresa familiar en México es la falta de formalidad, la ausencia de reglas para diferenciar sus sistemas y poder conservar por un lado la armonía en la familia y por el otro, la competitividad y rentabilidad en la empresa. Esta es una investigación documental y de campo mediante la aplicación de cuestionarios a empresas familiares de manufactura, comercio y servicios de la ciudad de Tehuacán, Puebla, cuyo objetivo principal es determinar el grado de profesionalización de las empresas familiares de dicha ciudad y analizar cómo se relaciona con el desempeño exitoso de la organización familiar.

HABILIDADES SOCIALES, FACTOR DETERMINANTE EN LA TOMA DE DECISIONES EN EL SECTOR SERVICIOS: RESTAURANTES TURÍSTICOS, EN ENSENADA, B. C.

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RESUMEN

Las habilidades sociales, también definidas como competencias genéricas, contemplan la comunicación, la influencia, el establecimiento de vínculos y la empatía. El desarrollo de estas por los individuos que se desempeñen en una organización, puede generar la consolidación de una ventaja competitiva. La presente investigación analizará, que tan determinante son las habilidades sociales (de comunicación, influencia, establecimiento de vínculos y empatía), respecto a la toma de decisiones, del modelo racional limitado, en el nivel directivo, (Simón, 1957, citado en Lambarry, V. 2010), en el sector servicios de Ensenada, Baja California, específicamente en los restaurantes turísticos del mismo. La investigación es descriptiva, correlacional transversal, contempla una fase de investigación cuantitativa, complementada con la cualitativa que permitirá obtener información para mejorar los procesos de gestión interna, gracias al desarrollo de estas habilidades. En primera instancia, la hipótesis plantea que las habilidades sociales son determinantes en la toma de decisiones. Como aportación, de la investigación, se pretende generar una caracterización del sector en relación a las variables, y a la par, un esquema relacional que permita identificar la importancia que tiene el desarrollo de estas habilidades sociales en un sector que por sí solo aporta al PIB del país, 70% para el 2006 (Coll- Hurtado & Ordoñez, J.)

JEL: M1

PALABRAS CLAVE: habilidades sociales, toma de decisiones, inteligencia emocional

INTRODUCCIÓN

Esta investigación está dirigida principalmente a todos los directivos de organizaciones, en particular restaurantes turísticos, los cuales son responsables de adaptarse y adaptar a su organización a los cambios vertiginosos del entorno económico global, debido a que es necesario permanecer y sobresalir en este medio.

Actualmente a nivel mundial, las organizaciones requieren de directivos que respondan al ritmo de la economía, en cuanto a conocimiento, ideas, formación, productos, tecnología, apoyándose en la Inteligencia Emocional (IE), la cual otorga a las personas la posibilidad de generar habilidades que apoyen para una adecuada gestión. (Trujillo, 2006).

Los últimos estudios realizados en el campo empresarial han hecho visible, que entre los profesionistas que requieren mayor grado de IE son los directivos pero también los psiquiatras, ingenieros, docentes, asistentes sociales. Por lo contrario, los informáticos, los técnicos de laboratorio o los contables no

precisan tanta IE en su trabajo, aunque ésta nunca está de sobra (Enebral, F., 2003, citado en Trujillo, 2006).

“Actualmente los países llamados del primer mundo han empezado a requerir directivos que presenten altos rangos de IE en su currículo” (Trujillo, 2006). Dadas las consideraciones anteriores, este estudio se enfoca en los términos de Inteligencia Emocional, y toma de decisiones, debido a que los directivos de las organizaciones son los responsables directos de su aplicación, para generar habilidades de liderazgo y lograr una gestión adecuada a sus necesidades, en esta ocasión para fines prácticos de la investigación, solo se tomara de la IE, la variable Habilidad Social (HS) a diferencia de otros estudios donde consideran otros aspectos.

ANTECEDENTES

La toma de decisiones dentro de una organización es una tarea sistemática con tiempos específicos en cada una de estas, donde una decisión mal tomada puede conllevar una situación que comprometa al individuo que la llevo a cabo. (Cabeza de Vergara, 2010).

En ese mismo sentido, es indispensable que la persona encargada de tomar las decisiones cuente con una adecuada capacitación, conociendo de manera amplia los pasos y características que constituyen los procesos para tener opciones a la hora de elegir una alternativa.

Dentro de las disciplinas científicas de occidente, se investiga la toma de decisiones en la gerencia, donde ha existido una fijación específica en la explicación de lo que (Hadit, 2001 citado en Salas, 2010). Llamo “adoración de la razón” y por otro lado se habla que “los investigadores han encontrado que la intuición desempeña un papel crítico en la toma de decisión experta. (Trujillo, 2006).

De acuerdo a los conceptos anteriores, e incluyendo la variable habilidades sociales, en la cual intervienen factores como: la influencia, que determina si una persona puede llevar a cabo la decisión; seguida de la manera de comunicarlo, siendo claro de preferencia, o confuso en su defecto; luego la manera de vincularse con los colaboradores; si el tomador de decisiones incluye el interés de las personas o solo el de la organización; continuando con la manera de empatizar con estos y si se adapta o no a todos estos factores que pudieran determinar la toma de decisión.

Analizar cómo se relacionan estas variables a la hora de tomar una decisión, debido a que cada directivo puede tomar, o no en cuenta todos estos aspectos, ya sea de manera nata o aprendida, conociendo o ignorando los procesos estructurados para ello, o simplemente actuando conforme la situación lo amerite, generándose a si innumerables decisiones, sean trascendentales u ordinarias, pero que al final se reflejan en los resultados que se planearon o se desean obtener. Otra variable a considerar en esta investigación, son las (HS), debido a la implicación que tienen estas en el proceso anterior.

PLANTEAMIENTO DEL PROBLEMA

Adaptarse y adaptar a la organización a los cambios vertiginosos del entorno económico global, debido a que es necesario permanecer y sobresalir en este medio. Por ello, se ve, a la Inteligencia Emocional como una habilidad para una adecuada gestión. Los países del primer mundo han empezado a requerir directivos con alto rango en Inteligencia Emocional en su currículo. Trujillo, 2006.

Como se afirma anteriormente, en el sector servicios es indispensable contar con habilidades, debido al trato directo de persona a persona, ya sea cliente, proveedor, empleado, compañero o jefe inmediato superior, para generar una ventaja y permanencia en el gusto de los demás, y con mayor razón, si este sector son los restaurantes turísticos de esta ciudad, ya que su actuación afecta directamente en los ingresos de estas organizaciones y a su vez de la ciudad.

Se ignoran que factores determinan la toma de decisiones de los directivos en el sector servicios de restaurantes turísticos y las Habilidades Sociales que esto les requiere.

IMPORTANCIA DEL ESTUDIO

Importancia teórica

Generar una caracterización de las habilidades sociales de los directivos de Organizaciones del sector servicios: restaurantes turísticos, en Ensenada, B. C.

Importancia práctica

Promover la visión sobre de la inteligencia emocional y las habilidades sociales, reconocerlas para luego desarrollarlas, logrando con esto ayudar y motivar a los directivos, para valorarlo como una ventaja.

Impacto social

Brindar los conocimientos, para que los directivos de las organizaciones del sector servicios. Restaurantes turísticos, cuenten con una herramienta que les permita desarrollar sus actividades de una manera profesional

OBJETIVO

Establecer el impacto de las habilidades sociales la toma de decisiones, sector servicios: restaurantes turísticos en Ensenada, B.C.

Pregunta de investigación

¿Cuál es el impacto que tienen las habilidades en la toma de decisiones en sector servicios: restaurantes turísticos, en Ensenada, B.C.?

Hipótesis

Ho: Las Habilidades Sociales son determinantes en la Toma de decisiones.

Hi: Las Habilidades Sociales no son determinantes en la Toma de decisiones.

MARCO CONTEXTUAL

Economía del conocimiento

El tomar una decisión es un proceso, en donde intervienen conocimientos y habilidades, que puede ser analítico o por intuición, pero en cualquiera de estos que se elija, el tomador de decisiones,

indudablemente debe de contar con un conocimiento previo de la situación o problema, información a considerar, habilidades para resolverlo, eligiendo el método de su preferencia o el que su contexto le requiera.

Según el informe del Banco Mundial (2003).

La economía global del conocimiento está transformando los requisitos del mercado laboral a lo largo y ancho del orbe. Por otra parte, está imponiendo nuevas exigencias a los ciudadanos, que necesitan más habilidades y conocimientos para poder desempeñarse en su vida cotidiana

Por otra parte para producir y generar riqueza en la actualidad, es necesario considerar el conocimiento como capital humano ya que estos son tomados en cuenta como insumos, el ritmo que lleva la economía del conocimiento hace que estos se deprecien a una velocidad mayor que en otros tiempos, esto como elemento para poder competir de manera efectiva en los ambientes cambiantes, se les debe de dar a los trabajadores la posibilidad de mejorar su nivel de habilidades, Banco Mundial (2003).

Los sistemas de formación deben dejar de poner énfasis en destrezas específicas para ciertas tareas y, más bien, centrarse en desarrollar en los estudiantes las habilidades relacionadas con la toma de decisiones y la solución de problemas y, además, enseñarles la manera de aprender estudiando por su propia cuenta y mediante su interrelación con otras personas. El aprendizaje permanente es crucial para hacer competitivos a los trabajadores. Banco Mundial (2003).

En suma lo que el Banco Mundial sugiere, es tener conocimiento que te lleve a tener habilidades para funcionar, ser tomado como un elemento valuable dentro de la organización por lo que se sabe, por como lo hace y por los procesos con los que llega a tomar decisiones que tienen implicaciones a fin de cuentas económicas dentro de una organización. Otro indicador en el que se puede ver el valor del capital del capital humano, es el grado de migración a otros países, distintos del de nacimiento donde su inversión como las habilidades adquiridas en sus estudios son mejor retribuidos.

Producto interno bruto (PIB)

El PIB se define como: "valor de mercado de todos los bienes y servicios finales producidos en una economía durante un determinado período de tiempo" (citado en Cárdenas R, s. f.)

En el mismo sentido, Brida 2008, indica que la percepción del turismo como industria ha tenido de manera positiva un impacto, sobre el crecimiento y desarrollo económico, lo cual beneficia a muchos países, haciendo que crezca el interés en el desarrollo del turismo. A demás a nivel mundial, su contribución como sector, ha sido sumamente importante, tanto que actualmente ocupa el segundo lugar como industria, con una contribución estimada en 10% del PIB, según el (WTTC, 2003).

Según Organización Mundial de Turismo habla de la situación donde el turismo mundial sigue en recuperación después de la crisis en la cual llegó a una caída del 4.2%, actualmente recuperándose, informando que "las tendencias actuales indica que las llegadas de los turistas internacionales, aumentaran entre un 5 % y 6 % en todo el año". (Barómetro, 2010, p.1)

A nivel nacional este sector se ha convertido en uno de los más importantes:

El sector terciario mexicano da ocupación hoy día a más de la mitad de la población trabajadora del país (18 millones de trabajadores) y genera más del 70% de los ingresos totales; es, por tanto, el sector más dinámico de la economía nacional. (Coll - Hurtadol; Córdoba, O. 2006 p. 7).

Para describir que grupos forman parte de este sector Coll-Hurtado, 2006 tomo la taxonomía que utiliza a partir de que se firmó el Tratado de Libre Comercio con Estados Unidos y Canadá, el SCIAN (Sistema de Clasificación Industrial de América del Norte), en la cual se encuentran las siguientes actividades que podemos diferenciar en este sector:

Comercio, transportes, correo y almacenamiento, información en medios masivos, servicios financieros y de seguros, servicios inmobiliarios y de alquiler de inmuebles, servicios profesionales, servicios de apoyo a los negocios, servicios educativos, servicios de salud y asistencia social, servicios de esparcimiento y culturales, servicios de hoteles y restaurantes, servicios personales y actividades de gobierno. (p. 7-8).

MARCO TEÓRICO

Toma de decisiones

La UNESCO, (1999:18) señala que, “la eficacia en las decisiones está directamente vinculada al conocimiento pertinente, la educación deberá apoyarse en el conocimiento humano para dar respuesta a la necesidad de abordar los problemas globales para inscribir allí los comunitarios, locales o institucionales (Colmenares, H. 2008).

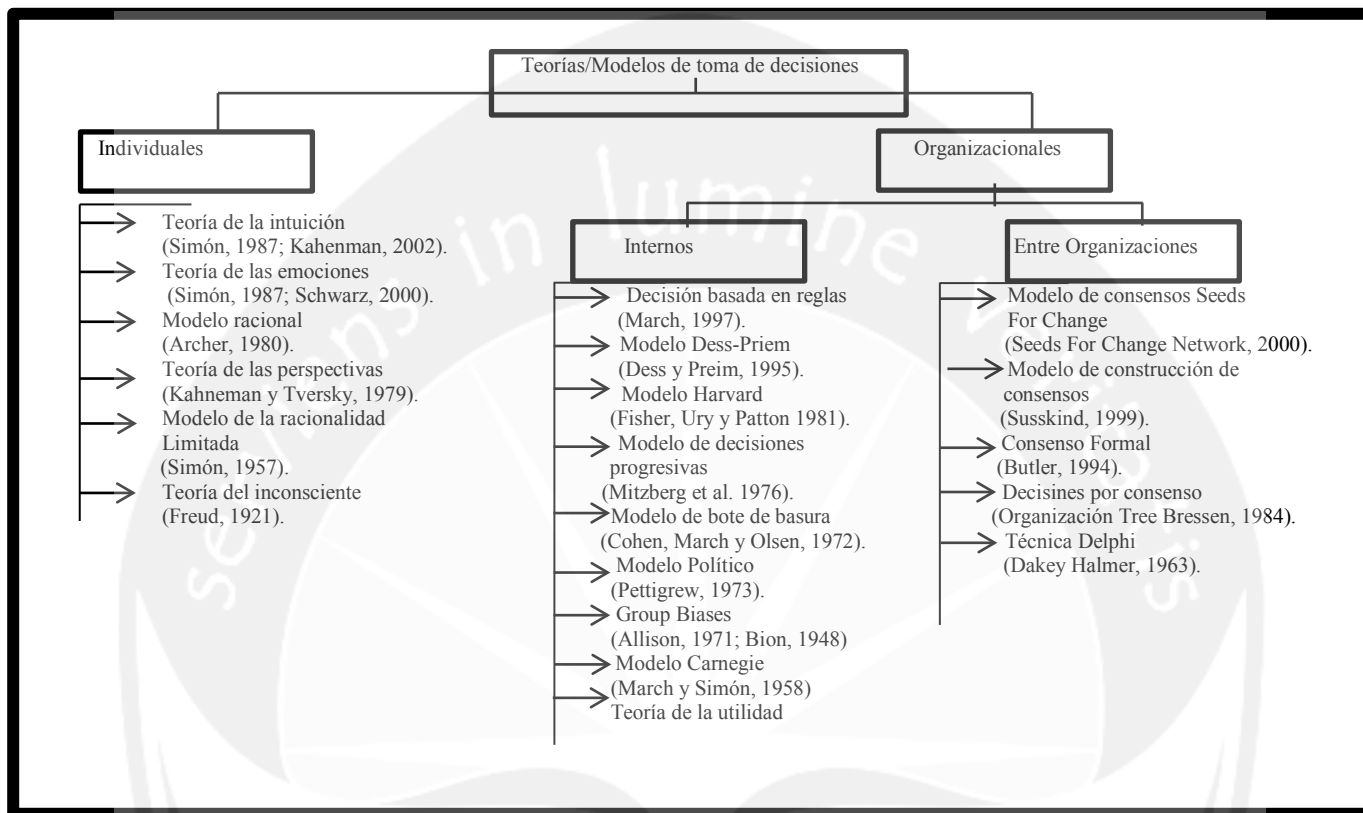
Cabe apoyar esta idea con una analogía para la elaboración de un pastel, es decir, para tomar la decisión de elaborarlo se debe tomar en cuenta diversos factores de los cuales dependerá hacerlo; como la altura de la ciudad para que esponje, el grado y tiempo de calentamiento del horno, y por su puesto el toque del panadero, así de igual manera la en cualquier ámbito en el que se tome una decisión, no existe comunes denominadores exactos para todas las situaciones, o circunstancias.

Se observa claramente que dentro del concepto de toma de decisiones, se encuentran diversos puntos de vista, donde los autores se refieren al proceso en sí de cómo se lleva a cabo la elección de la decisión, es decir que se puede preferir alguna corriente que apoya a la elección, como lo es la toma de decisiones racional o por intuición, así se verán distintas definiciones y modelos que ejemplifican a grandes rasgos estas teorías. Al respecto Salas, (2010), describe estas opciones como intuitiva y deliberativa aunque estos sistemas siempre estén actuando de manera recíproca, y las personas tienden a utilizar alguna de estas dos.

A demás se sabe que los humanos acomodan la información de alguna manera en particular como por ejemplo el estudio de (Markman, 1999 citado en Salas, 2010), menciona el orden de los conocimientos en vías redes, teorías y esquemas semánticas, donde un principiante tardara más en elegir una opción, que una persona con experiencia, porque está ya tendrá conexiones anteriores del suceso en específico. A demás se incluye en la toma de decisiones la preferencia o facilidad de elegir el modo de proceso, es decir elige entre lo racional analítico o meramente intuitivo alternativas porque así el individuo lo determina (Salas, e. 2010)

Mientras que Lambarry, V., Rivas, T., & Peña, C. 2010, se dieron a la tarea de recopilar modelos de decisión que a continuación se presenta el cuadro donde resumen su trabajo el cual menciona las distintas teorías desde distintas perspectivas como lo es la toma de decisiones a nivel individual; dentro de la organización y entre las organizaciones, dejando ver así las diferencias entre estas. Figura 1.

Figura 1. Principales teorías de los procesos de toma de decisiones

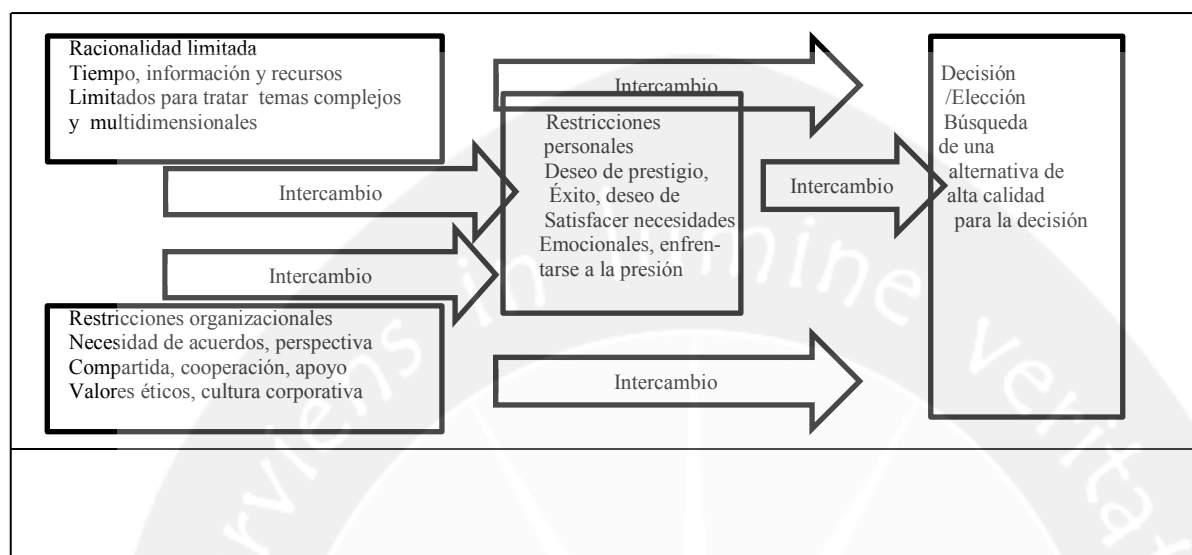


Esta tabla muestra a nivel individual y organizacional de las teorías y procesos de la toma de decisiones.

Fuente: Lambarry Vilchis, Rivas Tovar, & Peña Cruz, 2010

Con referencia a lo anterior, es conveniente mencionar que de esta serie de teorías y desde el punto de vista que requiere analizar la variable toma de decisiones, la teoría que observo más precisa para esta investigación es el Modelo de la racionalidad limitada (Simón 1957), que toma en consideración “las restricciones personales (deseo de prestigio, éxito, de satisfacción de necesidades emocionales y manejo de precisión). Y las restricciones organizacionales (necesidad de acuerdos, perspectiva compartida, cooperación, apoyo, valores éticos y cultura corporativa)” p.152. Se puede ver en la Figura 2.

Tabla 2. Enfoque de racionalidad limitada



Esta tabla, muestra los elementos que se toman en cuenta en el modelo de racionalidad limitada.

Fuente: Janis 1989, citado en Lambarry, 2010

Considerando lo anterior, la toma de decisiones tiene otra cara que es la no analítica, sino la heurística o por intuición o emociones y para ello se presenta la siguiente definición.

Salas (2010) menciona que la intuición es más probable de ser eficaz cuando la persona que toma la decisión ya se encuentra informada y con experiencia previa del tema o situación, debido a que la intuición está basada e implícita en el aprender y de manera automática se procesa la mejor elección, de acuerdo a los modelos internos.

La Inteligencia Emocional

"Promover el interés en cuanto a la importancia que tiene el efecto emocional en la toma de decisiones, en la adaptación al cambio, en general sobre las acciones individuales y colectivas, por tanto en los resultados consecuentes" Arteaga, A; Ramón, S, (2009).

Como antecedente Trujillo (2005) menciona, que la inteligencia, se remonta al siglo pasado con investigadores como Galton que en 1870 fue uno de los primeros en realizar estudios acerca de la mente humana, con distintas perspectivas la mente siguió siendo estudiada, tanto que se distinguió a la inteligencia como una capacidad de adaptación. Sternberg, 1997 citado en Trujillo 2005, establece que debido a la globalización en el término psicológico, "la inteligencia está ampliamente vinculada con la emoción, la memoria, la creatividad, optimismo y de cierto modo salud mental".

Entre otros investigadores como Gardner (1983), el cual formula el concepto de inteligencia con subdivisiones interdependientes, en 1990, gracias a Salovey y Mayer surgió la teoría de la IE, fundamentada en el concepto de Gardner y Thorndike, el cual realizó tesis doctoral sobre inteligencia animal, que se basa en la ley del efecto. (Trujillo, 2005)

Esta nueva teoría de IE estructuró el conocimiento a partir de la inteligencia intrapersonal e interpersonal, basada en Gardner, la cual fue conocida gracias a Goleman 1983, quien se llevó el mérito de difundir el término a nivel mundial donde a manera de introducción dio a conocer la IE, sus alcances y los beneficios de la misma.(Trujillo, 2005).

Desde entonces se han hecho estudios al respecto, algunos enfocados al ámbito educativo, llevados a cabo en España principalmente, Australia, Estados Unidos, otros en el ámbito psicológico, en los mismos países antes mencionados, sobre conductas en americanos y españoles, Trujillo (2006) comenta que desafortunadamente algunos carecen de carácter científico. Utilizando los diversos modelos existentes.

Por otro lado la importancia del el estudio de la IE se ha vertido en el ámbito organizacional, donde se ha relacionado directamente con las conductas de los líderes y empleados de estas y resultados sobre sus efectos, En países como Colombia y Venezuela y Estados Unidos y México, se han hecho estudios sobre este rubro solo que desde distintos términos que se integran con la IE como lo son habilidades, capacidades, emociones, competencias y aspectos cognitivos que tienen que ver de una o de otra manera con la manera de conducirse ante los demás, dentro y fuera de una organización y su impacto.

Salmeron, 2002 comenta lo siguiente al respecto:

Para llegar a ser competentes en el control de las emociones de los demás y dominar el ámbito de las relaciones es preciso haber desarrollado el autocontrol y la empatía. La carencia de estas habilidades es la causa de que hasta las personas intelectualmente más brillantes, desde una perspectiva cognitiva, fracasen en sus relaciones y resulten en ocasiones arrogantes, insensibles y hasta odiosas.

En apoyo a la idea anterior y a manera de ejemplo, todos hemos sido testigos de que en algunos casos están los científicos, eminentes en su área, no así en su vida personal y relaciones de trabajo, siendo estas no satisfactorias o aproximadas al desastre, por no haber desarrollado la competencia en el ámbito social. La inteligencia emocional pueden contribuir a la calidad de las relaciones de las personas en el trabajo porque las emociones tienen funciones comunicativas y sociales, la transmisión de información acerca de los pensamientos e intenciones, y ayudar a coordinar los encuentros sociales (Keltner y Haidt, 2001 Citado en Slovey 2006).

Varios autores han generado teorías donde mencionan que IE contribuye a la capacidad de las personas también para trabajar eficazmente en equipo y a la vez gestionar el estrés producido por el trabajo (Caruso y Salovey, 2004; Goleman, 1998, citado en Lopes, 2006).

Resulta oportuno mencionar que entre los de modelos que existen para la medición de la IE, están el modelo de Mayer y Slovey, (1995), el cual llaman Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). de Extremera y Fernández-Berrocal (2001), llamado TMMS-24, basado en anterior, además modelos mixtos como el de Bar-On (1997), entre otros, donde distinguen distintas variables en cada uno de estos, uno más que existe y que es donde se basara para medición de esta investigación, proviene del modelo de Goleman (1995), el cual propone en su variable HS, las siguientes características sujetas a medir como los son: influencia., comunicación, manejo de conflictos, liderazgo, catalizador de cambio, establecer vínculos, habilidades de equipo, de donde para cumplir los objetivos de la presente, se retoman algunas de las anteriores. (Trujillo, 2006).

“La inteligencia emocional puede contribuir a la calidad de las relaciones de las personas en el trabajo por que las emociones tienen funciones comunicativas y sociales, la trasmisión de información acerca de los pensamientos e intenciones y ayudar a coordinar los encuentros sociales”. (Keltner y Haidt, 2001, citado el Lopes, 2006).

Las competencias

Las competencias, son parte esencial a considerar, con las que un directivo debe contar o desarrollar, ya sea por experiencia o por capacitación para ser un elemento eficiente en su organización. La competencia como concepto, pasa a ser parte de la planeación de recursos humanos, la selección, la capacitación, la evaluación del desempeño, y en menor medida en la retribución y compensación (Calderón, 2004).

Según Hernández, (2006). En la tipología que menciona se encuentra las Competencias organizacionales o corporativas o empresariales, en las que considera la comunicación, la toma de decisiones, orientación al logro, trabajo en equipo, enfoque al cliente, innovación y pensamiento estratégico por ello esta conceptualización se adecua a las competencias que un directivo organizacional, en este caso de institución educativa, puede o debe contar.

(Spencer y Spencer, 1993) “una característica subyacente en un individuo que esta casualmente relacionada a un estándar de efectividad y/o a un desempeño superior en un trabajo o situación (Levy-Lebory 1997), “ repertorios de comportamientos que algunas personas dominan mejor que otras, lo que las hace eficientes en una situación determinada. (Citado en Hernández, 2006).

Bisquerra, (2007) describe un tipo de competencias a la cual se aproxima en algunos conceptos a las habilidades sociales las llama competencias sociales que implican empatía, conciencia de la organización, servicio, respeto a los demás comunicación receptiva y expresiva, compartir emociones, comportamiento pro-social y cooperación, asertividad y prevención de conflictos y la capacidad de gestionar situaciones emocionales.

Habilidades sociales

De acuerdo don Goleman, (1995):

Aquellos que son expertos en la inteligencia social pueden relacionarse con las demás personas muy fácilmente y son sagaces en la interpretación de sus reacciones y sentimientos. Adicionalmente, son capaces de dirigir, organizar y aclarar las disputas que pueden desencadenarse en cualquier actividad humana.

Afzalur, R. (2002) define las habilidades sociales como

“la capacidad para hacer frente a los problemas sin degradar los que trabajan con él o ella, para no permitir que los sentimientos propios o ajenos sean negativos inhibiéndolos, y para manejar con tacto afectivo y una pizca de diplomacia los conflictos”

METODOLOGÍA

Cuantitativa positivista, descriptivo, correlacional, transversal

Métodos

Características	Información
Población Objeto de estudio	Organizaciones del sector servicios: restaurante turístico en Ensenada, B.C.
Periodo de recolección	2012-1
Medio de recolección	Encuesta
Unidad muestral / universo	40
Error experimental / nivel de confianza	.05%/95%
Fuente	Directivo /gerente
Instrumento	Encuesta tipo Likert

Fuente: elaboración propia

BIOGRAFIA

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LA IMPORTANCIA DE UN SISTEMA DE EDUCACIÓN VIRTUAL EN EL CENTRO UNIVERSITARIO DE LA COSTA SUR DE LA UNIVERSIDAD DE GUADALAJARA (CUCSUR)

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RESUMEN

La presente ponencia sostiene como eje central la necesidad de los sistemas virtuales de Educación Superior, caso Centro Universitario de la Costa Sur de la Universidad de Guadalajara. La pertinencia del objeto de estudio nace a partir de la ausencia de programas educativos en un ambiente virtual dentro del propio Centro Universitario, ya que el 100% de los programas educativos son presenciales, y es donde se pretende diseñar un sistema virtual para ampliar la cobertura educativa, además de que sea una herramienta para profesores y alumnos para actualización, adquisición de competencias y una formación integral de su educación presencial.

Se aborda la importancia de la educación virtual, el conocimiento del surgimiento de ésta, definiciones y conceptos de términos manejados en los ambientes virtuales, la cobertura, con porcentajes que dan una amplia panorámica respecto a la importancia y oportunidad existente en ese rubro, así como las experiencias de éxitos y fracasos de universidades que han implementado sistemas virtuales. También se mencionan algunos beneficios que conlleva esta modalidad, así como la tendencia al uso de las diferentes modalidades del sistema virtual en el medio internacional y muy especialmente en Latinoamérica por tener un contexto similar.

Palabras claves: Educación virtual, cobertura, formación.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Esta investigación aborda la importancia y surgimiento de la educación virtual, definiciones y conceptos de términos manejados en los ambientes virtuales, la cobertura con porcentajes que dan una amplia panorámica respecto a la importancia y pertinencia en ese rubro, las experiencias de éxitos y fracasos de universidades que han tenido práctica con sistemas virtuales.

También se mencionan algunos beneficios que conlleva esta modalidad, así como las diferentes modalidades del sistema virtual en el medio internacional y muy especialmente en Latinoamérica por tener un contexto similar. Se menciona muy especialmente el caso de la Universidad de Guadalajara, Jalisco, Campus Autlán, ya que es donde se pretende diseñar un sistema de educación virtual, que sirva para que se amplíe la cobertura y de herramienta a profesores y alumnos de la universidad en cuanto a que los actualiza, los complementa y los enriquece aún más que la educación presencial.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Llamas (1986) señala que la Educación Virtual es una estrategia educativa basada en la aplicación de la tecnología del aprendizaje sin la limitación del lugar, tiempo, ocupación o edad de los estudiantes.

Pío Navarro (1980) define a la educación virtual como aquellas formas de estudio que no son guiadas o controladas directamente por la presencia de un profesor en el aula, pero se beneficia de la planificación y guía de los tutores a través de un medio de comunicación que permita la interrelación profesor-alumno.

En Tanto que para Ramos (1985) la Educación a Distancia es una estrategia para hacer operativos los principios y fines de la educación permanente y abierta, de manera que cualquier persona, independiente del tiempo y del espacio, pueda convertirse en sujeto protagónico de su aprendizaje.

La educación a distancia no pretende combatir ni suplantarse la enseñanza tradicional, la enriquece, la complementa, la actualiza, la trasciende en tiempo y espacio. Como recurso para la capacitación de maestros, si bien no es un concepto nuevo ni totalmente original, no ha el nivel de consenso y difusión que merecería si tomáramos en cuenta su eficacia. La educación a distancia ha demostrado ser capaz de acercar formas de capacitación y de trabajo más actuales y eficientes a los sectores geográfica y/o socialmente aislados.

METODOLOGÍA

Se utilizó el método de investigación bibliográfica documental, con una base de información sobre las experiencias de otras universidades, en donde nos dicen que tipo de elementos fueron los que intervinieron en sus éxitos y fracasos al momento de implementar un sistema de educación virtual y de esta manera investigar con que contamos y cuales debemos de incorporar o tomar en cuenta para una implementación acertada.

RESULTADOS

Iniciaremos mencionando un fracaso, donde según el artículo de Hafner (2002) no ha tenido el éxito previsto es el proyecto NYUonline de la Universidad de New York, creado en 1998 con el objetivo de ofrecer capacitación y entrenamiento a las empresas. Los cursos desarrollados para este programa no estaban dirigidos a la obtención de títulos académicos, y se vendían como paquetes a los clientes corporativos. Algunos ejemplos de estos cursos son “Capacitando al capacitador”, dirigido a gerentes de recursos humanos y que tenía un costo de 1.600 dólares; “Técnicas de administración” dirigido a jóvenes administradores, y que costaba 600 dólares.

En dos años de funcionamiento la universidad de New York invirtió en este programa cerca de 25 millones de dólares; no obstante, las matrículas no alcanzaron los niveles esperados, llegando a un punto máximo de 500 alumnos. Por esta razón el programa fue prácticamente cerrado, trasladando algunas de sus funciones al Departamento de Educación Permanente de la Universidad, donde debió estar desde su inicio según opinión de uno de sus directivos. Una lección aprendida de esta experiencia es que si una institución universitaria quiere incursionar en el campo de la educación virtual puede hacerlo sin tener que crear nuevas unidades o centros académicos.

Analizando la información obtenida se observa que uno de los fracasos en la implementación de los sistemas virtuales, es no tener claro la diferenciación de los tipos de Educación que existen, esto repercute en que se ocasionen confusiones y claridad en el camino a alcanzar objetivos definidos, por lo iniciaremos delimitando las definiciones de cada uno de los tipos de educación que existen y a la vez dar forma a el sistema que pretendemos establecer en el Centro Universitario.

Educación Continua

La educación continua es aquella educación que el educando va ir construyendo de acuerdo a sus propios intereses a través de capacitaciones, seminarios u otros. Este tipo de educación se llevara a cabo en el transcurso de vida del propio educando.

A continuación se apreciará una definición que refuerza este concepto.

“Existen varias definiciones del concepto de educación continua, una definición que engloba todos los aspectos relacionados con esta modalidad es la de García Aretio que la describe como: un principio organizador de la educación que pretende hacerla llegar en todos sus niveles y modalidades, a toda la población, a lo largo de toda la vida, con la colaboración de los diversos sectores, instituciones y agentes.”

La Educación Virtual

Para definir este concepto, se necesita tener conocimiento de la tecnología actual, porque ambas, la educación y la tecnología, se unen para brindar de esa forma una excelente ayuda al ambiente cognitivo de cada ser humano, siendo esta combinación una realidad cada vez más perfecta y de gran ayuda a las personas ubicadas en lugares geográficos de difícil acceso. Por el lado de la tecnología, que día tras día suscita mejoramientos; en cambio por el lado del aprendizaje sólo se puede decir que también mejora, pero no con tal celeridad.

Se reforzará el concepto de educación virtual a través de las siguientes citas:

"La Educación Virtual enmarca la utilización de las nuevas tecnologías, hacia el desarrollo de metodologías alternativas para el aprendizaje de alumnos de poblaciones especiales que están limitadas por su ubicación geográfica, la calidad de docencia y el tiempo disponible."

La UNESCO (1998), define como "entornos de aprendizajes que constituyen una forma totalmente nueva, en relación con la tecnología educativa... un programa informático - interactivo de carácter pedagógico que posee una capacidad de comunicación integrada. Son una innovación relativamente reciente y fruto de la convergencia de las tecnologías informáticas y de telecomunicaciones que se ha intensificado durante los últimos diez años.

"La Educación Virtual es "la modalidad educativa que eleva la calidad de la enseñanza aprendizaje... que respecta su flexibilidad o disponibilidad dentro de cualquier momento, tiempo y espacio. Alcanza su apogeo con la tecnología hasta integrar los tres métodos: asincrónica, sincrónica y autoformación."

"La educación virtual es una combinación entre la tecnología de la realidad virtual, redes de comunicación y seres humanos. En los próximos, la educación virtual será de extender y tocar a alguien – o una población entera – de una manera que los humanos nunca experimentaron anteriormente"

Para continuar, la educación virtual debe dividirse en dos partes, que al parecer son practicadas por la mayoría de cibernautas, como son la Educación en Tiempo Real y La Educación en Tiempo Diferido.

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Educación En Tiempo Real

Denominada de esa forma porque se da entre el educador y uno o varios educandos, obligatoriamente tienen que estar entrelazados vía Internet y por supuesto utilizar ciertas herramientas como las computadoras, Web cam, micrófonos con auriculares y / o parlantes. Ambas personas tienen que tener cierta noción del uso de herramientas de Internet.

Ella, la educación virtual, utiliza una metodología muy especial la cual ya ha sido aplicada en Europa y Norteamérica, en ambos utilizan otro tipo de conexión, llamada Internet 2, la cual sólo se nombra, ya que no es tema de este trabajo de investigación.

Educación Diferida

Se le denomina así, a la educación recibida por personas en diferentes lugares, las cuales no poseen la facilidad de contar con la tecnología y el tiempo adecuado, este tipo de educación suele ser utilizado por las personas que viven en lugares muy distantes. Una de las universidades peruanas que la usa con mucha frecuencia es la Universidad Nacional de Educación Enrique Guzmán y Valle, así como también las que se ubican en las distintas provincias del país, los alumnos reciben sus clases por correspondencia, y son citados para dar sólo sus evaluaciones.

Diferencias Entre Educación A Distancia Y Educación Presencial

La Educación a Distancia es consecuencia de la demanda educativa, la cual no siempre es satisfecha, ya que esta no puede desplazar a la educación presencial, porque ambas tienen fortalezas y debilidades, las cuales los usuarios tratan de aprovechar al máximo. Además la educación a distancia esta en crecimiento ya que para su mejor desarrollo necesitamos utilizar tecnología de punta.

Diferencias Entre Educación A Distancia Y Educación Virtual

Siendo ambas muy parecidas tienen pequeñas diferencias pero a su vez marcadas.

Por un lado, la educación virtual se basa en una educación “no presencial” mientras que la educación a distancia puede ser no con presencia física, es decir abierta, que esto es diferente a estar distante, la apertura básicamente está en el currículo y en los tiempos; puede ser también mixta donde hay elementos presenciales y elementos a distancia.

La educación virtual a distancia tiene sus contenidos básicamente presentados de manera digital mientras la educación a distancia tiene un sub-contenido con el uso combinado de medios que pueden ser digitales o no ya que no se han desechado los medios que tradicionalmente se habían estado utilizando.

También existe en la educación virtual una comunidad virtual a través de los medios de comunicación mediante la incorporación de Internet y de las llamadas nuevas tecnologías, porque como en su momento el proyector de acetatos, la filmína o las diapositivas también fueron considerados una nueva tecnología, hoy es preferible llamarles tecnologías innovadoras; en este sentido se incorpora una nueva comunidad virtual. En ambos casos el modelo está centrado en los alumnos y en la educación virtual hay un uso muy intenso de redes de telecomunicaciones, mientras que en la educación a distancia se hace uso combinado de medios.

Siguiendo con un caso de éxito tenemos la universidad de Phoenix online es un caso particularmente exitoso de educación virtual. En el año 1989 fue una de las primeras en obtener acreditación para sus programas vía Internet.

Su misión es ofrecer una oportunidad a personas adultas que trabajan para que adquieran los conocimientos y habilidades necesarias para alcanzar sus metas profesionales, mejorar la productividad de sus empresas o instituciones y apoyar con liderazgo y servicio a sus comunidades. Busca una enseñanza equilibrada entre la teoría y la práctica apoyándose en un equipo docente que no sólo posee una preparación académica avanzada, sino amplia experiencia en su ejercicio profesional. Tiene alrededor de 37,600 estudiantes de pregrado, maestría y doctorado, residentes en más de 70 países diferentes, y matriculados en programas de Negocios, Administración, Tecnología, Educación, y Enfermería. Esta universidad ofrece el 100% del currículo a través de la Red. Utiliza un formato asincrónico que resulta muy flexible y conveniente para los alumnos. Los programas están diseñados para que se puedan aplicar inmediatamente en el ambiente de trabajo.

Por lo tanto la educación virtual se distingue de la educación a distancia básicamente en la introducción de las nuevas tecnologías que favorece entre los usuarios formas de diálogo más próximas a los procesos tradicionales, permiten un mayor contacto y acercamiento. Esta comunicación se obtiene a través de nuevas tecnologías, tecnologías innovadoras y, ¿cuáles son éstas?, tenemos a la tecnología satelital, el video-enlace mediante fibra óptica, el CD multimedia y el Internet con sus diferentes modalidades: nos estamos refiriendo al correo electrónico, al Chat o conferencias en tiempo real, a los foros de discusión, y a la página *web*.

La universidad pública mexicana y, en particular, la Universidad de Guadalajara, reconoce, en este contexto, la importancia de analizar la cultura informática, específicamente los conocimientos informáticos en su planta docente para proporcionarle elementos de innovación y fomentar la utilización de las TIC en los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje, como un soporte que coadyuve a llevar a la práctica los principios básicos del modelo educativo.

Haciendo un poco de historia sobre los sistemas de conferencia informática para impartir y desarrollar cursos se usaron por primera vez en la década de los 80's, y es a partir de aquí, cuando las redes han servido como foro para la comunicación y difusión de conocimientos y como entorno principal de la enseñanza ya sea como parte del curso o en su totalidad.

Ahora bien, estos nuevos canales del conocimiento obligan al replanteamiento de nuevas estructuras, nuevas metodologías, nuevos contenidos, nuevos diseños de materiales; a la aplicación de nuevas estrategias de enseñanza, nuevas formas de evaluar el conocimiento y nuevas dinámicas grupales; lo que significa finalmente una revolución educativa de proporciones insospechadas y es a la educación superior a quien le corresponde iniciar la puesta en marcha de este servicio, así como emprender el camino de la investigación sobre todos los puntos antes señalados.

En el sistema virtual se van a encontrar tres áreas desde las cuales se generará la educación:

Tecnológica: Centrada en la implementación de las tecnologías más avanzadas para difundir la señal y lograr la comunicación a grandes distancias.

Administrativa: Dedicada al estudio de mercado, registro y seguimiento de los estudiantes; inscripciones, tarifas, pagos, registro, certificación y acreditación de estudios.

Académica: Cuyas funciones se basan en el diseño de programas, capacitación de personal, elaboración y distribución de materiales de estudio, enseñanza, tutorías y evaluación del aprendizaje

La educación presencial exclusiva fue la educación dominante de la sociedad industrial. Hoy la sociedad del conocimiento está planteando la creación de una nueva modalidad educativa, que tiene escalas diferenciadas, que no tiene fronteras, que permite un fraccionamiento de los procesos educativos localizando en un país las tutorías, en otro los *softwares* o *hardwares*, en otros los alumnos o los profesores.

En los nuevos escenarios de la sociedad del conocimiento, la educación, cada vez con más intensidad, es la apuesta de los hogares y de las sociedades hacia el futuro, en tanto mecanismo de incremento de los ingresos económicos, dada la clara relación desarrollada por las teorías del capital humano y las fórmulas de Mincer entre ingresos económicos y años de escolarización. Así, la inversión ha reorientado las demandas de las familias, expresada en el incremento de la cobertura en todos los ciclos educativos y también significativamente en educación superior.

Hace apenas una década algunas universidades tenían como objetivo el lograr el aprendizaje fuera de las escuelas con el propósito que la enseñanza estuviera al alcance de las personas que no tenían oportunidad de continuar su formación escolar. Muchos años después gracias a los avances de las (TICS) mencionadas anteriormente, se han podido actualizar las ofertas educativas desarrollando las modalidades a distancia y los ambientes virtuales para responder de una manera innovadora a las necesidades detectadas en las distintas comunidades.

Es importante conocer la capacitación que hay para los profesores cuando se va a diseñar un sistema virtual de los profesores en general y muy especialmente a los vayan a ser facilitadores en los campus con sistemas virtuales y a distancia. El eje de Innovación de ambientes de aprendizaje del programa Interinstitucional de Capacitación para el Aprendizaje y la Superación Académica (PICASA) incorporó todos aquellos cursos que buscaban promover en los profesores las competencias para el manejo de las TICS.

Considerando que los procesos de formación del profesorado debieran incidir en la práctica docente, al menos ayudando al profesor a tomar conciencia de la importancia de su papel en el aprendizaje de sus estudiantes y a reflexionar en los contenidos de su curso, en cómo se acerca un alumno a esos contenidos y qué debe de hacer él como profesor para organizar esos contenidos y volverlos más accesibles (De Vicente, 2001), se impulsaron desde el PICASA todos aquellos cursos relacionados con las competencias tecnológicas de los profesores.

El primer nivel se refiere a docentes que requieren asistencia continua o aprendizaje guiado para adquirir competencias básicas en el uso de las TIC; en el segundo nivel, el docente ya adquirió la capacidad de aprendizaje autónomo y usa creativamente las TIC en su trabajo cotidiano, y en el tercero se espera que el docente se proyecte en sus colegas y genere un nuevo ciclo de capacitación.

Es importante hacer notar que si los docentes mismos no se involucran en el proceso, lo que se ha dado en llamar “apropiación de las TIC” será sólo un asunto externo, no una interiorización, por lo que no

habrá un proceso sostenible, es decir, el proceso de capacitación debe producir un docente que aprenda por sí mismo y no un docente que para cada novedad o innovación requiera una capacitación.

Por otro lado, este proceso no establece contenidos fijos, sino que cada grupo de docentes recibe o elige las herramientas de *software* que le convienen según sus necesidades educativas. Eso fortalece el “involucramiento”, pues ellos se vuelven expertos en el tipo de *software* elegido, lo que crea un núcleo de asesores sobre ello.

Los profesores ahora llamados facilitadores, ya no centran su trabajo docente en exposiciones orales de los contenidos de los libros, ahora asumen que los estudiantes pueden leer estos contenidos y por lo tanto conciben la clase como un espacio, para estimular el trabajo colaborativo y autónomo.

La función de los docentes no es enseñar en el sentido convencional, actúan como consejeros que determinan lo que el estudiante sabe o desconoce y los cursos que necesita para que pueda afrontar con éxito las pruebas.

Por lo mencionado anteriormente sobre la capacitación el profesorado se evidencia que sí lo hay, así mismo la infraestructura para lograr insertar el sistema virtual. Lo que queda en el tintero es el diseño con todos los contenidos, materiales y el servidor con los que el autor del presente se compromete a investigar y llegar a la implantación del mencionado sistema.

CONCLUSIONES

A manera de conclusión se encontró que la educación virtual y a distancia se está volviendo un tema central en la mayoría de las entidades educativas. La importancia por generar una educación de calidad, hacer programas educativos cada vez más flexibles y pertinentes, abarcar cada vez más la matrícula, son objetivos que se están trazando las instituciones de educación superior.

Para que un sistema virtual tenga éxito es necesario conocer y atender a los conceptos básicos de la educación a distancia y la educación presencial, para poder conocer así las diferencias y acceder a la elaboración de un sistema híbrido que determine las ventajas que cada uno de estos otorga.

En cuanto al uso de las TICS es muy importante contar con el equipo y la infraestructura necesaria para entrar de lleno en el uso de las mismas, ya que para la enseñanza, la sola comunicación no es suficiente, ya que faltaría la capacitación sobre el manejo y diseño de cursos en línea para que realice su función.

Es relevante destacar que ninguna acción será suficiente si no se trabaja intensamente para promover una toma de conciencia de los académicos, de la urgente necesidad de usar las TICS y la adquisición de competencias tecnológicas e informativas, como el soporte que permita incrementar la calidad de su trabajo docente y de investigación.

Se llega a la conclusión de que es indispensable que todos los docentes del centro Universitario cuenten con su computadora personal y su debido manejo, para que tengan las herramientas necesarias que les permitan su inclusión en la sociedad del conocimiento.

Para poder diseñar los cursos virtuales es menester la incorporación de hipervínculos, la utilización de colores llamativos, imágenes, bancos de información, grupos de noticias, ya que esto permite que el

manejo de los cursos en línea tanto para los docentes y estudiantes, sea agradable y cómodo. Los grupos *chat* y las videoconferencias no deben faltar al momento de diseñar un curso en línea, este último elemento es muy útil para auditorios grandes, y la aplicación de exámenes orales desde sus centros remotos.

Los seminarios virtuales son indispensables por ser un complemento y se usan como sustitución de los seminarios presenciales tradicionales. La educación es un proceso productivo que se basa en un triángulo de equilibrio entre calidad, costos y cobertura, donde la primera es una función directa de los costos e inversa de la cobertura.

Uno de los beneficios encontrados de los sistemas virtuales dentro de la expansión de la educación no presencial es el resultado de las prácticas de las universidades públicas para aumentar su cobertura, reducir el peso de las demandas insatisfechas y legitimarse como ámbitos de equidad.

En cuanto al futuro de los sistemas virtuales se prevé que tomarán relevancia de competitividad en el mercado educativo internacional al momento de forjar alianzas estratégicas entre universidades de Educación Superior.

Queda como tarea la organización y vinculación de los bancos de datos, la entrega electrónica, el pago, la facturación y cuestiones de derechos de autor ya que son éstos algunos de los problemas por resolver para que los sistemas virtuales sean cómodos y agradables para su enseñanza.

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BIOGRAFÍA

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MOVILIDAD HACIA LOS MEDIOS MASIVOS DE INFORMACIÓN

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RESUMEN

La movilidad laboral que se aborda en el presente documento es la que se presenta en el sector terciario de manera específica en la actividad económica desempeñada en medios masivos de información, en ella se determinaron cuales son los factores que afectan con mayor relevancia a los móviles y a los empresarios, sin excluir los beneficios que ambos perciben de este flujo laboral. Se logró identificar de manera clara el lugar de donde provienen las personas que laboran en esta actividad, la frecuencia con la cual retornan al lugar de origen, de igual forma se presenta la caracterización de los móviles. El objetivo es determinar los factores económicos que inciden en la movilidad laboral a la ZM de Mérida en el estado de Yucatán. Se puede concluir señalando que la movilidad con dirección a la Zona Metropolitana de Mérida (ZMM), estará presente para esta actividad económica debido a que se vuelven escasos los empleos para la actividad en los municipios de Kanasín y Umán principalmente. La expulsión en los municipios se genera para mejorar los ingresos y por la falta de actividades económicas demandantes de mano de obra alterna. Finalmente se hace mención que la gran mayoría de las empresas se sitúan en las Zonas Metropolitanas (ZM), convirtiéndola en un nodo de gran atracción.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Movilidad, Zona Metropolitana, Medios Masivos de información

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para conocer los factores socioeconómicos que inciden en la Movilidad laboral hacia las zonas metropolitanas, se requiere en primera instancia conocer aquellas conceptualizaciones que giran en torno a la investigación. Partiendo de que la migración, es todo desplazamiento de población que se produce desde un lugar de origen a otro de destino, e implica el cruce de algún límite político-administrativo o ecológico y lleva consigo un cambio de residencia habitual, esto según Macció citado por Vivas (2007). De acuerdo con Castells (1996), el incremento de la movilidad constituye un fenómeno cada vez más presente en las sociedades avanzadas del siglo XXI, erigiéndose como un aspecto cada vez más central para interpretar el cambio social y las transformaciones que suceden en las sociedades modernas. Su expansión puede interpretarse como una causa o como una consecuencia de los procesos de globalización o del desarrollo de las nuevas tecnologías de la comunicación; y su impacto, puede analizarse tanto en la esfera ecológica y política, como en relación a la sociabilidad y la economía, tal y como pretende este trabajo. En España, las aproximaciones al estudio de la movilidad laboral, se han realizado desde distintas perspectivas; de acuerdo con Bentolila, Carnicer et al., citados por Meil y Ayuso (2006), los trabajos de movilidad referentes a la economía han estado enfocados principalmente a la movilidad de los recursos humanos en relación al mercado laboral y al desempleo.

Por otro lado, según Jiménez (2010), en datos de la Encuesta 2007 origen-destino de la Zona Metropolitana de la Ciudad de México, un 46% de los viajes con origen en el hogar fueron para ir a trabajar, un 16% para ir a estudiar, un 10% para llevar o recoger a alguien, un 9% para ir de compras, y el 19% restante por otros motivos. De igual forma, Partida (2003) menciona que en México, la composición

por edad de las personas que incurrir en la movilidad se encuentra estrechamente vinculada al ciclo de vida de las personas y de los hogares. Generalmente, es en la juventud y las primeras edades adultas cuando los individuos se movilizan porque necesitan mudarse para conseguir el empleo deseado o porque el cambio de residencia les permitirá garantizarse el sustento y el de sus familiares.

En el Estado de Yucatán, en la década de 1980, se empezaron a experimentar cambios radicales en el proceso de urbanización. Para esa fecha se comienza a delinear claramente la formación de una ZM, región a la que Baños (1992) denomina: “el complejo urbano Mérida-Zona Henequenera”, esto debido a los fenómenos de concentración de población y actividades económicas que experimentaba.

Posteriormente se fueron sumando otros factores que reforzaron la metropolización de la región, impulsado el crecimiento de la movilidad hacia la ZM; entre ellos destacan: la aparición de la industria maquiladora de exportación en otros municipios cercanos a la capital, la modernización de las vías terrestres de comunicación, el crecimiento hegemónico del sector terciario de la economía y la globalización, esto según Bolio, citado en CINVESTAV (2005).

La extensión de la Zona Metropolitana de la Ciudad de Mérida (ZMCM) ha sido delimitada por el Ayuntamiento de Mérida (2001) como la región comprendida por los municipios de Mérida, Kanasín, Conkal, Ucú, Umán, pues estos municipios en torno a la capital reportaron la mayor concentración de población residente en el estado en el año 2000 (CINVESTAV 2005).

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

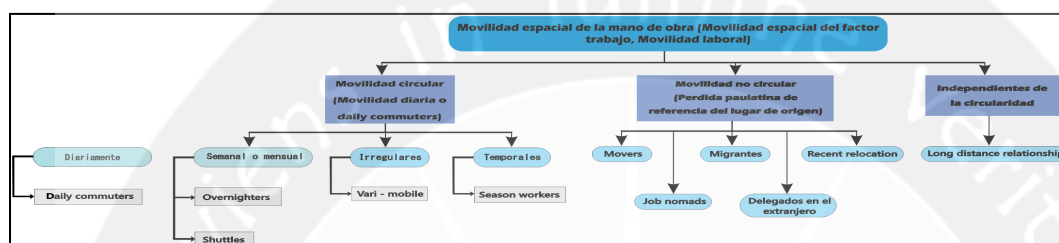
Según Ortiz (1999) La movilidad territorial de la población es un proceso de profunda significancia social y con todas las variables demográficas, se relaciona estrechamente con la estructura socio-económica, la historia y otras características del territorio en el cual se desarrolla. La complejidad del fenómeno y las consecuencias que acarrea el desplazamiento, tanto como el migrante como para las sociedades de origen y destino, depende no solo del volumen del flujo migratorio sino esencialmente del tipo de movimiento que se trate, sobre saliendo la migración por su mayor complejidad. En efecto, junto al traslado de un medio geográfico a otro, el migrante experimenta movilidad ocupacional y profesional, movilidad social y cultural. Este fenómeno trae consigo una intensa concentración de actividades económicas y de población en pocas regiones, lo que se traduce en una desigual distribución geográfica del ingreso, diferentes condiciones ocupacionales, desigualdades de acceso a bienes y servicios para la población según sea su localización, así como una movilidad espacial hacia las zonas urbanas. Es por ello que Vázquez citado en Cortez (2006) menciona que para que no exista entre las diversas partes del territorio profundas disparidades de desarrollo, debe establecerse un desarrollo local; concepto que obedece no a una visión territorial únicamente contemplada desde el crecimiento y cambio estructural, sino también desde la organización de todas las actividades productivas. El estudio de la movilidad espacial de la mano de obra, teniendo en cuenta las características de la movilidad y su frecuencia, puede dar lugar a varios tipos como se muestra en la figura 1.

En primer lugar se encuentra la movilidad circular, es decir de ida y vuelta, que comprendería: A las personas que se mueven diariamente (daily commuters), que se refieren a todas aquellas personas que tardan al menos dos horas en ir y volver a su trabajo al menos 3 días a la semana.

Los que se mueven semanal o mensualmente (weekly) que comprenden a los Overnights o “pernoctadores”, que se refieren a personas que duermen al menos 5 días al mes (o 60 días al año) fuera

de su casa debido a su trabajo; así como a los Shuttles o trabajadores que tienen una segunda residencia cerca de su trabajo (hotel o pensión) donde pasan su semana laboral o varios días de la misma. Este tipo de movilidad da lugar a los llamados “matrimonios de fin de semana” que han sido escasamente abordados, Becerril y Rodrigo citados en Meil y Ayuso (2006). Personas que se movilizan de forma irregular (vari-mobile), que son las personas que varían su movilidad en función de las demandas. La duración y el lugar de trabajo cambian constantemente (azafatas de vuelo, choferes, etc.).

Figura 1: Tipos de movilidad espacial de la mano de obra



Fuente: Meil y Ayuso (2006), *movilidad laboral geográfica y vida familiar*, P.7.

Y los que se mueven temporalmente (Seasonal/season workers). Que son trabajadores temporales lejos de su residencia, a menudo en el extranjero. Otra de las tipologías que emergen con el aumento de la movilidad espacial con motivos de trabajo es la movilidad no circular, que es aquella en la que se presenta la pérdida paulatina de referencia del lugar de origen, y contiene: A los Movers, cuya movilidad por trabajo se ha realizado durante los tres últimos años a más de 1000 Km. de su lugar de residencia.

Personas que en los últimos 2 años se han mudado a otro lugar a más de 50 Km. por motivos de trabajo (Recent relocators). Existen pocos datos que puedan medir este fenómeno. Los Migrants, que son las personas que incurren en la emigración, y cruzan la frontera nacional.

Los delegados en el extranjero, empleados que han trabajado por lo menos un año en el extranjero, y que permanecen actual o definitivamente durante los tres últimos años (Foreing delegates). Y los Job nomads, personas sin una residencia constante debido a que cambian muy a menudo de trabajo (corresponsales en el extranjero). En tercer lugar está la movilidad que es independiente de la circularidad, que incluye: El fenómeno de las relaciones de pareja a distancia (Long Distance Relationships), parejas en donde ambos trabajan y no conviven por trabajo (no porque no quieran), su separación es por razones laborales. Su construcción metodológica no es sencilla, pues para ajustarse a este modelo deben mantener una relación de pareja estable, pero sin compartir un mismo hogar (lo que los diferencia de los “matrimonios de fin de semana”); ambos miembros deben tener un trabajo remunerado y estar dispuestos a convivir si su trabajo lo permitiera (lo que los diferencia de los Living apart togheter (LAT), caracterizados éstos por su deseo de independencia). El último requisito exigido es que sus residencias deben estar separadas a 60 minutos o más de distancia una de otra, Meil y Ayuso (2006). Los factores económicos que inciden en la movilidad laboral se encuentran divididos en cuatro ámbitos; el ámbito económico/laboral del empleado, el ámbito de movilidad espacial del empleado, el ámbito empresarial y el ámbito socioeconómico del empleado.

a) Ámbito económico/laboral del empleado.

- Prestaciones que otorga la empresa. Los servicios o facilidades que un empleador otorga a sus trabajadores en adición a su salario estipulado ofrece al trabajador una ayuda económica en adición a

su salario, lo que origina que las personas busquen empresas que las otorguen con la finalidad de reducir sus gastos, fomentar su desarrollo, crear condiciones de trabajo satisfactorias, mejorar el nivel de calidad de su vida personal, familiar y social, en el mediano y el largo plazo.

- Nivel de ingresos percibidos por el empleado. Las personas que se movilizan siempre van a buscar laborar en empresas en las que obtengan un alto nivel de ingresos, debido a que quieren conseguir el bienestar económico que no pueden conseguir en su lugar de origen.
- Puestos que desempeña el empleado. Los puestos que requieren una mayor preparación por parte de los empleados son los menos demandados, mientras que los puestos que requieren una menor preparación representan mayor demanda originando una mayor movilidad a los lugares en donde las empresas busquen personal que no requiera una alta preparación para realizar las actividades propias de la organización.
- Margen de utilidad del empleado. Se considera margen de utilidad, a la cantidad de dinero que le sobra al empleado después de haber cubierto los gastos relacionados a al traslado y sustento en el trabajo (como comidas, estancias, transporte, etc.). Si existen empresas retribuyan al empleado dejándole un elevado margen de utilidad, las personas se dirigirán hacia ellas.

b) Ámbito de movilidad espacial del empleado.

- Tiempo de desplazamiento al lugar de trabajo. Se supone que debido a la existencia de un mayor tiempo de recorrido al lugar de trabajo menores posibilidades hay de que la gente se desplace hacia aquellos lugares en los que existen mayores ofertas de trabajo.
- Distancia del municipio de residencia. Se considera que al existir una mayor distancia entre el lugar de origen y el lugar de destino con fines de empleo, hay menos probabilidades de que la gente se movilice debido a gastos mayores y desgaste físico.
- Frecuencia de retorno al lugar de origen. Se percibe que al haber una mayor frecuencia de retorno al lugar de origen se incrementa de igual manera la movilidad espacial, ya que al existir una menor frecuencia de retorno las personas pueden quedarse definitivamente en su lugar de origen o incurrir en migración al ya no trasladarse y establecerse en un solo lugar.
- Medio de transporte utilizado para desplazarse. Muchos empleados que se desplazan por motivos de trabajo no cuentan con vehículos motorizados lo que impide que las personas recorran largas distancias para conseguir un mejor empleo.
- Diferencia entre la calidad de vida del lugar de origen y la calidad de vida del lugar de destino. Las personas que se movilizan siempre lo hacen porque desean conseguir todos aquellos elementos que den lugar a su tranquilidad y satisfacción. Desean desplazarse porque saben que podrían encontrar en otro lugar las condiciones para satisfacer sus necesidades materiales (comida y cobijo), psicológicas (seguridad y afecto), sociales (trabajo, derechos y responsabilidades) y ecológicas (calidad del aire, del agua).

c) Ámbito empresarial.

- Número de trabajadores que provienen de otros municipios. Se consideran que si existen en la empresa una cantidad considerable de trabajadores que provienen de distintos municipios del estado

se crea una mayor frecuencia de intercambio de redes sociales, lo que significa que es muy probable que estos trabajadores informen a otras personas de su comunidad que en las ciudades de Mérida y Umán hay una gran oferta de trabajo, lo cual aumente el nivel de movilidad espacial laboral.

Densidad empresarial en Mérida y Umán. La creciente concentración de actividades en estas ciudades, las transforma en puntos de atracción para la población circundante provocando alteraciones en la dinámica espacial, las personas se desplazan a estas ciudades desde la periferia para encontrar trabajo.

- Grado en que influye el lugar de procedencia con la contratación de personal. Existen mayores posibilidades de que haya un mayor nivel de movilidad espacial de la mano de obra hacia las ciudades de Mérida y Umán, si en las empresas que hay en estas ciudades no establecen como condición que sus empleados provengan únicamente del mismo municipio en donde la empresa se encuentra, es decir, si no hace distinción entre los trabajadores de Mérida y Umán y los del resto de los municipios del estado.
- Número de empleados que posee la empresa. Las empresas que posean una mayor cantidad de empleados son las empresas que no requieren de más mano de obra por lo que la MEMO disminuye, por el contrario, si la empresa no tiene suficientes empleados surgirá una carencia de mano de obra lo que hará que las personas se movilicen hacia ellas.

d) Ámbito socioeconómico del empleado.

- Nivel educativo. De acuerdo a lo investigado por otros autores las personas con un mayor nivel educativo manifiestan mayor conformidad para viajar si el trabajo lo requiere. Mientras que las personas con un bajo nivel educativo representan menos porcentajes. En cuanto al nivel de formación, se destaca que, en general, a mayor nivel de formación, mayor disponibilidad para viajar.
- Intervalo de edad. Según el factor edad, se ha corroborado que son los más jóvenes los que poseen un menor grado de responsabilidades familiares y mayores expectativas de inserción laboral y búsqueda de mejores oportunidades, los que expresan mayor disposición para la movilidad. Posteriormente, comienza una línea de progresión descendente debido a la asunción de compromisos familiares y al afianzamiento profesional.
- Género. Se percibe que existe una mayor disponibilidad a desplazarse en los hombres más que en las mujeres debido al rol que desempeña cada uno de ellos.
- Estado civil. También se observa una mayor disponibilidad a moverse en aquellos que son solteros, separados y divorciados, invirtiéndose la tendencia en los casados y viudos, es decir, se comprueba una mayor resistencia a moverse geográficamente desde que se contraen las responsabilidades familiares.

METODO

El presente estudio de investigación es descriptiva y correlacionar, debido a que las variables contenidas en el instrumento, se tratan de manera independiente y se podrán relacionar unas con respecto a otras, es decir, se identificará la forma en cómo es y cómo se manifiesta el fenómeno de interés con respecto a la actividad económica de Yucatán, los factores de localización de las empresas y la dinámica espacial del trabajo a la Zona Metropolitana.

Sujetos de estudio: La población objeto de estudio fueron los empleados, así como los directivos o gerentes que laboran en las unidades económicas, los que dieron respuesta al instrumento de investigación, que se encuentran localizadas en la ciudad de Mérida y Umán, de la Zona Metropolitana, cuya condición fue que cuenten con empleados o trabajadores que provengan del interior del estado de Yucatán. Los empleados identificados en las empresas que se encuentran incorporados en los tres sectores económicos del estado (Agropecuario, industrial y de servicios) e inmersos en los municipios de Mérida y Umán. El instrumento fue aplicado a los empleados siempre y cuando se tuvieran en la empresa a una persona proveniente del interior del estado de Yucatán laborando formalmente en ella.

Determinación de la muestra: Para determinar el tamaño de la muestra, se consideró un nivel de confianza del 98%, con un margen de error del 2%, tomando como base a la población Económicamente activa ocupada, en las empresas establecidas en Mérida y Umán de los tres sectores que integran la economía. Fue una muestra probabilística, para su distribución se consideraron estratos de confiabilidad con base al porcentaje establecido en el cálculo. Se entrevistó a un directivo de la empresa que arrojó la información necesaria y requerida para el estudio que se propone. Considerando al Promedio de trabajadores por empresa, para identificar el total de unidades económicas a encuestar.

Para el establecimiento del tamaño de la muestra se consideró información proveniente de fuentes secundarias, información generada por el INEGI, por medio de la publicación del Directorio Estadístico Nacional de Unidades Económicas (DENUE, 2010). Los empleados y/o trabajadores identificados en las unidades económicas que cumplen la condición fueron encuestados, considerando de igual forma a los empleados que provienen de otros estados y que son de la misma localidad estudiada. Debido a que en la empresa se encontraron a trabajadores del mismo municipio, de otros estados y de municipios del interior del estado de Yucatán.

Es por ello que se dividió a la población en empleados del mismo municipio, del interior del estado y de otros estados, para estudiar a precisión nuestra población, integrando de esta manera, en el estudio a los demás grupos identificados de empleados, en cada empresa.

El criterio considerado para identificar a los móviles laborales fueron las siguientes.

1. Que provenga del interior del estado de Yucatán.
2. Que formalmente labore en la Unidad económica.

Los criterios que se siguieron para identificar a las unidades económicas fueron las siguientes:

1. Que se encuentren dentro del listado de Directorio Estadístico Nacional de Unidades Económicas.
2. Contar con empleados que provengan del interior del estado de Yucatán.

Tipo de muestra probabilística

Se utilizó el muestreo tipo probabilístico por estrato para identificar la cantidad de Población Económicamente Activa Ocupada, a la que se le aplicó el instrumento, una vez determinada la muestra, se establecerá la proporción que por rama económica corresponda. Para determinar el tamaño de la muestra se realizó el siguiente procedimiento: Los datos utilizados son: un margen de error del 2%, con un nivel de confianza del 98%. El tamaño total de la población para los tres sectores económicos es de 245,671, de la rama económica 0051 aporta con 4,577 personas ocupadas ver anexo 1. Una vez determinada la muestra para la rama 0051 denominada medios masivos de información se establece como criterio segmentar la muestra para poder conocer el comportamiento de los móviles en relación a los no móviles, esto con la finalidad de poder contar con elementos contundentes para sustentar los factores asociados a la movilidad y determinar si este flujo es efectivo para las personas que se trasladan de otros municipios a la ciudad de Mérida.

RESULTADOS

Referente en a el factor Ámbito económico/laboral del empleado se obtuvieron los siguientes resultados. Prestaciones que reciben los empleados: Las prestaciones que reciben los empleados móviles como no móviles varían entre si ya que no todas las empresas proporcionan las mismas prestaciones a sus empleados. En la tabla 1 se muestra las prestaciones que reciben los empleados.

Tabla 1: Prestaciones que recibe los empleados de las distintas empresas.

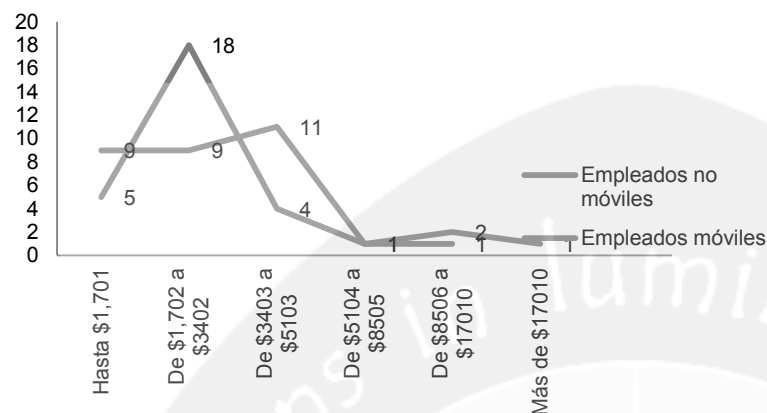
Prestaciones	Empleados móviles		Empleados no móviles	
	Si	No	Si	No
Vales de despensa	41.9%	58.1%	45.2%	54.8%
Vales de gasolina	9.7%	90.3%	6.5%	93.5%
Servicio médico privado	6.5%	93.5%	6.5%	93.5%
Servicio médico publico	93.5%	6.5%	93.5%	6.5%
Seguro de vida	9.7%	90.3%	16.1%	83.9%
Bonos de puntualidad/asistencia	16.1%	83.9%	32.3%	67.7%
Infonavit/Fovisste	93.5%	6.5%	87.1%	12.9%
Préstamos	29%	71%	9.7%	90.3%
Reparto de utilidades	77.4%	22.6%	83.9%	16.1%
Aguinaldo	96.8%	3.2%	100%	
Transporte	16.1%	83.9%	16.1%	83.9%
Uniformes	12.9%	87.1%	29%	71%
Sin prestaciones				
Bono de productividad	12.9%	87.1%	25.8%	74.2%

Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Ingresos de los empleados: Sus ingresos de los empleados móviles oscilan entre los \$1701 hasta los \$17,010 en cambio los de los empleados no móviles está entre los \$1,701 hasta más de \$17,010. Como lo muestra la figura 2.

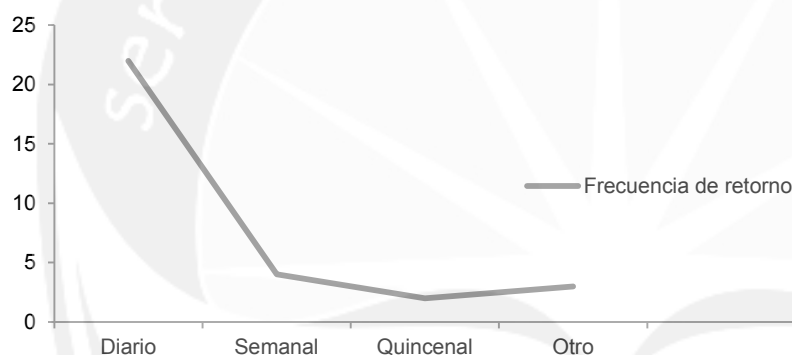
Puestos que ocupan en la empresas los empleados. El 58.1% de los empleados móviles contesto que ocupan el puesto operativo, el 32.3% el puesto administrativo, el 3.2% en intendencia y el 6.5% faltante en otras actividades. En contra parte los empleados no móviles el 64.5% ocupa el puesto operativo, el 19.4% el puesto operativo, el 6.5% intendente y el 9.7% otros puestos. Ámbito de movilidad espacial del empleado. La frecuencia con la que retornan a su lugar de origen los empleados móviles es de diaria como primera respuesta, le sigue a la semana, luego otro y de ultimo a la quincena.

Figura 2: Sueldo de los empleados móviles y no móviles.



Fuente: elaboración propia.

Figura 3: Frecuencia con la que retornan a su lugar de origen.



Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Lugar de origen de los empleados móviles. El lugar de procedencia de los empleados se puede observar en la tabla 2

Ámbito empresarial. El número de trabajadores que provienen de otros municipios oscilan entre 1 a 20 trabajadores y los que provienen de otros estados es la misma, mientras que los que son de el mismo municipio (Mérida) va de 1 a 100 trabajadores. Criterios para la contratación del personal Los directivos para admitir al personal que labora en sus empresas se basa en la preparación que tengan los empleados y se les pregunto si era importante su procedencia y contesto que no es de importancia el lugar de origen así pueden ser de Mérida, de otros municipios ó de otros estados.

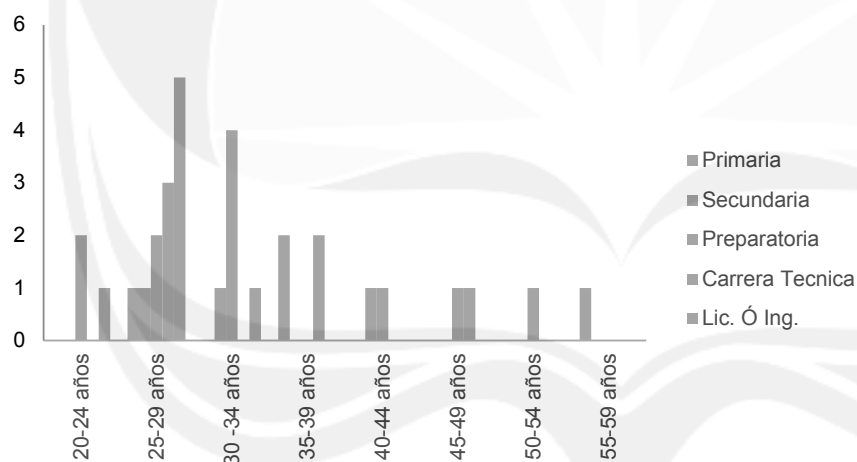
Ámbito socioeconómico del empleado. Nivel educativo y rango de edades. El nivel educativo de los empleados móviles es de media superior ya que el 35.5% tiene cursado la Preparatoria y el rango de edad se encuentra entre 25 a 29 años con un 38.7%. Como lo muestra la figura 4. En comparación de los empleados no móviles su nivel educativo es más alto ya que el 35.5% tiene una Licenciatura, y su rango de edad está entre 30 a 34 años como lo muestra la figura 5.

Tabla 2: Municipios de procedencia de los empleados móviles.

municipios	frecuencia
acanceh	2
conkal	2
dzilam gonzalez	1
hunucma	2
ixil	1
kanasin	4
kinchil	1
maxcanu	1
motul	2
peto	1
progreso	2
tekal de venegas	1
tekanto	1
tixkokob	1
tixmehuac	1
tixpehual	2
tizimin	1
ucu	1
uman	4
total	31

Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Figura 4: Nivel educativo vs rango de edad de los empleados móviles.

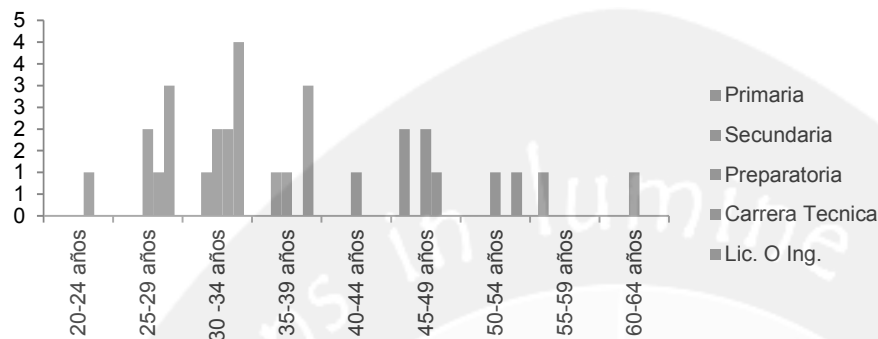


Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Figura 5: Nivel educativo vs rango de edad de los empleados no móviles.

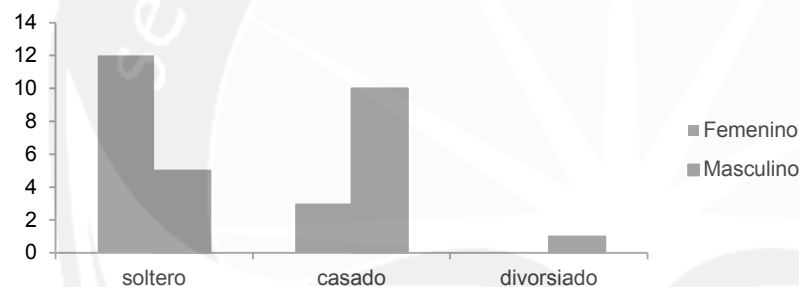
Composición de género de los empleados y su estado civil. Sobre la composición por género de los empleados móviles está conformado por 15 mujeres y representan el 48.4% y de 16 hombres, es decir el 51.6%, como lo muestra la figura 6. Y la composición de género de los no móviles está conformada por 12 mujeres que representan el 38.7% y de 19 hombres, es decir el 61.3% como lo muestra la figura 7. El estado civil de los empleados móviles entrevistados el 54.8% son Solteros mientras que el 41.9% son Casados y el 3.2% es Divorciado, como lo muestra la figura 6. Mientras los no móviles el 32.3% es Soltero, el 58.1% es Casado, el 6.5 es divorciado y el 3.2 es Viudo como lo muestra la figura 7. Como se

puede apreciar hay una gran diferencia entre los que son móviles y lo que no ya que los móviles su estado civil predominante es el Soltero mientras que para él no móvil es el Casado.



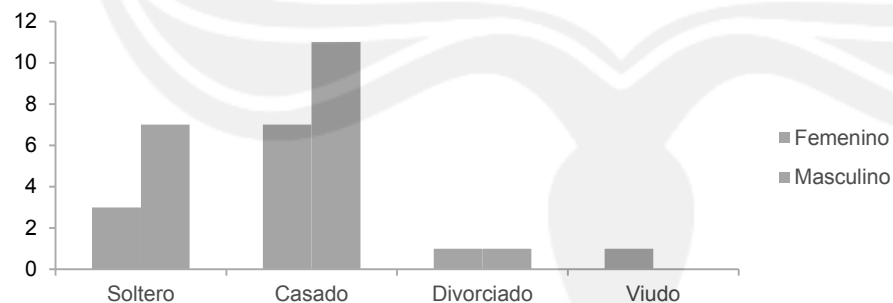
Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Figura 6: Estado civil vs género de los empleados móviles.



Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Figura 7: Estado civil vs género de los empleados no móviles



Fuente: Elaboración propia.

CONCLUSIONES

Es visible identificar por la cercanía del interior del estado los municipios de Kanasín, Umán y Progreso son lo que se movilizan por cuestiones laborales inmediatas a esta actividad económica. Sus ingresos están dados por la preparación académica que tienen para ocupar el puesto ya que la mayoría tiene la

preparatoria hasta una licenciatura. La contratación de personal del interior del estado es para las empresas de medios masivos de comunicación de mayor dificultad debido a que por la disponibilidad de horario por los eventos, noticias y por la distribución se requiere la presencia de estas personas; sin embargo la distancia en una limitante para poder optar de mayor jerarquía dentro de la rama económica que impulse el crecimiento económico de los dependientes del empleado y del empleado mismo.

Anexo 1: Determinación de la muestra por sector

Código	Personal ocupado	Personal ocupado de la rama/personal ocupado	Total tamaño de la muestra
11 Agricultura, cría y explotación de animales, aprovechamiento forestal, pesca y caza.	61	0,0002483	0,829072214
21 Minería	159	0,000647207	2,161024297
22 Generación, transmisión y distribución de energía, suministro de agua y gas por ductos al consumidor final	2530	0,010298326	34,38610988
23 Construcción	18660	0,075955241	253,6145495
31 Industria manufacturera	37029	0,150725971	503,2740169
43 Comercio al por mayor	16021	0,065213232	217,7469828
46 Comercio al por mayor	60597	0,24665915	823,5949013
48 Transporte, correos y almacenamiento	10440	0,042495858	141,8936708
51 Medios masivos de información	4577	0,018630608	62,20759878
52 Servicios financieros y de seguros	1733	0,00705415	23,5538057
53 Servicios inmobiliarios y de alquiler de bienes muebles intangibles	4356	0,017731031	59,20391092
54 Servicios profesionales, científicos y técnicos	9878	0,040208246	134,2553334
56 Servicios de apoyo a los negocios y manejo de desechos y servicios de remediación	17798	0,072446483	241,8988078
61 Servicios educativos	10892	0,044335717	148,03696
62 Servicios de salud y de asistencia social	9251	0,037656052	125,733558
71 Servicios de esparcimiento culturales y deportivos y otros servicios	2584	0,010518132	35,1200427
72 Servicios de alojamiento temporal y de preparación de alimentos y bebidas	21948	0,089338994	298,302901
81 Otros servicios excepto actividades gubernamentales	14305	0,058228281	194,42423
93 Actividades legislativas, gubernamentales de impartición de justicia de organismos internacionales y extra nacionales	2852	0,011609022	38,7625239
Total	245671		3339

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IMPACTO DEL BURNOUT Y LA SATISFACCIÓN LABORAL EN LOS GERENTES DE LAS MAQUILADORAS EN TECATE, B.C. MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

El burnout y la satisfacción laboral son variables que han sido estudiadas desde hace décadas, la revisión de marco teórico señala que existen numerosos estudios del síndrome de estar quemado en instituciones de asistencia médica y en las educativas, sin embargo el burnout se ha generalizado en diversas organizaciones y por ende ha afectado la satisfacción laboral de las personas que lo padecen. Este artículo presenta una investigación de carácter documental donde se analiza el contexto regional, nacional e internacional en el cual se encuentran inmersas las maquiladoras su importancia y trascendencia, así mismo se realizó una revisión del estado del arte presentado las definiciones y constructos ya elaborados sobre satisfacción laboral y burnout, esto con la finalidad de en un futuro inmediato determinar el impacto que tienen estas dos variables en los gerentes de maquiladora en la ciudad de Tecate, Baja California, México, cuales son las causas que lo producen y como afectan a los individuos y a las organizaciones, como el estudio se realizará en dos sectores de la industria se efectuará un comparativo para determinar si los índices de las variables son iguales o diferentes, y en este último caso verificar en qué punto difieren.

PALABRAS CLAVE: burnout, síndrome de estar quemado, satisfacción laboral, gerentes, maquiladoras.

DE LA MOVILIDAD A LA MIGRACIÓN: FACTORES ASOCIADOS

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RESUMEN

En el presente documento se asocia a la movilidad con la demanda laboral y la migración, debido a que en estudios anteriores de la Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana, se pudo identificar que las personas de las regiones de Yucatán migran primeramente debido a la necesidad de contar con un empleo o de tener un mejor empleo, siendo los principales lugares de destino la ciudad de Mérida, el estado de Quintana Roo y Estados Unidos de Norteamérica. La movilidad se presenta cuando la direccionalidad de las personas se genera dentro del mismo municipio, estado o país. Se identifica a la ciudad de Mérida como el lugar de mayor atracción estatal, presentándose la movilidad de las personas del interior del estado hacia la capital con fines netamente laborales, ocupacionales y de mejoría económica, siendo la estrategia principal para contar con ingresos, un salario adicional o complementario. Se puede concluir que cuando no se logra tener frutos, es decir no se alcanza cubrir las necesidades de la familia con los ingresos adquiridos en el empleo en la localidad, surge el interés del individuo por migrar, realizar el traslado hacia otro país siendo este proceso necesario para el individuo.

Palabras Clave: Movilidad, Migración.

INTRODUCCION

El presente documento registra información teórica relativa a la movilidad y migración que se ha identificado en el Estado de Yucatán, en los municipios de Chacsinkin, Peto y Tahdziú. Registro generadas por fuentes secundarias pero que con el proceso primario en operativo de campo se logra acercarse a la realidad de los municipios de la entidad, considerando sus potencialidades pero más aun sus carencias socioeconómicas.

REVISION DE LITERATURA

Para realizar un abordaje a la temática en cuestión se parte de la contextualización de ambos fenómenos mismos que fueron identificados en el Estado de Yucatán. Clarence Senior (citado por Herrera, 2006, p.23) entiende a la migración como un cambio permanente de residencia, el cual debe de ser lo suficientemente estable y largo para que pueda clasificarse como migración, de lo contrario debe ser considerado como movilidad espacial. Eisenstadt adiciona además del factor tiempo, la necesidad de existir un cambio sociocultural, es decir, el abandono de un estado social para entrar en otro diferente.

Por su parte Petersen (citado por Herrera, 2006, p. 24) menciona que el término asociado a la definición latina migrare, implica cambio hacia otra comunidad, abandonando la de uno. Una persona que se mueve de una casa a otra dentro de la misma vecindad y que por lo tanto se mantiene dentro del mismo marco socio-cultural, no debe ser clasificada como migrante. Bogue (citado por Herrera, 2006, p.24) coincide con este criterio y opina que los factores básicos involucrados en la migración son, por un lado, la distancia y por el otro, el cambio en el ámbito sociocultural; sostiene además que teóricamente, el término migración debe ser reservado para aquellos cambios de residencia que involucren un reajuste completo de las afiliaciones del individuo en la comunidad. Cada miembro de una población reside en algún punto o serie de puntos en el espacio y un mero cambio en la ubicación de su residencia, debe ser definida únicamente, sin mayores implicaciones, como movilidad espacial. Es decir, si no hay un cambio cultural involucrado en el traslado de un lugar a otro, no puede hablarse de migración. Distinguiéndose de ésta

manera a los migrantes y móviles, los primeros son los que se trasladan entre unidades políticas y los segundos lo hacen dentro de las mismas (Herrera, 2006, p.30). Por otra parte se considera el factor económico de la nueva economía sobre la migración, tomando como base los Mercados de Capital, argumentando los deseos de los miembros de los hogares para aumentar la productividad de sus bienes o posesiones, pero para hacerlo necesitan adquirir capital para hacer inversiones adicionales (mejorar su economía).

Se concibe al movimiento migratorio como una decisión personal para maximizar el ingreso. La "nueva economía sobre la migración", en contraste, considera las condiciones de una variedad de mercados, no sólo mercados laborales. Ve la migración como una decisión familiar tomada para minimizar los riesgos al ingreso familiar o para superar restricciones de capital en las actividades productivas familiares (Massey, et, al, 2000). Las decisiones de migrar de los habitantes de Yucatán son primordialmente por "tener un empleo" y por "contar con un mejor empleo", resultado arrojado en el estudio denominado "Estudio regional de la migración en el Estado de Yucatán"

Para que el individuo tome la decisión de migrar, relativamente deberá considerar si dentro de su localidad o área geográfica tendrá oportunidades de aprovechamiento laboral, para trasladarse a otro espacio que le genere lo que no encuentra en su lugar de origen sin importar la distancia que se tenga que recorrer, contrario a lo señalado por Von Thünen que reconoce que el hombre trata de resolver sus necesidades económicas en el entorno inmediato, reduciendo sus desplazamientos al mínimo. En el presente documento se asocia a la movilidad con la demanda laboral y la migración, debido a que en estudios anteriores de la Universidad Tecnológica Metropolitana, se pudo identificar que las personas de las regiones de Yucatán migran primeramente debido a la necesidad de contar con un empleo o de tener un mejor empleo, siendo los principales lugares de destino la ciudad de Mérida, el estado de Quintana Roo y Estados Unidos de Norteamérica (González, et. al, 2010). Por tanto la movilidad es aquella que se presenta ante el desplazamiento de las personas del lugar de origen a otro, o conocido también como el cambio de residencia, temporal o permanente. Es decir cuando la direccionalidad de las personas se genera dentro del mismo municipio o país.

Al identificar a la ciudad de Mérida como el lugar de mayor atracción estatal, presentándose la movilidad de las personas del interior del estado hacia la capital con fines netamente laborales, ocupacionales y de mejoría económica, siendo la estrategia principal para contar con ingresos, un salario adicional o complementario. Pero cuando el flujo no logra tener frutos, es decir no se alcanza cubrir las necesidades de la familia con los ingresos adquiridos en el empleo, surge el interés del individuo por migrar, realizar el traslado hacia otro país siendo este proceso necesario para el individuo. Lo anterior conlleva al planteamiento de la movilidad a la migración, situación derivada de factores económicos, provocados por falta de inserción de unidades económicas en las localidades expulsoras, adicionando a lo anterior la carencia de accesos viales en condiciones adecuadas, medios de comunicación, mano de obra calificada, entre otros, situación que limita en mayor medida las condiciones de los habitantes de localidades expulsoras. Detallando la necesidad e importancia del presente estudio se consideran los siguientes puntos:

- Se podrá detectar a nivel región las necesidades económicas y sociales de los núcleos familiares de migrantes.
- El identificar las repercusiones ocasionadas en las familias debido a la migración laboral hacia EUA.

- Podrá generarse información que sea de utilidad para el diseño de estrategias para fortalecer al municipio y a la región en donde se encuentra.
- La importancia del presente estudio radica en que se podrá realizar un análisis de la relación del costo-beneficio de la migración en las familias.
- Se identificarán los factores que afectan a los familiares que se quedan en los municipios selectos.

METODOLOGÍA

La investigación se desarrolló en los municipios de Chacsinkin, Peto y Tahdziú, ubicados geográficamente en la región VI del Estado de Yucatán. Con la finalidad de contar con información del comportamiento del fenómeno migratorio, los efectos provocados en el núcleo de la familia y el impacto de las remesas en el ingreso familiar. El estudio fue dirigido a los familiares de mayor cercanía (papá, mamá, hijo, o en su caso hermano) de los migrantes, que habitaban en la vivienda, a quienes se les aplicó la encuesta, siendo un solo instrumento empleado para cada una de las viviendas identificadas en el municipio. La investigación se realizó en un período de dos años iniciando en septiembre de 2010, para concluir en septiembre de 2012. La investigación es de tipo transversal, ya que el levantamiento de la información se realizó en un solo período de tiempo.

RESULTADOS

Como resultados generales identificados se puede señalar que se presenta la decisión de migrar en los pobladores, presenta consideraciones económicas y sociales que se tendrán que tomar antes de partir, sin embargo, ésta decisión tanto del entorno como de la familia, destacan como fundamentales para el presente estudio. Ya que identificando las causas principales podrán generarse medidas que a mediano o largo plazo sean favorables para los municipios objeto de estudio, y para municipios aledaños que conforman la región VI. También se podrán identificar los problemas que presentan los familiares de los migrantes cuando no se cuenta con éste integrante. Con la partida del migrante las estructuras familiares tambalean, se vuelven frágiles y dependiente a la comunicación o forma de comunicación en la que se reportará el que se fue. Lo cual se vuelve más difícil cuando la migración se presenta externamente (internacional e ilegal). A su vez los municipios son identificados como de alto grado de marginación y la realización del presente, arrojará información detonante, requerida para los municipios que reúnan las características de marginación establecidas por la CONAPO, en relación a propuestas de estrategias, programas o acciones, orientadas a mejorar las condiciones económicas y sociales del municipio. Al vincularse los resultados con las diversas dependencias de la entidad, también podrá utilizarse como referencia para otros estudios, y acciones en beneficio de la localidad en materia migratoria.

CONCLUSIONES

Para concluir se puede señalar que la movilidad es requerida en familias Yucatecas debido a las dificultades económicas identificadas en sus lugares de origen, y la falta de un espacio en las unidades económicas para el desempeño de actividades inherentes a sus capacidades y conocimientos. Sin embargo este flujo toma otros destinos cuando el individuo no obtiene ingresos suficientes para subsanar las carencias que la familia presenta, en la ciudad de Mérida, seguidamente toma como dirección el estado de Quintana Roo y finalmente EUA. Lo anterior involucra el amplio diferencial salarial que encontrará en la unión americana y las limitantes actividades ocupacionales a desempeñarse por el nivel educativo del individuo.

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ESTRATEGIAS DE COMERCIALIZACION DE LA MICRO Y PEQUEÑA EMPRESA AGROINDUSTRIAL EN LA CIUDAD DE ENSENADA BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

Este trabajo tiene como finalidad conocer las estrategias comerciales que tienen la micro y pequeña empresa agroindustrial en la región de Ensenada Baja California, México. Para delimitar el marco muestral se consultaron datos estadísticos que ofrece el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI), en el agregado del sector primario que incluye empresas: agropecuarias, silvícolas y de pesca. Se considera también a la industria manufacturera del sector secundario, en la división de productos: alimenticios y bebidas. En base a la información resultante se realizó un muestreo no probabilístico a juicio, para identificar productores agrícolas y empresas que fungen como transformadoras de alimentos e intermediarios dentro del canal de distribución, con el fin de identificar factores que describan el modelo de negocio a través de la observación directa y la entrevista a profundidad. Se concluye con una descripción del manejo de los canales de distribución y su compromiso con los productores agrícolas; factores clave en la definición de sus estrategias comerciales.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Pequeña y mediana empresa, agroindustria, comercialización, canales de distribución.

MARKETING STRATEGIES OF MICRO AND SMALL ENTERPRISES AGRIBUSINESS IN THE CITY OF ENSENADA BAJA CALIFORNIA

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to understand the business strategies that are micro and small agro-industrial company in the region of Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico. To define the sampling frame were consulted statistics provided by the Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI), in the aggregate of the primary sector which includes companies: agricultural, forestry and fishing. It is also considered the secondary manufacturing sector, the division of products: food and beverages. Based on the resulting information is made a non-probability sampling to trial, to identify farmers and companies that serve as food processors and intermediaries in the distribution channel, to identify factors that describe the business model through direct observation and in-depth interviews. It concludes with a description of the management of distribution channels and its commitment to agricultural producers, key factors in defining their business strategies.

JEL: M31, Q12, Q13

KEYWORDS: Small and medium enterprises, agribusiness, marketing, distribution channels.

INTRODUCCION

El Sector agroindustrial de Ensenada ha contribuido por muchos años al desarrollo económico de la región, debido a que el suelo es dedicado en una gran parte a desarrollar actividades agrícolas y ganaderas en valles costeros e inter montañosos, así como a agostaderos naturales con características agroclimáticas que permiten, en su conjunto, explotar una amplia gama de cultivos en 84,400 hectáreas y el aprovechamiento de 4'103,541 hectáreas en uso pecuario mismas que representan el 77.1% de la superficie total del municipio con 7,800 usuarios.

Esta investigación integra una revisión bibliográfica sobre los canales de distribución de los productos, la importancia que tienen dentro de la mezcla de mercadotecnia. Posteriormente muestra la metodología que se utilizó para llevar a cabo el proceso de investigación y al final se da a conocer el proceso de comercialización de las micro y pequeñas empresas agroindustriales de Ensenada Baja California, pretende conocer la forma en que el sector elige y evalúa el canal de distribución.

OBJETIVOS

Objetivo general: Conocer las estrategias comerciales que tiene la micro y pequeña empresa agroindustrial en la Ciudad de Ensenada Baja California.

Objetivos específicos: (1) Medir los resultados que obtiene la micro y pequeña empresa agroindustrial en Ensenada Baja California con la implementación de las estrategias comerciales. (2) Conocer el proceso y factores de comercialización y distribución de los productos agroindustriales en Ensenada Baja California. (3) Crear estrategias de comercialización óptimas para el sector agroindustrial de la región.

REVISION LITERARIA

Agroindustria

La agroindustria inicia con los productos del sector agrícola, cuando son cosechados requieren servicios de transporte, almacenaje, logística, servicios de mercadeo y el proceso final que es la preparación de alimentos y su consumo.

El término agroindustria, proceso agro industrial, o industria alimentaria excluye industrias que producen equipo industrial o agrícola y maquinaria o insumos químicos para la agricultura. (FAO, 1997)

La actividad agroindustrial no puede ser analizada en forma aislada al formar parte de un sistema compuesto de elementos que la definen y la explican como entrada, salida procesos, fronteras y medio ambiente donde se involucran personas, tecnología, capital, materiales, datos, regulaciones. (Heylighen, 1998)

Los clientes demandan alimentos procesados que les cubran sus necesidades, con calidad, de fácil manejo; alimentos e ingredientes que no dañen su salud, frescos, alimentos complementarios de acuerdo al estilo de vida, ricos en vitaminas, comidas rápidas que ayuden al consumidor a conservar su forma y alimentos con alto valor nutrimental. (Cuevas, 1998)

Las estrategias comerciales para la industria agrícola se deben basar en cumplir con los requerimientos de los consumidores, regulaciones y expectativas para producir bienes con calidad y seguros. La industria de

los alimentos debe tener un impacto positivo sobre la seguridad alimentaria, contar con la capacidad de ofrecer alta calidad a los consumidores sobre bases sustentables y ser innovadores en los procesos de este sector,

Comercialización agroindustrial

El marketing agroindustrial estudia el movimiento y el comportamiento de los bienes y servicios dedicados al sector agrario, haciendo énfasis en temas como la conducta del consumidor y la promoción de productos agrícolas en el país y el mundo. Analiza los cambios y tendencias en los mercados de productos alimentarios y sus implicaciones para las cadenas productivas agrarias. (Jáuregui, 2001)

La comercialización de los productos agrícolas se lleva a cabo en cuanto el productor vende a las compañías encargadas de la distribución o transformación de estos bienes, estas empresas que le dan un valor agregado al producto ya sea porque lo procesan o porque lo acercan a los consumidores tienen un margen de rentabilidad más amplio que el mismo productor. Ante tal situación, es necesario capacitar a los agricultores sobre las estrategias idóneas para comercializar sus productos.

Como en todo proceso administrativo debe hacerse una planeación, diseñar las estrategias de mercadotecnia para la comercialización y los cursos alternativos de acción sobre los cuales se generan decisiones más acertadas para el beneficio de la empresa agrícola. (Fischer, 2004) Para hacer realidad las estrategias de marketing agroindustrial, serán necesarios varios elementos:

Estudios financieros: Análisis de inversiones a largo plazo y de costo de capital para los agronegocios, incluyendo decisiones a largo plazo, valorización de activos durables, utilización de estrategias de inversión, contabilidad en momentos de riesgo y relaciones de liquidez.

Logística de Agronegocios: Operaciones necesarias para llevar a cabo procesos de comercialización exitosos: a saber: transporte, bodegaje, cuidado y presentación.

Gerencia: Posicionamiento estratégico y dinámica competitiva. Coordinación vertical en las cadenas agroindustriales. Estudios de mercado, de cambio tecnológico y como elemento importante la investigación agrícola y técnica agrícola incluyendo capacitación.

Entre los elementos fundamentales se encuentra la remuneración de los recursos productivos (mano de obra, capital tierra), las características de los precios y los aspectos medioambientales de la producción con el fin de mejorar la productividad.

Analizar el funcionamiento y desarrollo de los mercados agrícolas y de alimentos y la evolución comercial del mercadeo de los mismos, puede ser una estrategia válida para buscar desarrollo en las sociedades y mejores oportunidades en los campos latinoamericanos. (Jáuregui, 2001)

Importancia de los canales de distribución

Las decisiones que se deben hacer sobre los canales de distribución dan a los productos los beneficios del lugar y los beneficios del tiempo al consumidor.

El beneficio de lugar se refiere a la acción de llevar el producto lo más cerca posible del consumidor para que este no tenga que recorrer grandes distancias para obtenerlo y satisfacer así una necesidad. El beneficio de lugar se puede ver desde dos puntos de vista:

El primero considera los productos cuya compra se favorece cuando están muy cerca del consumidor, el cual no está dispuesto a realizar un gran esfuerzo por obtenerlos.

El segundo punto de vista considera los productos exclusivos, los cuales deben encontrarse solo en ciertos lugares para no perder su carácter de exclusividad; en este caso, el consumidor está dispuesto a realizar algún esfuerzo mayor o de menor grado para obtenerlo según el producto que se trate. (Thompson, 2007) El beneficio de tiempo es consecuencia del anterior, ya que si no existe el beneficio de lugar, tampoco este puede darse. Consiste en llevar un producto al consumidor en el momento más adecuado. Hay productos que deben estar al alcance del consumidor en un momento después del cual la compra no se realiza; otros han de ser buscados algún tiempo para que procuren una mayor satisfacción al consumidor. (Fisher, 2000)

Proporcionar especialización y división de la mano de obra: es el desglose de una tarea compleja en otras más pequeñas y sencillas para asignarlas a los especialistas, crea una mayor eficiencia y reduce los costos promedio de producción.

Los canales de mercadotecnia también logran economías de escala por medio de la especialización y división de la mano de obra al ayudar a los productores que carecen de motivación, financiamientos o conocimientos para vender directamente a los usuarios o consumidores finales. (Moscoso, 2000)

METODOLOGIA

Hipótesis

La micro y pequeña empresa agroindustrial de Ensenada Baja California no ha desarrollado su potencial económico, debido al desconocimiento de la creación de canales de distribución óptimos.

Tipo de diseño y estudio

Este trabajo de investigación tiene un alcance descriptivo, ya que pretende analizar el proceso de comercialización de la agroindustria en la región. Es no experimental transeccional, pues no existe una manipulación deliberada de variables, sino que estudia un fenómeno en su ambiente natural y en un momento único.

Se utilizaron dos tipos de fuentes: las fuentes primarias que son los productores agrícolas del municipio de Ensenada Baja California y las empresas que fungen como transformadores de alimentos o intermediarios principales de los canales de distribución. También se utilizaron fuentes secundarias como las bases de datos o de información que tiene el Gobierno del Estado sobre información económica y que son para consulta de todo el público principalmente en Internet.

Determinación de la muestra

Se analizaron las estadísticas de Municipio de Ensenada Baja California en el agregado del sector primario, que incluye divisiones del sector agropecuario, silvicultura y pesca, también del sector secundario que incluye a la industria manufacturera, en la división de productos alimenticios y bebidas.

El muestreo es a juicio no probabilístico, se identificarán a los principales productores del sector agrícola del municipio de Ensenada Baja California, así como el canal de distribución y los intermediarios del canal de cada uno de ellos.

Aspectos que no se incluyen en la investigación:

- Productos silvícolas de uso industrial al margen del sistema alimentario.
- Agroquímicos que contribuyen con insumos al sector agropecuario y que forman parte de otro sector,
- Ramas del sector industrial que aportan maquinaria agrícola.
- Ganadería y pesca por producto, que forman parte del sector agro alimentario y que por la magnitud del estudio no se incluyen.
- Los productos agrícolas con escasa representatividad en la actividad agroalimentaria del Estado.

Técnicas de recopilación de datos

Los métodos de investigación que se utilizaron para la recolección de información serán de dos tipos: la observación y la entrevista. La observación se hizo directamente con los productores y con el intermediario del canal de distribución. Las entrevistas se hicieron con base a un cuestionario directo no estructurado y se grabarán, esto con el fin de organizarlos posteriormente.

RESULTADO DE LA INVESTIGACION

Al hacer un análisis del proceso que se lleva a cabo en el sector agroindustrial, pudimos percibir un atraso tecnológico en el sistema de siembra y cosecha del 75% de las pequeñas empresas agrícolas, situación expresada por los dueños de estas compañías, pues los productores con quienes platicamos identifican la tecnología que se utiliza para la producción agrícola; solo que ellos no tienen acceso a ella debido a la falta de crédito.

El proceso de producción agrícola comienza con un trabajo arduo en la tierra, pues el terreno se debe preparar con anticipación para ser sembrado, los productores aprovechan las temporadas después de sus cosechas para dejar “descansar” el suelo y luego adecuarlo para la siguiente siembra. Seleccionar la semilla es vital para que la planta y el fruto sean de alta calidad.

La mayoría de los pequeños productores agrícolas de la región, se autoempleo en sus tierras, ello son los dueños y trabajadores de su negocio. Empresas medianas de producción de productos agrícolas, contratan personal por temporadas, es importante mencionar que este personal es capacitado para realizar las actividades encomendadas; esta capacitación y actualización para la optimización de los recursos, no llega a los pequeñas empresas.

El 50% de los productores entrevistados, dijo estar en contacto con compradores mayoristas para venderles sus productos; sin embargo el otro 50% no negoció su producción de forma previa a la siembra;

por lo que esto se traduce en un riesgo para la colocación de sus productos al mercado. Cabe señalar que empresas más grandes y con capacidad económica, tienen contratos con distribuidores mayoristas para la comercialización de su producción.

Los productores que han optado por buscar compradores mayoristas, lo hacen a través de las referencias de otras personas; sin embargo no todos los años se venden al mismo mayorista y esto puede ocasionar riesgo para el productor.

En la región de Ensenada, Tijuana y Mexicali, existen empresas mayoristas de estos productos, que facilitan la comercialización entre el mercado. COLIMAN es uno de ellos. Esta empresa mayorista ayuda a productores agrícolas para la siembra y cosecha. Este mayorista intermediario entre los productores y los autoservicios o pequeños comercios que venden este tipo de artículos, ha generado una confianza entre sus proveedores, de tal forma que ha participado financieramente en el proceso de producción; claro comprando a precios especiales y asegurando la cosecha de los productos. Hay otros mayoristas como ALTISA, que no participan directamente con la producción, pero realizan contratos para asegurar la producción, optimizando el tiempo y sus recursos para mejor provecho.

Ambas empresas mayoristas, tienen prácticas que fomentan el crecimiento agroindustrial, ya sea financiando o comprando la cosecha por adelantado; pero sus negociaciones van dirigidas principalmente a empresas de producción agrícola de tamaño mediano o grande.

El sistema de canales de distribución en este sector económico es variado, pues puede utilizarse únicamente un intermediario entre el productor y el cliente, o puede comercializarse con un mayorista que le vende la mercancía al detallista; y éste a su vez lo hace llegar al cliente final, o simplemente el productor lo comercializa de forma directa. Pero se revisó que entre las ventajas que se tiene al utilizar un canal de distribución largo (productor – mayorista – detallista – cliente), el producto es cosechado en un momento en el que éste ha crecido en su totalidad y sólo faltará madurar, esto hace que en la cosecha se reduzca la merma pues el producto no ha madurado, manteniendo una alta calidad. Los mayoristas transportan las mercancías en camiones con refrigeración aumentando el tiempo de vida y manteniendo la calidad. Los sistemas de refrigeración o maduración que utilizan estas empresas son ideales para su conservación, complementando y haciendo eficiente el proceso de distribución.

El pequeño productor agrícola que no utiliza canales de distribución complejos sino que él es que vende su producto, no puede ofrecer la misma calidad que una empresa más grande.

Se observó el proceso de conservación y tratamiento de diversos productos agrícolas al visitar a los mayoristas, y se comprendió el porqué de su existencia en este sector primario. El mayorista de este sector es vital en el canal de distribución, pues cubre funciones de financiamiento, de almacenamiento de mercancía, de distribución física de los productos y transfiere información hacia todo el canal para eficientizar los recursos y mantener la calidad de los productos.

Los productos agrícolas líderes en la región según INEGI están la vid. La producción de vinos ha impulsado que se desarrolle y repunte a nivel internacional.

La producción de fresa en el valle de San Quintín ha ido aumentando, aunque Baja California es el segundo productor de fresa, se considera que en esta región se produce este fruto con alta calidad. Ensenada es líder en la producción de hortalizas, pero tiene una baja producción de granos.

CONCLUSIONES

En una economía competitiva, las empresas llevan a cabo estrategias agresivas de comercialización para ganar y mantener a sus clientes. La competencia se lleva a cabo en todos los sectores industriales y a todos los niveles, no importa que sean grandes, medianas, pequeñas o microempresas pues la lucha por ganar mercado es una constante.

La industria agrícola de la región se encuentra compitiendo por ganar una parte del mercado, enfrentándose a grandes retos para colocar sus productos entre los favoritos, para lograr tener una ventaja competitiva debe tomar en cuenta varios aspectos importantes como: la creación del producto, el establecimiento del precio así como de las estrategias de promoción y distribución, marcando con esto una ventaja competitiva.

Los micro y pequeños productores agroindustriales de la región de Ensenada Baja California, no han crecido debido a varios factores:

Falta de conocimiento de la existencia de programas de financiamiento que pueden ayudarlos a mejorar las condiciones de trabajo y aumento de la producción.

La concentración de manera específica en producir sólo la cantidad de acuerdo a sus capacidades, o lo que el mercado local requiera; por lo que se deduce que no hay un espíritu de desarrollo.

El micro y pequeño productor agrícola, no hace negociaciones con mayoristas debido a que su producción es baja, y los mayoristas compran en grandes cantidades.

Si el productor tuviera acceso al crédito, entonces puede comenzar a incrementar su producción y utilizar los beneficios que el canal de distribución puede ofrecer.

Por lo que se necesita mayor difusión de programas gubernamentales, o de la iniciativa privada, que fomenten el desarrollo del campo, capaciten al productor micro y pequeño de este sector para la optimización de sus recursos.

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LA INTELIGENCIA COMPETITIVA EN LAS EMPRESAS DE LA CIUDAD DE TIJUANA B.C.

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RESUMEN

El presente trabajo pretende ofrecer información que muestre la utilidad de la Inteligencia Competitiva mediante el análisis de conceptos que describan la aplicación de esta en el desarrollo y creación de empresas. Por tal motivo se llevo a cabo una investigación exploratoria de tipo cualitativo, mediante consulta a diferentes fuentes secundarias de información, relacionadas con el tema y entrevistas a profundidad realizadas a representantes de centros en los que se realiza inteligencia competitiva en la ciudad de Tijuana, Baja California, México. Los resultados obtenidos, ponen de manifiesto la importancia de esta herramienta en el desarrollo empresarial, al mismo tiempo que ilustran que su uso en las empresas de Tijuana es incipiente.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Inteligencia Competitiva, desarrollo empresarial, empresas de Tijuana B.C.

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to provide information showing the usefulness of Competitive Intelligence by analyzing concepts that describe the application of this development and entrepreneurship. For this reason conducted a qualitative exploratory research, through consultation with various secondary sources of information related to the topic and depth interviews with representatives of centers that perform competitive intelligence in the city of Tijuana, Baja California , Mexico. At the same time, they show the use of it in Tijuana emerging companies is not enough.

KEYWORDS: Competitive Intelligence, Business Development, Tijuana BC companies

JEL: D80

INTRODUCCIÓN

La innovación es un proceso informacional, en el cual el conocimiento – información con significado – es adquirido, procesado y transferido (Hauschildt, 1992). Para Rothwell (1994) la innovación es un proceso de acumulación de *Know How* y aprendizaje, cuyas principales ventajas se obtienen a partir de la gestión dinámica de la información, donde la conexión entre las áreas internas y el entorno externo (proveedores, distribuidores, clientes) de la organización busca realizarse en tiempo real y paralelo.

Ello demanda que las organizaciones cuenten con sistemas de información que les permitan transformar datos en conocimiento, ante esta imperiosa necesidad emerge la Inteligencia Competitiva (IC), disciplina definida como un proceso ético y sistemático de recolección de información, análisis y diseminación pertinente, precisa, específica, oportuna, predecible y activa, acerca del ambiente de negocios, de los competidores y de la propia organización (Sociedad de Profesionales de Inteligencia Competitiva (SCIP) de Estados Unidos, citado por Massón, 2006).

Massón (2006) cita a Deschamps y Nayak (1995) [citado en Rouach y Santi (2001)] para argumentar que existen tres clases de IC: Market Intelligence, Competitor Intelligence y Technological Intelligence.

Por otra parte, es pertinente destacar que los problemas que presentan las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas están asociados en gran medida a la obsolescencia tecnológica. El conocimiento y tecnología contenido en las patentes de uso libre son una solución potencial cuando se hace uso de ella.

Para ello es necesario primeramente conocer dichas patentes, las búsquedas tecnológicas son una opción para que el espectro empresarial, adquiera el conocimiento y la cultura de consultar las diversas bases de patentes como fuente de solución a sus problemas tecnológicos, de producto y proceso, mediante la incorporación del “saber hacer” (*know how*) contenido en las patentes.

Bajo este contexto el propósito de la presente es identificar 1) el nivel de conocimiento que tienen los empresarios sobre IC, y 2) las fuentes que apoyan el proceso de la IC en los negocios de la ciudad de Tijuana, Baja California.

Teniendo en cuenta lo anterior, el trabajo se articula en cinco apartados. El primero de ellos se compone de la presente introducción; en un segundo momento, se revisan distintas concepciones y referencias sobre la IC, posteriormente, en el tercer apartado se describe el método utilizado para determinar el nivel de conocimiento los apoyos para la aplicación de la IC en las empresas de Tijuana. Finalmente, los últimos dos apartados muestran los principales resultados encontrados para concluir con las conclusiones del estudio.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

De acuerdo con Sanmartín (2007) la Inteligencia Competitiva (IC) es una nueva disciplina importada de Estados Unidos, inicialmente centrada en aspectos de marketing, pero que actualmente se extiende a un amplio abanico de actividades, entre ellos tareas de Investigación y Desarrollo (I+D), recursos humanos, y producción, como elementos clave en la adopción de decisiones estratégicas en la empresa.

Según Merino (2005) la IC surge cuando la empresa toma conciencia de la importancia del enfoque de dirección estratégica, un enfoque de capacidades y recursos que permite mejorar el nivel competitivo basado en la adaptación al cambio, el desarrollo de una cultura innovadora, la creación de estructuras flexibles, el manejo de la anticipación y respuesta, entre otros.

Lígia (2008) cita a Valentim et ál. (2003) para definir la IC como un proceso organizacional cuyo propósito es examinar el contexto de la empresa, para descubrir oportunidades y reducir riesgos, conocer su ambiente interno y externo, a fin de coordinar el establecimiento de estrategias de acción a corto, medio y largo plazo. Además Lígia (2008) argumenta que el proceso de IC necesita la gestión de la información y la del conocimiento para desarrollar acciones en el ámbito corporativo.

El objeto de la IC es proveer la información necesaria para la toma adecuada de decisiones, adelantándose a los acontecimientos. La IC es una actividad lícita y propia de un mercado competitivo, por ello siempre debe obtenerse de forma lícita la información de competidores. La lógica de libre mercado se orienta a ser mejor que el competidor, por lo cual es necesario saber cómo funciona dicho competidor (Sanmartín, 2007).

Al respecto Merino (2005) señala que de todos los tipos de información en IC, la relativa a los competidores siempre es un referente clave, dado que ellos se ubican en el llamado entorno específico, que es el espacio más cercano e influyente en la realidad de cada empresa. Asimismo, Merino destaca que la IC es más una cultura orientada a la creación de actitudes a favor de la creatividad, flexibilidad y sentimiento de alerta organizativa.

La supervivencia de la empresa también depende de prevenir posibles actuaciones agresivas en el mercado por parte de competidores. Por lo que no es suficiente mejorar; hay que hacerlo antes que los demás (Sanmartín, 2007).

Es importante destacar que la información es la materia prima fundamental para el proceso de IC, también es la base para la construcción del conocimiento corporativo (Davenport y Prusak, 1998; citados por Lúcia, 2008).

Para Lúcia (2008) el proceso de IC necesita de la gestión de la información y la gestión del conocimiento para desarrollar sus acciones en el ámbito corporativo, donde la gestión de la información, se refiere a un proceso internacional que se desarrolla apoyado en el conocimiento explícito y enfocado hacia el negocio de la organización.

Mientras la gestión del conocimiento es entendida como un conjunto de acciones integradas que intenta mapear el conocimiento tácito con vistas a desarrollar en las personas un comportamiento dirigido a la creación, intercambio y socialización del conocimiento en el ámbito corporativo.

Derivado de ello Sanmartín (2007) establece que la IC es una actividad lícita basada en información accesible sobre una empresa, por lo que es imperativo proteger la información propia para imposibilitar o dificultar que los competidores puedan predecir las futuras actuaciones en el mercado, conocer los secretos o captar personal clave de la empresa. De ahí que los trabajos de IC incluyan la seguridad en la protección de la información y la formación del personal. Además plantea que el último campo en materia de IC radica en la contra-IC.

Rodríguez (2005) indica que en Alemania, Francia y Japón se reconoce la aplicación de la IC como un factor fundamental para el desarrollo y logro de la competitividad, por ello se han creado diferentes mecanismos que facilitan esta actividad, por ejemplo se crearon instituciones para facilitar el acopio, análisis y diseminación de la información, apoyando programas de educación (tanto para estudiantes como para empresarios) y a través de la implementación de programas específicos del gobierno, por ejemplo los programas franceses de Inteligencia Territorial enfocados hacia la movilización de empresas y territorios. De esta manera, en estas naciones varias de sus empresas cuentan con células formales de Inteligencia Competitiva y Tecnológica desde hace varios años.

Sin embargo, en México aún no se ha llegado hasta este grado, ello se debe en parte a que en términos generales existe aún desconocimiento acerca de la metodología de la IC y del valor que esta tiene, a pesar de saber que la base de toda proyecto de innovación es realizar una buena búsqueda de la información técnica existente.

Rodríguez (2005) indica que los sistemas de IC pretenden determinar qué información sobre el entorno es la más valiosa a fin de definir estrategias para obtenerla, procesarla y generar oportunamente un resultado incorporable a la toma de decisiones de la organización.

Castorena y Salvador (2007) argumentan que cada vez se recolecta, procesa y se utiliza mejor la información de diversas fuentes, aunque no se ha llegado a una adopción generalizada de prácticas de IC. Citan a Rideg (2005) para señalar que a nivel internacional las empresas en general no han adoptado prácticas sistemáticas de IC y continúan tomando decisiones muchas veces sin procesar la información.

Las empresas de carácter innovador y de base tecnológica, suelen desarrollar la IC como fase derivada del enfoque aplicado de Vigilancia Tecnológica, centrado en el departamento de I+D y en las tareas de análisis de patentes, tecnologías de competidores, entre otros (Merino, 2005).

La búsqueda tecnológica se hace para determinar el estado actual de una solución para un problema técnico dado, así como servir de información de antecedente para actividades de I+D y para conocer lo que está publicado en torno al campo tecnológico o investigación. Otras razones para emprender esta clase de búsqueda son el deseo de identificar tecnologías alternativas que puedan reemplazar tecnologías conocidas o evaluar una tecnología específica que se esté ofreciendo para licenciar o que se esté considerando para la adquisición. Las búsquedas del estado de la técnica son especialmente útiles para el desarrollo de tecnología o para propósitos de transferencia tecnológica.

De acuerdo con Merino (2005) la necesidad de la IC surge de los requerimientos de información sobre el ámbito comercial y de mercado que completen y aseguren el éxito de los desarrollos de nuevos productos y servicios.

Con este marco de referencia, se realiza el presente estudio diagnóstico de la situación de una muestra de empresas tijuaneñas, para conocer si utilizan la IC para la mejor toma de decisiones en cuanto a su capacidad innovadora, la cual se puede traducir en nuevos procesos, productos, estructuras organizacionales, entre otros, que les ayude a ser más competitivas.

METODOLOGÍA

El estudio exploratorio consistió en realizar entrevistas a profundidad a gerentes y/o directivos de nueve empresas de la ciudad de Tijuana, las cuales fueron seleccionadas aleatoriamente de una población de empresas grandes y de capital nacional, con el fin de identificar si conocen y aplican la IC, si la aplican cuáles son sus prácticas, aunque en la investigación no se utilizó el término de IC per se (para evitar interpretaciones confusas del término). Las preguntas se orientaron a conocer:

- Estilo de gestión y cultura de la información. Enfocada a conocer si la empresa utiliza la información para la toma de decisiones y la valora.
- Conocimiento - Explotación de la IC.
- Hábito del uso de la IC y la información para la toma de decisiones. Evalúa la forma en que la información en realidad se utiliza para mejorar la toma de decisiones en las empresas.

RESULTADOS

Respecto al estilo de gestión y cultura de la información, el hallazgo indica que en plena era del Internet las empresas no suelen usar bases de datos especializadas en la búsqueda de información clave, muchos de ellos desconocen su existencia, más aún que pueden acceder a ellas a través de cualquiera de las

Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES) de la localidad dado que el 50% de los entrevistados tienen convenios de vinculación con las universidades. Sin embargo, a pesar de que la calidad de la información y su fuentes no sea del todo confiable las empresas si utilizan la información para la toma de decisiones.

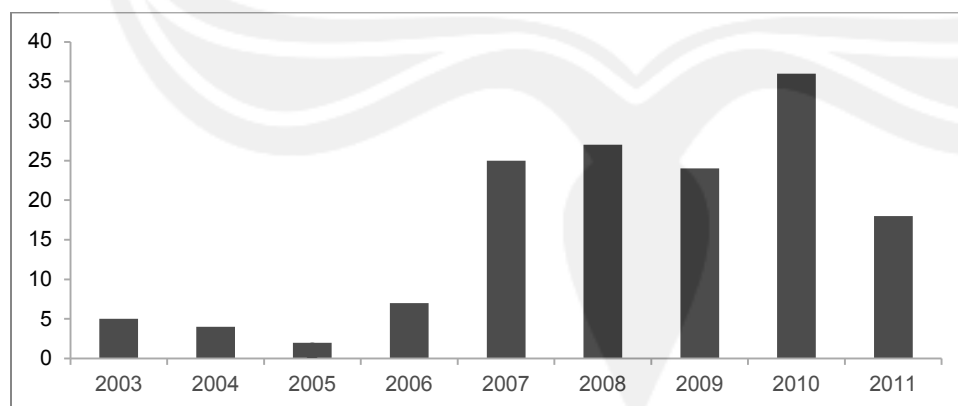
En relación al conocimiento de la IC sobresale el hecho de que se ha escuchado el término, pero no se tiene claridad del concepto. Se vincula a la IC con actividades de inteligencia de mercado, inteligencia organizacional e inteligencia tecnológica, en particular orientada a tareas de canales de distribución, estrategias de comercialización, desarrollo de modelos de negocios, capacitación empresarial, gestión de crédito, sistemas de calidad en producción, análisis de tecnología y ciclo de vida de la tecnología.

Sin embargo, respecto a la inteligencia tecnológica, una tarea común son las búsquedas tecnológicas, a través de las cuales las empresas identifican tecnologías alternativas que puedan reemplazar las tecnologías propias. La figura uno ilustra la numeralia de 2003 a marzo de 2011, la cual denota que esta práctica en Baja California es incipiente, infiriendo que en Tijuana la situación es la misma.

En cuanto a la explotación de la IC los resultados dejan ver que su uso es una práctica esporádica que poco a poco va abriéndose camino impulsada por distintos programas de gobierno entre ellos destaca el programa de desarrollo de proveedores de la Secretaría de Desarrollo Económico (SEDECO) del estado, programa que apoya la IC de las micro, pequeñas y medianas empresas en Baja California, este servicio consiste en obtener y brindar información de productos, procesos y servicios que propicie la realización de negocios en la región (SEDECO, 2008).

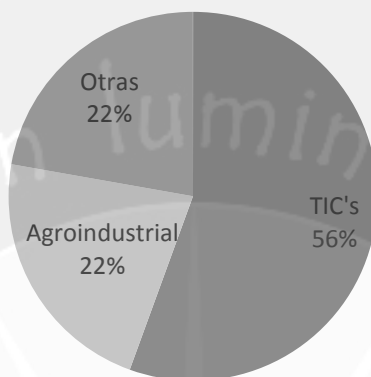
La figura dos muestra que las empresas que más utilizan la IC en Tijuana corresponden al sector agroindustrial y a las Tecnologías de Información y Comunicación, estas últimas ligadas a tareas diarias de evaluación de tecnología y aprendizaje dado el dinamismo del sector. Dicha información fue tomada de las nueve empresas seleccionadas, que sin ser una muestra representativa, debido al tipo de investigación que se desarrollo en el presente trabajo, si representa un indicador del conocimiento y uso de esta herramienta en el sector productivo de Tijuana.

Figura 1: Búsquedas Tecnológicas Baja California (2003 - Enero/Marzo 2011)



La figura muestra la estadística de búsquedas tecnológicas realizadas en Baja California en el periodo de 2003 al primer trimestre de 2011 según datos del Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial.
Fuente: IMPI (2011)

Figura 2: Sectores Explotan IC En Tijuana



La figura ilustra la conformación de la muestra de empresas utilizada en el estudio
Fuente: Elaboración propia

Por último, llama la atención de que la IC se use preferentemente para toma de decisiones estratégicas, aún está lejos de hacer de su uso un hábito en la toma de decisiones, hecho que sin duda inhibe el incremento en la competitividad de las empresas.

CONCLUSIONES

La IC es una herramienta común que se utiliza en Europa, Japón, Estados Unidos y otros países en las que existen organismos especializados que brindan los servicios de la IC, dado que cada vez son más empresas que hacen uso de ella para la toma de decisiones lo que las ha llevado a tener un amplio panorama sobre su competencia y actuar oportunamente en consecuencia.

En el caso de México son pocas las organizaciones y empresas que ofrecen el servicio de la inteligencia competitiva, el Instituto Mexicano de la Propiedad Industrial (IMPI), ha realizado incursiones en estudios de Vigilancia Tecnológica y Competitiva dentro de diferentes sectores de actividad, apoyando significativamente a los emprendedores en sus procesos de innovación, algunas de las secretarías del estado como Economía y Relaciones Exteriores también brindan servicio de Vigilancia Estratégica Competitiva para las pymes y mypimes del país. El Banco de Comercio Exterior (BANCOMEXT) también proporciona los servicios de Vigilancia Estratégica Competitiva.

En el caso de Tijuana, la investigación realizada ilustra que no se está utilizando la IC, su conocimiento es escaso, por lo que es necesario dar difusión a los beneficios que genera su uso, siendo conveniente dar formación en IC a los estudiantes universitarios y a los empresarios en general a fin de apoyarlos para que en el corto plazo la toma de decisiones se realice con base a información oportuna y pertinente de tal forma que las empresas se tornen competitivas. Asimismo se propicie el desarrollo de una cultura en IC que permita fortalecer los negocios, la generación de empleos y la mejora de la economía de Tijuana.

Para ello sería importante impulsar la creación de un Sistema Regional de Inteligencia Competitiva y Tecnológica (SRICyT) el cual integre al conjunto de actores e interacciones necesarios para impulsar la transformación de información hacia el conocimiento estratégico a través de la operación del ciclo virtuoso de un sistema de Inteligencia.

Los actores principales del SRICyT deben ser: el capital humano, recursos económicos, infraestructura y herramientas de soporte (bases de datos, metodologías, software de tratamiento y análisis de información). También es importante que participe el gobierno, las universidades e institutos y otros agentes involucrados con la educación, las empresas (mercado de bienes y servicios), las asociaciones, las entidades externas (fuera del país) y otros actores (colegios invisibles, agencias u otras organizaciones) (Rodríguez, 2005).

En Baja California la educación en IC es nula, por lo que es urgente encaminar esfuerzos en esta dirección. Según Rodríguez (2005) en México existe una necesidad latente por sensibilizar y educar sobre la disciplina de la ICyT. Si bien se han desarrollado algunos esfuerzos significativos, aún falta mucho por hacer.

La IC proporciona importantes beneficios para la innovación, tales como: generación de nuevos conceptos, redefinición de los procesos productivos, desarrollo de los productos, redefinición de los procesos de comercialización, así como gestión del conocimiento y de la tecnología.

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ESTRATEGIAS DE MERCADOTECNIA EN EMPRESAS MANUFACTURERAS DE LA ZONA METROPOLITANA DE LA CIUDAD DE PUEBLA 2010

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RESUMEN

Este estudio es de carácter exploratorio y pretende comparar la utilización de la mercadotecnia en micro, pequeñas, medianas y grandes empresas ubicadas en la ciudad de Puebla. Se diseñó una muestra estratificada de quince empresas de diferente tamaño (8 micro y pequeñas, 2 medianas, y una empresa grande) a las que se les aplicó una encuesta. Las empresas presentaron diferencias en su apreciación de la importancia de la mercadotecnia en función del nivel de escolaridad del gerente, de la aplicación de la administración científica, del porcentaje que destinan de sus ventas a la mercadotecnia y del destino de su producción.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Estrategia, mercadotecnia, manufactureras y México.

MARKETING STRATEGIES OF MANUFACTURING FIRMS LOCATED IN THE METROPOLITAN ZONE OF PUEBLA MEXICO 2010.

ABSTRACT

This study is descriptive and exploratory. It is an attempt to compare the use of marketing strategies between small, medium and big companies. All the analyzed firms are located in Puebla. A stratified sample was created. The sample had 15 firms, 8 micro and small, 2 medium and 1 big enterprises. All of them answered a survey. The preliminary results are presented. One main conclusion is that every firm had a different perspective of the importance and use of marketing strategies. This was correlated with the manager's years of education. Other factors that also were linked to better use of marketing strategies were a professional and scientific management, the percentage of the sales devoted to marketing department and the destination of its production.

KEYWORDS: Strategy, marketing, manufacturing sector and Mexico.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las actividades que implican la mercadotecnia contribuyen, en forma directa o indirecta, a la venta de los productos de una empresa. Con esto no solo ayudan a la misma a vender sus productos ya conocidos, sino también crean oportunidades para realizar innovaciones en ellos. Esto permite satisfacer en forma más completa las cambiantes necesidades de los consumidores, y a su vez, proporciona utilidades a la empresa.

Estas ayudan a producir no solo la supervivencia de los negocios, sino también el bienestar y la supervivencia de toda una economía.

Los empresarios mexicanos requieren ser competitivos en el mercado nacional e internacional, para poder sobrevivir en este escenario. Esto implica la necesidad de que las empresas administren con un enfoque global la organización, planteándose una serie de cuestiones para tomar sus decisiones.

La investigación de mercados aporta la base de datos necesaria para facilitar la toma de decisiones de la dirección de la empresa, que se apoyara en su experiencia, buen juicio y en el análisis de otros hechos. Se realizó una investigación sobre las cuestiones básicas mencionadas en una muestra de empresas de la industria manufacturera de Puebla, para determinar la importancia que tiene la mercadotecnia en el proceso de toma de decisiones.

REVISION LITERARIA

“Mercadotecnia es el proceso interno de una sociedad mediante el cual se planea con anticipación o se aumenta y satisface la composición de la demanda de mercancías y servicios de índole mercantil, mediante la creación, promoción, intercambio y distribución física de tales mercancías y servicios” (Kotler, 2005)

Marketing Staff de la Ohio State University.

“Mercadotecnia es aquella actividad dirigida a satisfacer necesidades, carencias y deseos a través de procesos de intercambio.”(Kotler, 2005) Al interrogar a los empresarios sobre los conceptos de mercadotecnia y ventas, se encontró que confunden estos términos por lo que es necesario señalar la diferencia entre los dos conceptos. (Kotler, 2005)

El concepto de ventas se inicia a partir de los productos ya existentes en la empresa, y su función está relacionada con la comercialización y la promoción con el fin de estimular un volumen creativo de ventas. En cambio la mercadotecnia empieza con las necesidades de los clientes reales y potenciales de la empresa, realiza un plan coordinado de productos y programas para satisfacer tales necesidades y sus utilidades se derivan de la satisfacción del cliente.

La mercadotecnia es una filosofía de dirección que abarca todas las actividades de una organización (Kotler, 2005) El objetivo de la mercadotecnia es el de buscar la satisfacción de las necesidades de los consumidores mediante un conjunto de actividades coordinadas, que al mismo tiempo permita a la organización alcanzar sus metas.

Las actividades que implica la mercadotecnia, contribuyen en forma directa o indirecta a la venta de los productos de una empresa. Con esto no solo ayudan a la misma a vender sus productos ya conocidos, sino también crean oportunidades para realizar innovaciones en ellos. Esto permite satisfacer de forma más completa las cambiantes necesidades de los consumidores y, a su vez proporcionan mayores utilidades al empresa. Están ayudando a producir no solo la supervivencia de la empresa, sino también el bienestar y la supervivencia de toda una economía.

Las seis funciones de la mercadotecnia proporcionan en conjunto el método de la mercadotecnia, porque para desarrollar un producto el fabricante necesita saber primero quienes son los consumidores y sus necesidades. La distribución sigue al desarrollo del producto ya que es imposible trasladar el artículo antes de que exista. La promoción debe seguir a la distribución, porque si no es así se creará una demanda cuando aun no se dispone del producto.

La venta impulsa a los consumidores a efectuar el intercambio y la posventa afirma su satisfacción. Las funciones de la mercadotecnia tiene una secuencia; este orden fue colaborado por las personas entrevistadas. (Kramer, 2000)

Para que una empresa alcance los beneficios de la mercadotecnia deberá coordinar y administrar adecuadamente las actividades que involucra la mercadotecnia y tomara en consideración la planeación de la empresa con relación al departamento de mercadotecnia. La administración de la mercadotecnia será entonces: el proceso de planeación, organización, dirección y control de los esfuerzos destinados a conseguir los intercambios deseados con los mercados que se tienen como objetivo por parte de la organización. (Kerin, 2000)

Ventajas de la planeación en la mercadotecnia

- a) Estimula el pensamiento sistemático de la gerencia de mercadotecnia.
- b) Ayuda a una mejor coordinación de todas las actividades de la empresa.
- c) Orienta a la empresa sobre los objetivos, políticas y estrategias que deberá llevar a cabo.
- d) Evita que existan sorpresivos desarrollos dentro de las actividades de toda la empresa.
- e) Contribuye a que exista una mayor participación de los ejecutivos al interrelacionar sus responsabilidades. (Konrad, 2001)

Muchas empresas argumentan que sin llevar planeación alguna en sus actividades ha logrado éxito en sus negocios por lo que no la considera muy importante. Otras empresas, no aceptan la idea de dedicar tiempo a documentar los objetivos, políticas, estrategias y programas de acción, ya que se lleve bastante tiempo y creen como sus mercados y el medio en si cambian muy rápidamente, el plan ya no sería útil y relevante. Estas son algunas de las razones que argumentaron algunos entrevistados que aun no han introducido un plan de mercadotecnia que contribuya a una mejor realización de sus actividades. (Kinnear, 2001)

Las empresas que si han desarrollado la planeación de la mercadotecnia han comprendido la necesidad de desarrollar, coordinar y controlar en forma eficaz las actividades de la mercadotecnia. La mercadotecnia se caracteriza por ser un proceso de resolución de problemas y de toma de decisiones. Estas representan uno de los puntos cruciales de la empresa, afectan su imagen, tienen una influencia crítica en sus ventas, es sus utilidades y el impacto es tan fuerte, que a veces influye en la resolución de los problemas de la sociedad.

Los gerentes no solo deben sincronizar y armonizar las acciones individuales para alcanzar los objetivos de la mercadotecnia, sino que deben coordinar también las actividades del grupo, con los esfuerzos de organización externas como pueden ser agencias de publicidad, mayoritarias, investigadores, etc. La mercadotecnia es una de las áreas principales en que constantemente existe la posibilidad de que resulten anticuados los objetivos, las políticas y los programas.

En primero lugar el medio de la mercadotecnia tiene de a experimentar cambios continuos y rápidos. En segundo lugar, intervienen también las deficiencias de organización que invaden todos los departamentos obstaculizando su eficiencia óptima. Debido a estos factores es necesario llevar a cabo un control de la mercadotecnia que es una consecuencia natural de la planeación de la mercadotecnia.

El proceso de control en la mercadotecnia consiste en establecer normas de operación, evaluar los resultados actuales contra los estándares ya establecidos y disminuir las diferencias entre el funcionamiento deseado y lo real. Si los encargados de mercadotecnia descubren que hay diferencias notables entre lo esperado y los resultados reales seguirán un curso de acción correctivo. Si consideran que las diferencias son insignificantes, pueden no aplicar ninguna acción de esa índole.

Para fines de control, los objetivos deben ser factibles de medir. En la mercadotecnia se tienen dos clases de medición: medidas de eficacia y medidas de eficiencia. Las medidas de eficacia reflejan el grado en que se alcanzan las metas, en tanto que las medidas de eficiencia reflejan el costo de llegar a las mismas. (Kerin, 2000)

Puesto que las cifras de venta reflejan la eficacia para satisfacer las necesidades y deseos del mercado, los criterios de venta son las medidas de actuación más frecuentemente utilizadas. Los encargados de la mercadotecnia de una empresa usan diversas cifras de venta para medir la eficacia como sería: el segmento de mercado, el porcentaje de cambio en las ventas, cantidad de artículos devueltos, ventas caídas del producto, tipo de cliente, etc.

La eficiencia mide en enfoque de los costos de las actividades de la mercadotecnia. Los encargados de esta área emplean en ocasiones un índice tanto de eficacia como de eficiencia para medir las utilidades estas se miden en función de las ventas (medida de eficacia) menos los costos (medidas de eficiencia).

El análisis de ventas, constituye un estudio detallado de las ventas netas del estado de pérdidas y ganancias de una empresa. La administración debe analizar el volumen total de ventas y también el volumen por líneas de productos y segmentos de mercado. Las ventas deben ser: comparadas con las metas de la empresa.

El rendimiento de las ventas de una empresa, no indica si está ganando o perdiendo terreno en relación con la competencia. Para esto, es importante analizar su participación en el mercado. (Kerin, 2000). Existen por lo menos dos motivos para que la gerencia se interese por medir la participación en el mercado. En primer lugar indica si los cambios en las ventas se debieron a factores externos incontrollables o las deficiencias en el mercado de mercadotecnia. En segundo lugar, el estándar de participación en el mercado supone la comparación del rendimiento de la empresa con el rendimiento promedio de las demás empresas, no únicamente con el de las mejores compañías. (Kotler, 2005)

Una empresa puede observar el progreso de su participación en el mercado por líneas de productos, tipos de clientes, regiones u otras clasificaciones. El análisis de la participación en el mercado requiere información periódica sobre el total de ventas de la empresa y si es posible, sobre las ventas individuales de los competidores.

La investigación de mercado surge como una herramienta de salvación para muchos directores y personas encargadas de llevar a cabo el buen funcionamiento de la mercadotecnia y que son las personas que enfrentan los problemas, con base en la investigación de mercados se van a gestar y tomar las decisiones adecuadas para alcanzar las metas deseadas.

Para Harvard Business School la investigación de mercados es la obtención, registro y análisis de todos los hechos acerca de los problemas relativos a la transferencia y venta de bienes y servicios desde el productor hasta el consumidor. (Levin, 2001)

Kotler la define como el análisis sistemático del problema, construcción de modelos y hallazgos que permiten mejorar la toma de decisiones y el control en el mercado de bienes y servicios. La investigación de mercados es una técnica sistematizada de recopilación e interpretación de hechos y datos que sirvan a la dirección de una empresa para la adecuada toma de decisiones y para establecer una correcta política de mercado. (Kotler, 2005)

Objetivos de la investigación de mercados

Objetivo económico. Determinar el grado económico de éxito o fracaso que pueda tener una empresa dentro del mercado real o potencial y así determinar el sistema adecuado a seguir.

Objetivo administrativo. Ayudar a la empresa en su desarrollo mediante la adecuada relación, organización control de los recursos y elementos de la empresa para que esta lleve el producto correcto y en el tiempo oportuno al consumidor final.

En las empresas privadas la investigación de mercados juega un papel fundamental ya que es un instrumento básico de desarrollo que va a proporcionar información en la fase de planeación ya sea a corto o mediano plazo, sobre consumidores, distribuidores, precios, productos, promoción, competencia, etc., y va a dar las políticas y planes a seguir en lo referente al mercado real o potencial.

Las empresas pequeñas muy difícilmente pueden contar con un departamento de investigación de mercados pero bien deberían pedir asesoramiento a alguna agencia dedicada a la investigación de mercados según las posibilidades que tenga y el giro al que este dedicada.

Por lo que respecta a las empresas medianas y grandes deben contar con un departamento pequeño de investigación de mercados, ya que ellas tienen mayor necesidad, por el hecho de manejar una gran variedad de productos y de tener cadenas de tiendas en todo el país.

Objetivo De La Investigación

El objetivo de la investigación es conocer la situación que guardan las empresas en relación a la utilización de los estudios de mercado.

- 1.-Nos interesa conocer la importancia que las empresas de la industria manufacturera le atribuyen a la mercadotecnia, según su tamaño (de empresas).
- 2.- La relación que guarda la aplicación de estudios de mercadotecnia y el empleo de la administración formal en la organización.
- 3.- La influencia que ejerce el tamaño de empresa en la utilización de mercadotecnia.
- 4.-La relación que guarda el empleo de la administración formal y al incursión del mercado internacional.
- 5.- La incidencia que tiene el grado de escolaridad del gerente de la empresa en la utilización de la planeación de la mercadotecnia.

Hipotesis

Es de esperarse que en las empresas donde existe una administración científica, el conocimiento y la importancia de la mercadotecnia sea considerado como vital para la supervivencia de la organización. Las que consideran la mercadotecnia como parte de la estrategia de la organización son aquellas que han incursionado o que están por incursionar en el mercado internacional.

En contraste, en las empresas donde no hay cultura organizacional, la mercadotecnia no existe como tal y se utiliza la intuición para incursionar en el mercado, por lo tanto, su radio de acción se ve limitado al mercado local y en el mejor de los casos al regional.

Los directivos de empresas que tienen estrategias de mercadotecnia consideraron ventajosa la apertura comercial.

En contraste, aquellos que no tienen mostraran una mayor incertidumbre con respecto a su permanencia en el mercado.

De acuerdo a las hipótesis, los indicadores que nos interesan son:

Nivele de escolaridad del gerente.

La existe una estructura organizacional.

Utilización de la planeación.

Utilización de estudios de mercado.

El porcentaje de ventas que se destina a la mercadotecnia.

Destino de la producción.

Para la obtención de la información se diseño una muestra estratificada de quince empresas de diferente tamaño (8 microempresas, empresas pequeñas, 2 medianas, y una grande) y se aplico un cuestionario. El tamaño de la empresa considero el número de trabajadores y en otros casos el volumen de ventas en 2010.

Las empresas que integraron la muestra tenían los siguientes giros: ensamble de vehículos, textiles, e hilaturas, confección de ropa, purificación de agua, herrería, marmolería, y elaboración de alimentos.

RESULTADOS

Con base en la información procesada y que aparece en los cuadros que se encuentran al final de este apartado, la muestra de empresas encuestadas mostró los siguientes resultados:

En cuanto al uso de esquemas de administración formal para el desarrollo de sus funciones, las empresas encuestadas reportaron lo siguiente: las empresas medianas y grandes la utilización al 100% mientras que las microempresas solo el 12.5%, concentrándose dichas funciones en el gerente que generalmente es el mismo dueño. En las pequeñas empresas solo el 25% aplica la administración formal en la estructura de su organización.

Lo anterior se relaciona con el nivel de escolaridad de los gerentes de las empresas, en las empresas mediana y grandes donde se utiliza la administración de manera formal, el nivel de escolaridad es de licenciatura y maestría en un 100% .En las empresas pequeñas, el 50% tiene gerentes con un nivel de

escolaridad de secundaria o escuela técnica, el 25% terminaron la preparatoria y el otro 25% restante posee el nivel de licenciatura.

En la microempresas, la preparación académica de quienes las dirigen se concentra con el 50% en la educación primaria el 25% en la secundaria, el 12.5 % en el bachillerato y el otro 12.5% en licenciatura. Esto incide definitivamente en la visión del futuro de los empresarios, en la aplicación de la administración formal a la estructura de la organización y en el entendimiento de la importancia que tiene la investigación de mercados para la toma de decisiones.

Por lo tanto, el nivel de escolaridad y la aplicación de una administración formal a la organización tienen una alta correlación con la importancia que se les atribuye a la mercadotecnia como analizaremos a continuación:

Todas las empresas medianas y grandes consideraron de vital importancia los estudios de mercadotecnia. Estas empresas cuentan con departamento de mercadotecnia o utilizan las agencias especializadas en estudios de mercado. La información que les ofrecen los estudios de mercado, es muy importante en la toma de decisiones y en la planeación estratégica de estas empresas. La información les permite tener una mayor certidumbre en sus decisiones. Son empresas que además implementan la planeación de la mercadotecnia y la consideran una pieza fundamental para su sobrevivencia en el mercado ante la apertura comercial.

Las empresas pequeñas en un 25% consideraron vitales los estudios de mercado para su organización, el 75% no los considera vitales, ya que estas empresas conocen su mercado más bien por la experiencia, por el contacto directo con sus clientes y en donde dos de ellas es una comercializadora la que se encarga de orientar su producción al mercado. .

Las empresas micro, por su parte dan muy poca importancia a la mercadotecnia su organización (12.5%), esto explica porque tienen carencia de recursos y prefieren utilizar los gastos de mercadotecnia en el área de producción además de que los consideran muy altos.

La importancia que atribuyen los empresarios según el tamaño de su empresa a la mercadotecnia tiene una alta correlación con el porcentaje de las ventas destinado a ella, en las medianas y grandes se destina el 10% y el 15% respectivamente. Respecto al destino de la producción, las empresas micro orientan su producción en un 60% al mercado local, el 20% al regional, un 15% de su producción la destinan al mercado nacional y solamente el 5% se canaliza al mercado externo.

Las empresas pequeñas destinan un 50% de su producción al mercado local, el 40% al regional, el 7% al mercado local y solamente el 3% al mercado internacional. Estas empresas tienen identificado su mercado y a sus clientes.

Por su parte las empresas medianas canalizan su producción en un 20% al mercado local el 40% al mercado regional, el 7% al mercado nacional y el 10% al mercado externo, lo que muestra una mayor diversificación de sus mercado respecto a las micro y pequeñas. En cuanto a las grandes estas se orientan en un 50% al mercado nacional, el 20% al mercado externo y el 30% al mercado local y regional. Estas empresas al tener información de mercado tienen un mayor radio de acción.

Finalmente, estos resultados muestran, que la diversificación de los mercados depende mucho del tamaño de la empresa, y de importancia que le atribuye a la planeación y a la mercadotecnia.

CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES

De los resultados que arrojo la investigación, podemos contribuir que las empresas medianas y grandes, aplican en mayor medida la mercadotecnia en la planeación, para garantizar la venta de sus productos debido a que el volumen de sus operaciones lo demanda.

Los problemas que presenta la investigación de mercados para las empresas micro y pequeñas, es el alto costo que para ellas representa la información y la posibilidad de poder invertir en estos estudios. En contraste, las empresas medianas y grandes sobre todo transaccionales utilizan en mayor medida la investigación de mercados. En la actualidad, la información de los mercados es muy importante en la toma de decisiones, sin embargo, las empresas micro y pequeñas deciden invertir su dinero en producción o en hacer más productivos otros departamentos que en conocer mejor su mercado.

La falta de una cultura organizacional y la miopía sobre la importancia que tiene la mercadotecnia, limita las posibilidades de crecimiento de sus mercados y las paraliza ante el mercado internacional. Las empresas se quejan del alto costo de la investigación de mercados sin dejar de reconocer su importancia algunos consideran que existen proyectos de inversión que justifican los estudios de mercados por el riesgo que conllevan. Así mismo las empresas que producen en grandes cantidades, requieren de estudios de mercado para colocar su producción.

Tomando en cuenta el objetivo de esta investigación, que es el de aproximarnos al conocimiento de la situación que guardan las empresas con respecto a la investigación de mercados. Se puede concluir que en lo general la muestra por tamaño de empresa se comportó como se esperaba en relación a la hipótesis.

A pesar del reducido tamaño de la muestra, considero que las empresas encuestadas representaron significativamente las características del universo, la estratificación que se hizo de la misma permitió corroborar, aunque con las limitaciones planteadas en el trabajo, las hipótesis del mismo.

Considerando lo anterior se recomienda que los organismos gubernamentales y empresariales, den un apoyo más eficaz y eficiente a las micro y pequeñas empresas mediante la organización de asociaciones de empresas de un mismo giro, para encontrar servicios de mercadotecnia profesional, comercializar sus productos y diversificar sus mercados, antes de que se amplíe más la brecha que la separa de las medianas y grandes y antes de que se atente contra el empleo que estas empresas generan en el país.

Finalmente, para futuras investigaciones es muy importante que se considere la diferencia que guardan las empresas en cuanto a su tamaño porque como se demostró en este trabajo, tiene una estrecha relación con el uso de una administración formal para llevar a cabo sus operaciones, y con la utilización de la mercadotecnia como instrumento de planeación y de crecimiento.

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CONDICIONES DE LOS FACTORES QUE INFLUYEN EN LA COMPETITIVIDAD DE UN MUNICIPIO FRONTERIZO

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RESUMEN

En este artículo se presenta una investigación de carácter documental acerca de las condiciones de los factores que influyen en la competitividad del municipio fronterizo de Tecate Baja California México. El método que se utiliza para realizar el análisis y determinar el diagnóstico de las condiciones de los factores del municipio es el modelo del diamante de Michael Porter el cual permite ubicar los factores y las relaciones con los actores influyentes en el desarrollo de la competitividad de la región. Los resultados indican que Tecate Baja California tiene una ventaja comparativa en su ubicación ya que se encuentra al centro del estado siendo frontera con Estados Unidos, además de poseer un clima que favorece el cultivo de la vid y una fuente natural de vientos en parte de su región. Algunas de sus desventajas comparativas son la infraestructura en sus vialidades y la calidad de capital humano especializado. Se concluye que se debe analizar el contexto de los negocios y las relaciones con el mercado, así como sus industrias de soporte y la postura del gobierno, con la finalidad de completar el diagnóstico y dictar las estrategias que llevarán a las ventajas comparativas en competitivas.

PALABRAS CLAVE: factores de competitividad, modelo del diamante, municipio fronterizo de México.

LAS PYMES FAMILIARES VS. LAS NO FAMILIARES EN EL CONTEXTO DE UNA ECONOMÍA EN CRECIMIENTO: UN ESTUDIO DE CASOS SOBRE LA CONTRIBUCIÓN DE LA INNOVACIÓN AL DESEMPEÑO

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RESUMEN

En este artículo se realiza un análisis del contexto en el que las empresas familiares desarrollan innovaciones en una economía en crecimiento estimando el impacto que en su desempeño tienen estas innovaciones y contrastando los resultados en el caso de las empresas no familiares Pyme. Se consideran tres tipos de innovación, de productos, de procesos y de estructuras organizacionales. Los resultados muestran que el inicio de la actividad innovadora es mucho más empírico en las empresas familiares que en las no familiares. La gestión de la actividad innovadora está a cargo de miembros de la familia y se presenta más como una reacción y menos como una función proactiva. Las empresas familiares no tienen convenios ni acuerdos formales con instituciones de apoyo a la innovación y el éxito en los proyectos realizados se presenta más como un producto de la perseverancia, tenacidad y dedicación. Se concluye que en el proceso que envuelve la actividad innovadora, existe un conjunto de factores catalizadores-inhibidores que juegan papel determinante en la tarea de mejorar el desempeño de la empresa en el contexto de una economía en crecimiento.

INTRODUCCIÓN

En la actualidad, el mundo vive inmerso en la dinámica de una nueva economía en la que la creación de valor en los procesos productivos se fundamenta principalmente en el desarrollo de nuevas ideas, pensamientos y productos que hacen a las empresas más competitivas. A través de la aplicación de los principios de esta nueva corriente económica se ha comprobado que existe una correlación positiva entre las actividades de innovación llevadas a cabo por las instituciones en una sociedad y el desempeño económico de la misma.

En el contexto de una economía en crecimiento las empresas familiares, establecidas típicamente como empresas pequeñas y medianas, se han convertido en un elemento de identidad que generan oportunidades y riqueza no solo para los miembros de la familia sino para sus empleados.

Dada la importancia que este tipo de organización tiene en el desarrollo de un país o región, el presente estudio se lleva a cabo con la finalidad de contribuir al actual debate acerca del impacto que la nueva economía del conocimiento tiene en el desempeño de las empresas, especialmente en el caso de las empresas familiares PYME.

La investigación se presenta organizada como sigue. Primeramente se lleva a cabo una revisión de la literatura que fundamenta el objeto de estudio. Después se presenta el diseño de la investigación que incluye la descripción de la metodología. Luego se muestran los resultados del estudio y finalmente se presentan las principales conclusiones y las futuras líneas de investigación.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

La literatura revisada en la presente investigación sigue tres líneas fundamentales; el concepto de empresa familiar, la innovación y el desempeño y la innovación en el caso de las empresas familiares.

Una empresa es considerada familiar cuando el control de las decisiones estratégicas se mantienen en el núcleo familiar (Astrachan y Shanker, 2003), cuando se combinan operaciones complejas de negocios con la dinámica familiar (McCann et al., 2003), cuando la empresa es poseída parcialmente por uno o más miembros de una familia (LaPorta et al., 1999) o cuando 50% o más de la propiedad se encuentra en manos de una familia y al menos un administrador es miembro de la familia (Heck y Trent, 1999).

Por otro lado, la investigación sobre el tema de innovación y transferencia del conocimiento, prácticamente no existía a principios de la década de los 70's. Sin embargo, se puede considerar a Mansfield (1968) como el investigador que desarrolló estudios empíricos serios sobre investigación industrial y enfatizó la importancia que en la productividad y la innovación tienen factores como la investigación académica básica y la difusión de las innovaciones tecnológicas.

Para Schumpeter (1934) la competencia económica que determina la diferencia en el mercado, es aquella que incorpora innovación en procesos y productos y no aquella que se presenta solo a través de diferencias en precios.

Los estudios recientes sobre el impacto de la innovación en el desempeño económico muestran una fuerte correlación positiva entre la innovación y el crecimiento económico. Adams (1990) utiliza el número total de artículos publicados por científicos en los Estados Unidos como una aproximación para medir la generación de nuevos conocimientos. Guellec y Pottelsberghe (2001) muestran que la inversión pública y privada en investigación y desarrollo tiene efectos positivos sobre el crecimiento de la productividad de las economías de la OECD.

En la misma línea Chen y Dahlman (2004) apuntan que la pieza central de la nueva economía es la existencia de sistemas regionales de innovación y para Wengel y Shapira (2004) la innovación es una forma de reaccionar a los cambios que en el entorno se han presentado en temas tecnológicos y de competencia.

Es importante reconocer que mientras que la innovación y sus efectos ha sido ampliamente estudiada en el caso de grandes empresas (Zahra, 1993) y en empresas de alta tecnología (Koberg et al. 1996), el estudio del impacto de la actividad innovadora en las empresas familiares ha sido tradicionalmente ignoradas por los investigadores (Craig y Moores, 2006).

A pesar de que las empresas familiares han existido desde mucho tiempo atrás y que han sido reconocidas como catalizadoras del crecimiento económico de la sociedad moderna, la investigación en el campo de la innovación y la empresa familiar ha sido prácticamente nula (Craig y Moores, 2006). A pesar de lo anterior, se reconoce que el papel que la innovación puede jugar en la empresa familiar es sumamente importante ya que es capaz de potenciar su desempeño en los mercados en los que opera (Aronoff, 1998). Van Gils et al. (2008) identifican tres tipos de innovación en las empresas familiares; de producto, de procesos y de estructuras organizacionales. Los resultados de la presente investigación muestran que los

tres tipos de innovación en las empresas familiares tienen diferentes antecedentes y son influenciados por distintas características de la administración.

METODOLOGÍA

Esta investigación utiliza una metodología cualitativa, específicamente el método de casos como una forma de alcanzar un mejor entendimiento del problema dado un tema de estudio poco conocido.

En el presente estudio los casos se han seleccionado con la finalidad de que proporcionen diferentes perspectivas del problema y que a la vez sean consistentes con los objetivos de la investigación por lo que se utiliza un diseño de casos múltiple. De acuerdo a Yin (1994), la selección de los casos en un formato múltiple puede ser hecha siguiendo una replicación lógica literal, donde las condiciones de selección dirijan a predecir resultados similares, o bien siguiendo una replicación lógica teórica, en la que la selección de los casos permita obtener resultados contrastantes. Este último enfoque es el observado al momento de seleccionar las empresas participantes en este estudio de casos.

La unidad de análisis está conformada por empresas familiares y no familiares Pyme del sector industrial en la zona de la Laguna en el estado de Coahuila. La información fue recolectada en los meses de diciembre de 2010 y enero de 2011. La Tabla 1 contiene la información relacionada a las empresas seleccionadas para el estudio.

Tabla 1: Empresas Participantes en el Estudio de Casos

Empresa	Giro	Número de Empleados	Productos Elaborados	Familiar o No Familiar	Tamaño
TecMur	Fundición y maquinado de partes	204	Compresores de clima de mini Splits, reguladores, componentes para reguladores de gas LP, y dispositivos hidráulicos.	Familiar	Mediana
Cooper-Standard Automotive	Fabricación de autopartes	250	Fabricación de conductores de fluidos para la industria automotriz	No Familiar	Mediana
ITSA	Fundición y maquinado de partes	160	Compresores de aire, bomba turbina, lavables de presión y cabezales de engrane.	Familiar	Mediana
Herseg	Elaboración de partes para la industria del agua	230	Fabricación de medidores, impelentes, conexiones y válvulas.	Familiar	Mediana

En esta tabla se presenta la descripción de las características de las empresas participantes en el estudio de casos. Fuente: Elaboración propia con datos del SIEM (Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano).

RESULTADOS

De entre los factores que son considerados claves en el inicio de la actividad innovadora, resalta el hecho de que la mayor parte de las empresas entrevistadas toman muy en cuenta la incorporación de nuevas tecnologías y las especificaciones que sus clientes les solicitan para la elaboración de sus productos.

El inicio de la actividad innovadora se aprecia mucho más empírico en las empresas familiares que lo que sucede en las empresas no familiares donde los requerimientos de innovación se detectan de manera más institucionalizada como es utilizando mapeos, revisiones periódicas y auditorías de proceso. En las empresas familiares, la actividad se inicia más a través de lo que los propietarios visualizan acontece en los mercados en los que se desempeñan y por medio de lo que sus clientes les especifican sin existir un proceso definido ni un departamento a cargo de la función. Los encargados de detonar la actividad de innovación son los gerentes de planta o de operaciones técnicas sin experiencia previa en la labor de innovación, observándose adicionalmente que en el caso de las empresas familiares, los responsables tienen más de 20 años en sus respectivos puestos y no se encuentra evidencia de que la actividad de mejora haya generado patentes de nuevos productos o procesos. Incluso, en los casos analizados, no existen presupuestos específicos que apoyen la función de Investigación y Desarrollo y lo que se invierte tiene más naturaleza reactiva que proactiva.

Igualmente se puede observar que la heterogeneidad solo se presenta en el caso de la empresa Cooper-Standard, empresa no familiar donde el equipo está conformado por todo un departamento de mejora continua que es el encargado de coordinar el esfuerzo innovador a través de los llamados “Lean Champions” o líderes de proyecto de mejora quienes a su vez tiene a su cargo a grupos de operadores que trabajan en formas diferentes y mejores de hacer los procesos de planta.

Por otro lado y de acuerdo a las aportaciones hechas por Van Gils, et al (2008), respecto a la presencia de un integrante de la familia como máximo directivo y la etapa generacional en que se encuentra la familia y la disposición a innovar, así como las aportaciones de Zahra, (2005) y Kellermanns, et al (2008), sobre el involucramiento de múltiples generaciones que incrementa la probabilidad de nuevas ideas en el negocio, no se observa en los casos de las empresas familiares estudiadas impacto de dichas variables en el desempeño del negocio.

Así mismo, las contribuciones hechas por Randoy y Goel, (2003) y Zahra, (2005) sugieren que la participación de los propietarios como administradores apoyará de manera más decidida las innovaciones radicales y que los desempeños de los directivos miembros de la familia tendrán mejores gestiones que los no miembros. Sin embargo, en los casos analizados no se observa evidencia de apoyos decididos a la actividad innovadora aún y cuando la gestión está completamente a cargo de miembros de la familia.

Las empresas familiares no tienen convenios ni acuerdos formales con instituciones externas de apoyo a la innovación y el éxito en los proyectos realizados, se presenta más como producto de la perseverancia, tenacidad y dedicación.

CONCLUSIONES

A través del presente estudio se puede concluir que:

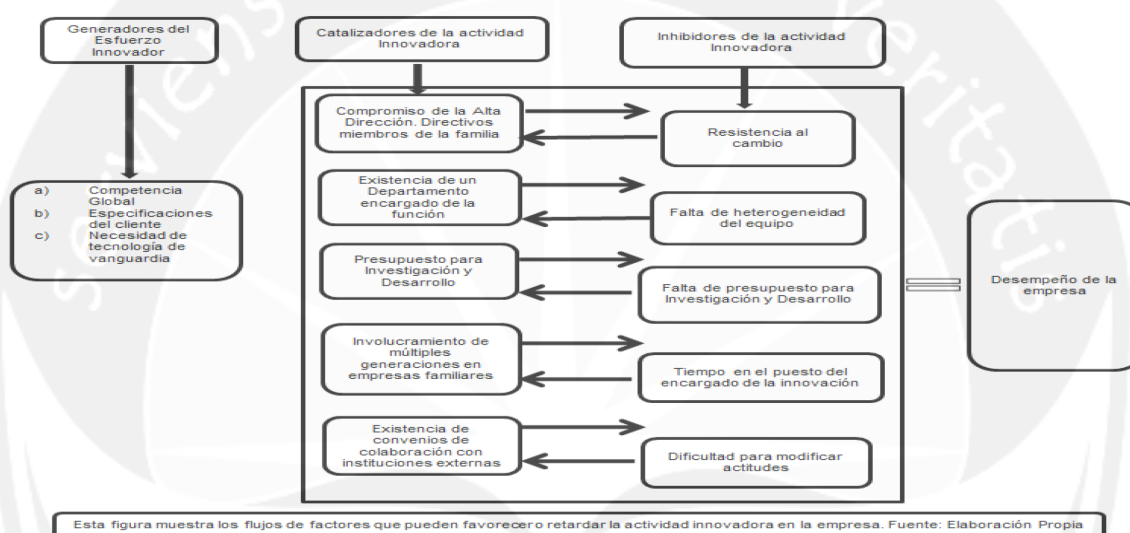
- 1) Los hallazgos de la investigación sugieren que los factores generadores del esfuerzo innovador son: la competencia global, las especificaciones de los clientes y la necesidad de incorporar tecnología de vanguardia.
- 2) Se reconocen como catalizadores de la actividad innovadora el compromiso de la alta dirección, la existencia de un departamento encargado de la función innovadora, un presupuesto asignado específicamente para propiciar la innovación y la realización de convenios de colaboración con instituciones externas.

3) Se identifica como inhibidores del esfuerzo innovador, la resistencia al cambio, la dificultad para modificar actitudes, el tiempo en el puesto del encargado de la función, la falta de heterogeneidad del equipo encargado de la innovación y la falta de presupuesto para investigación y desarrollo.

4) El tiempo en el puesto del encargado de la innovación y la falta de heterogeneidad del equipo asignado a la actividad, representan importantes restricciones a la innovación. Solo en el caso de la empresa no familiar participante en la investigación, el equipo si es heterogéneo, formado por ingenieros y operadores con una definición institucional de la tarea de innovación y con una medición objetiva de resultados.

La Figura 1 ilustra el conjunto de catalizadores e inhibidores de la actividad innovadora.

Figura 1: Modelo de Factores Catalizadores-Inhibidores de la Actividad Innovadora



Del modelo propuesto, se puede concluir que en la medida que las empresas logren neutralizar con la fuerza de los factores reconocidos como catalizadores, la fuerza de los elementos inhibidores, el desempeño de la empresa resultará favorecido por la actividad innovadora a través de la generación de patentes y mejora de procesos que la conviertan en una organización más competitiva en el medio en el que se desarrolla.

Estudio futuros deberían incorporar temas como la importancia de la innovación en la estrategia competitiva de la empresa, la relevancia del sector en el que se desempeña el negocio y la propensión a innovar y la importancia que los acuerdos de colaboración tecnológica con universidades y centros de investigación tienen al momento de mejorar el desempeño de la empresa a través de innovaciones de negocio.

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LA PROFESIONALIZACIÓN COMO FACTOR DE COMPETITIVIDAD: UN ANALISIS DE LAS EMPRESAS FAMILIARES DEL SECTOR INDUSTRIAL, EN TIJUANA, B.C., MEXICO

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RESUMEN

El presente trabajo contempla una investigación para analizar la profesionalización como factor de competitividad en las empresas familiares del sector industrial de Tijuana, B.C., México. Tomando en cuenta que los fundadores de las empresas familiares son personas y en muchas ocasiones cuentan con un alto grado de compromiso, son visionarios, dotados de gran confianza en sí mismos y con una enorme fuerza de voluntad, que dedican muchas horas a las compañías, y muchas veces ignorando los fundamentos básicos gerenciales para ser altamente competitivos. Para lograr los resultados se han realizado 117 encuestas representativas a los propietarios registrados en el Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicano, (SIEM, correspondiente a Tijuana, en Baja California, México. Realizándose el análisis estadístico a través del sistema SPSS 15.0

PALABRAS CLAVES: profesionalización, competitividad, sector industrial

INTRODUCCIÓN

Hoy en día, el país continúa enfrentando el reto de que las empresas familiares evolucionen y la profesionalización es parte de esa evolución, por lo cual los propietarios deben hacerse la pregunta ¿si realmente están siendo competitivas sus empresas?, y pensar seriamente en dar ese paso y buscar el siguiente nivel para sus organizaciones. Las propias características de la empresa familiar, con directivos familiares, las tensiones y conflictos internos, en muchas ocasiones pueden merman la competitividad de la misma, aun así, este tipo de empresas muestran características diferenciales que bien encaminadas, sabiéndolas utilizar y aplicar les aportan ventajas competitivas, todo esto con miras a buscar una perspectiva empresarial de largo plazo, de tal modo, que no solo busquen lograr objetivos inmediatos, sino que logren la transición de la primera, a la segunda generación y tercera generación.

Una de las principales limitantes de las empresas familiares, es que llevan la informalidad del trato familiar, a la formalidad de una organización considerada como profesional. Con el tiempo, el crecimiento del sistema familia-empresa-propiedad exige un trato más profesionalizado, esto es, darle al proceso de toma de decisiones una forma ordenada, considerando muchas veces una correcta aplicación de la administración y la cultura organizacional de la misma. Toda empresa que desee preservar su carácter familiar debe tener la capacidad de profesionalizarse, tomando en cuenta que esto incluye atraer y retener a directivos no familiares y planificar la sucesión de su dirección, es decir, el propietario debe saber cuándo es el momento de ceder la batuta y garantizar la competencia del sucesor.

En la mayoría de las empresas familiares el bajo grado de profesionalización, lleva a que se elija a los directivos entre los miembros de la familia, lo que conlleva en muchas ocasiones a malas elecciones. Como decía un sabio propietario de una importante empresa familiar, lo cual no siempre es la mejor decisión.

Por lo tanto, la profesionalización debe ser algo bien pensando y se debe llevar a cabo estableciendo reglas, estructura y un modelo de sociedad, que contemple el conflicto de intereses entre las prioridades y estrategias colectivas de la empresa, los caprichos, deseos y celos individuales de los socios. En este proceso hay que involucrar a todos; es decir, herederos directos e indirectos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La empresa familiar características y funcionamiento.

Lozano (2009), hace referencia de que la empresa familiar se considera de gran importancia en la economía de un país con un sistema libre de mercado, pues representa un alto porcentaje del total de las empresas que operan en este (Neubauer y Lank, 1999; Rutherford, Muse y Oswald, 2006)

Gallo, Lansberg, cfr., Dodero, (2002), definen a la empresa familiar como aquella que incluye dos o más miembros de la familia teniendo control financiero sobre ella (Donnelly, 1964). En términos generales se suele asociar a las empresas familiares con las empresas pequeñas y mediana con escasa profesionalización; pero su característica principal y lo que define la esencia de este tipo de organizaciones, no es el tamaño, eficacia de la gestión directiva, sino el hecho de que la propiedad y el control de la dirección está en manos de uno o más miembros de un mismo grupo familiar y que existe intención de que la empresa siga en manos de la familia.

El modelo de los tres círculos (Tagiuri y Davis, 1982), es uno de los que han sido más empleados para describir distintas situaciones actuales y futuras de las empresas familiares. En este modelo cada círculo representa un grupo de personas, con particulares características en relación con la empresa familiar, y las intersecciones de los círculos los grupos de personas que poseen dos o tres de las tres características identificadas por el modelo.

Según coincidan en mayor o menor grado los tres círculos, es decir, estos se superpongan como atraídas por una fuerza centrípeta, algo que suele ocurrir en primera y segunda generación, o se distancien como separados por una fuerza centrífuga, como acostumbra a pasar en empresas familiares de gran tamaño, se estará frente a distintos tipos de empresas familiares, con características muy diferentes, por el número de protagonistas que en ellas trabajan o con ellas tienen relación, por los distintos roles que desempeñan y sus diferentes intereses, así como por el contenido de las relaciones y actitudes que entre unas y otras personas se dan. Otra característica que destaca en estas empresas es la cultura, o dicho en otras palabras, los valores, actitudes y creencias propias de una familia que mayoritariamente dirige y controla la empresa en cuestión.

Esta cultura define el funcionamiento interno que adoptará la firma y debido a ello también han sido cuantiosos los autores que han tratado de estudiarla con el fin de obtener resultados acerca de la problemática específica de la empresa familiar. Sobre esta cuestión podrían destacarse los trabajos de Dyer (1986) y Gallo (1992), los cuales realizan un exhaustivo análisis de la incidencia de dichos valores en los negocios de tipo familiar. Por último, hay que subrayar otro aspecto significativo que es la visión a largo plazo que este tipo de negocios plantea y que es fruto de numerosas disparidades con las empresas

no familiares. Estudios como los realizados por Daily y Dollinger (1991; 1992; 1993) o Donckels y Fröhlich (1991), demuestran esa afinidad a la continuidad a lo largo de las generaciones, la cual implica uno de los problemas más importantes tratados a través de los años como es la sucesión, puesto que aun existiendo esa visión a largo plazo, muchas empresas no logran superar el cambio de generación.

Competitividad y empresa familiar

Entendemos por competitividad a la capacidad de una organización pública o privada, lucrativa o no, de mantener sistemáticamente ventajas que le permitan alcanzar, sostener y mejorar una determinada posición en el entorno socioeconómico.” La ventaja de una organización estaría en su habilidad, recursos, conocimientos y atributos de los que dispone dicha organización, los mismos de los que carecen sus competidores o que estos tienen en menor medida que hace posible la obtención de los rendimientos superiores a los de aquellos.

Competitividad es un término que se utiliza con frecuencia pero que rara vez se define. En realidad no hay consenso sobre el concepto de competitividad. Competitividad es una traducción libre de lo que en inglés es “*Competitiveness*”, que quiere decir: “justa, rivalidad”, y que deriva de la competencia. Económicamente, es la creación y mantenimiento de un mercado en el que participan numerosas empresas y donde se determina el precio conforme a la ley de la oferta y la demanda”. (Chauca, 2000).

Es importante para efectos de la investigación determinar la posición competitiva de México y de acuerdo con el Instituto Mexicano para la Competitividad, conocido por sus siglas, por IMCO, (2009), como la capacidad de atraer y retener inversiones. La definición mostrada anteriormente implica que para poder atraer y retener inversiones, es necesario que un país ofrezca las condiciones integrales aceptables en el ámbito internacional para maximizar el potencial socioeconómico de las empresas y personas que en él radican y, además incrementar de forma sostenida su nivel de bienestar, más allá de las posibilidades intrínsecas que sus propios recursos, capacidad tecnológica y de innovación ofrezcan y, todo ello, con independencia de las fluctuaciones económicas normales por las que el país atraviese.

De acuerdo con datos de la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (OCDE), en el 2010, México ocupó la posición número sesenta y seis de Competitividad a nivel mundial, Asimismo, la posición competitiva del estado de Baja California, de acuerdo a los indicadores de competitividad, de los estados del país, en el índice general de competitividad de 2007, Baja California ocupa el cuarto lugar a nivel nacional, asimismo se encuentra en el cuarto lugar en desempeño económico, séptimo lugar en eficiencia gubernamental, el cuarto lugar en eficiencia en los negocios, y por ultimo en séptimo lugar en infraestructura. Las organizaciones competitivas serán la base para que la economía de un país sea fuerte y sólida. Todo se puede lograr si un país cuenta con población competente, lo cual significa gente capaz de crear e innovar, que cuente con las facultades necesarias para desarrollar y operar sistemas tanto tecnológicos como organizacionales que generen satisfactores de óptima calidad.” (Cantú, 2001).

La profesionalización y la competitividad

En la actualidad nos encontramos en un mundo globalizado, pertenecemos a una unión de países y las empresas familiares en México, enfrentan la falta de profesionalización, la cual se debe llevar esta a cabo estableciendo reglas, estructura y un modelo de sociedad, que contemple el conflicto de intereses entre las prioridades y estrategias colectivas (de la empresa) y los caprichos, deseos y celos individuales (de los socios). Lozano (2009), menciona que se debe tomar en cuenta que la formación en valores y en

habilidades de liderazgo, debe complementarse con la formación en áreas administrativas o en un área técnica importante, esto es, educación formal, que le de capacidades al potencial sucesor de trabajar en la empresa familiar, (Venter et al.m 2005: Lambrecht, 2005).

En este proceso hay que involucrar a todos; es decir, herederos directos e indirectos. Es probable que, en algún momento de la vida de una empresa familiar, sus dueños piensen que deberán profesionalizarla. Con frecuencia se considera que “profesionalizar” significa cambiar la administración familiar por otra no familiar. En otras palabras, que basta con elegir a un ejecutivo ajeno a la familia para que conduzca el negocio. (Davis, 2007) Una compañía es considerada profesional cuando muestra altos niveles de desempeño y ética. Esos niveles se alcanzan generando culturas que pongan énfasis en el desempeño, al tiempo que adhieren a valores fundamentales de la compañía, aprenden en forma constante, y se esfuerzan por lograr la igualdad en reconocimiento y recompensas. Las culturas de negocios profesionales se nutren de los esfuerzos de sus líderes y de procesos “formales”: fijar metas y reglas claras, valorar el desempeño y la ética de los empleados, contratar personal sobre la base de su capacidad para contribuir, y otorgar ascensos también en función de las contribuciones. Una compañía puede ser de propiedad de una familia, estar administrada por la familia y ser profesional.

La profesionalización nada tiene que ver con categorías, sino con actitudes y comportamientos personales. Y, de hecho, es posible que los miembros de la familia que posean la combinación apropiada de cualidades, tengan ciertas ventajas al administrar el negocio, en especial para asegurar a los principales interesados—familiares accionistas, empleados, clientes y proveedores— que la empresa es estable y pueden confiar en ella. Por lo tanto, no hay que caer en la trampa de suponer que para hacer más profesional una empresa hay que deshacerse de los empleados-familiares. La profesionalización en las empresas familiares, consiste en hacer que las actividades, se ejecuten con criterios empresariales de eficiencia y evaluación de resultados, sin que la toma de decisiones, se encuentren influenciadas por criterios familiares, que no siempre son compatibles con los empresariales. Para ello, se debe disponer de un equipo directivo con experiencia en los negocios y conocimientos técnicos en administración de empresas. La profesionalización en México continúa enfrentando el reto de adoptar prácticas de gobierno corporativo para profesionalizar a sus empresas familiares, por lo que si busca acelerar el paso en la materia, requiere de "un sistema político unificado que ayude a crear la infraestructura educativa necesaria para tener incentivos reales en el acceso al financiamiento. (Davis, 2007) De acuerdo con Farías (2005), para el desarrollo de las empresas familiares, es importante la profesionalización de la empresa, ya que es un paso decisivo para manejar los conflictos potenciales entre los valores, metas de la familia y la organización, una ventaja significativamente importante para la mayoría de las empresas familiares.

Por lo cual la profesionalización significa: “llevar a la empresa de una gestión empírica a una científica, que conduzca al desarrollo empresarial, permitiendo la transición de la empresa a través de etapas que la hagan más competitiva. Asimismo, el desarrollo de una empresa es un proceso de cambio no estructurado, ya que el empresario conoce la situación actual de la organización, pero no conoce los procedimientos y en muchos casos, no tiene definida su visión (el lugar hacia donde quiere ir). Uno de los principales objetivos de la profesionalización, implica modificar su estructura; los problemas que hay que resolver, en este aspecto se resumen en los siguientes puntos: cómo funcionará la comunicación en la empresa, cómo se tomarán las decisiones, cómo se establecerán las pautas de manejo, cómo se determinarán las responsabilidades y se delegará autoridad, cómo se reconocerá y compensará el rendimiento. (Farías, 2005) Para efectos de esta investigación, se toma en cuenta en el proceso de profesionalización, la cultura organizacional, liderazgo y la capacitación, como los elementos que inciden de manera directa en la profesionalización y son factores de competitividad.

MÉTODO

La metodología de investigación es cuantitativa y cualitativa. La investigación cuantitativa se aplica para el levantamiento de encuestas, a través de cuestionarios a los propietarios según una muestra aleatoria de la población total de las empresas familiares del sector industrial. Se procesará la información recabada con aplicación del programa estadístico SPSS para el análisis descriptivo e inferencial.

Problemática y Justificación

En el escenario actual de la economía mexicana, se encuentran un número significativo de empresas familiares, en las que de acuerdo a las características del tiempo presente, en donde la turbulencia es muy agresiva, producto de la inestabilidad política, que ha incidido en lo económico, aunado a la poca formación de sus gerentes con respecto a los conocimientos gerenciales que hoy en día se requieren, algunas empresas han cerrado y otras se encuentran estancadas, lo que conlleva a que se tomen las medidas y acciones adecuadas para contrarrestar los efectos de las variables de contingencias del entorno. La profesionalización de las empresas familiares en México, así como en Tijuana, B.C. es tan importante, ya que su existencia puede depender de dicho factor. Muchas empresas, al iniciar la producción de bienes o servicios, deben contemplar y considerar los diferentes factores que inciden en su negocio.

Objetivos.

Objetivo Específico. Determinar los factores de competitividad que inciden en la profesionalización de las empresas familiares del sector industrial, de Tijuana, B.C., México.

Muestra

Para ello, se considera la profesionalización como factor de competitividad como variable dependiente y las variables independientes a) Proceso de profesionalización, b) Selección, c) Liderazgo, d) Capacitación, e) Cultura organizacional, f) Familia, suponiendo por consiguiente que la profesionalización representa el elemento de “competitividad” con la situación de la organización.

Determinación de la Muestra. Para el presente trabajo se eligió una muestra de 117 propietarios de empresas familiares del sector industrial del Sistema de Información Empresarial Mexicana (SIEM) Marzo 2010, Tijuana, Baja California.

Factores que se consideraron en el cálculo de la muestra:

- a) La población se considera con características homogéneas.
- b) Se cuenta con una población finita, ya que el número de empresas familiares es conocido.
- c) Fórmula empleada para el cálculo de la muestra:
- d)

$$n = \frac{\partial^2 pq (1)}{e^2(N-1)\partial^2 pq}$$

Tabla 1: Total de Empresas según SIEM, Marzo 2010.

	Población	Muestra
Total de empresas	689	117

Esta tabla muestra que el total de las empresas encuestas si cuenta con un nivel de confiabilidad .

Validación Del Instrumento

A los propietarios se les aplicó un cuestionario conformado con 41 preguntas, el cual fue validado relacionado al tema de estudio. Se utilizó una escala de medición con categorías de respuestas de opción múltiple. Se elaboraron los cuadros que permiten un análisis de los factores que inciden en el proceso de profesionalización de las empresas familiares. La validez del cuestionario se determinó mediante el coeficiente de confiabilidad de *Alfa-Cronbach*, por medio del programa SPSS: el resultado arrojado por dicho programa fue de .80, un grado de confiabilidad aceptable (ya que esta por arriba .60 y de 0.70, puntuación mínima aceptable.).

Tabla 2: Análisis de Fiabilidad

Alfa de Cronbach	No. de elementos
.878	41

Fuente: elaboración propias con datos del spss. (2011)

RESULTADOS

Tabla 3: Correlaciones Bivariadas (Matriz de *Pearson*) de las variables dependientes

Correlacion Variables	Correlación
Cultura Organizacional – Selecccion del sucesor	.522**
Cultura Organizacional- Proceso de Profesionalizacion	.558**
Cultura Organizacional-Cultura Organizacional	.522**
Capacitacion – Capacitacion	.653**
Proceso de profesionalizacion – Proceso de Profesionalizacion	.568**
Proceso de Profesionalización – Capacitación	.568**
Liderazgo- Liderazgo	.558**

En la tabla se observa n las correlaciones resultado del análisis estadístico a través del SPSS 15. Fuente elaboración propia (2011)

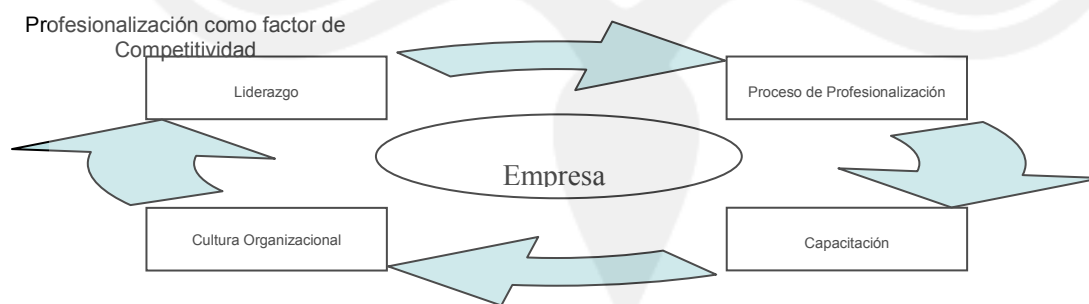
***La correlación es significativa en el nivel 0.01 * La correlación es significativa en el nivel 0.05*

Los resultados de las correlaciones anteriores permiten concluir que dos variables están relacionadas con otras dos variables: Se propone como estrategia de investigación que, a partir de la evidencia empírica que arroja la matriz de coeficientes de correlación de *Pearson*, considerar sólo aquellas correlaciones significativas al rango de 0.01 y 0.05 y de una magnitud igual o mayor a 0.5, lo cual representa una correlación positiva de moderada a fuerte. Al realizar el análisis de correlación, se determina que los factores de competitividad que inciden de manera directa en la profesionalización son los siguientes:

- Dentro de la cultura organizacional en las empresas familiares del sector industrial no existe resistencia al cambio de parte de los empleados, así como no se presenta de parte de la familia.
- A través de la capacitación existe una incorporación de directivos no familiares y existe la permanencia de los directivos no familiares dentro de las empresas familiares del sector industrial.

- c) Asimismo existen mecanismos que permiten a las familias de las empresas familiares del sector industrial preparar el proceso de profesionalización.
- d) De igual manera existen estos mecanismos al interior de las empresas que preparan a los empleados para la transición de la profesionalización.
- e) Por lo tanto existen procesos de control de administración al interior de la empresa que permiten evaluar la calidad de gestión de los nuevos profesionales dentro de las organizaciones.
- f) Se presenta la existencia de la posibilidad de un crecimiento profesional de directivos no familiares, por la permanencia de este personal dentro de las empresas, a través de la capacitación.
- g) También existen procesos competitivos de selección de los directivos que permiten que esta se efectúe por los mecanismos ya definidos dentro de las empresas.
- h) Estos mecanismos ya establecidos dentro de las empresas facilitan a la familia preparar a los trabajadores y planear el proceso de profesionalización.
- i) El liderazgo se ve reflejado en cuanto a que los profesionales que se incorporan a la empresa presentan un alto grado de proactividad, logrando así un liderazgo efectivo.
- j) Cabe resaltar que la planificación del proceso de profesionalización se debe llevar a cabo a través de un protocolo familiar, en donde se establezcan los procesos de preparación de sucesores profesionales al interior de la empresa, así como la existencia de mecanismos que preparen a los empleados para el proceso de profesionalización.
- k) Asimismo la capacitación incide de manera directa en el proceso de profesionalización, resaltando la importancia de que tanto directivo como familiares como no familiares, deben contar con una educación formal, es decir una carrera profesional

Figura 1: Factores de la Profesionalización como Factor de Competitividad



Fuente elaboración propia Vega, A. y Flores V. 2011

En la figura 1, se muestra los factores de competitividad que inciden en la profesionalización, como factor

de competitividad en las empresas familiares del sector industrial en Tijuana, B.C., dando como resultado que el proceso de profesionalización y la capacitación, presentando estas empresas un promedio de antigüedad de 9.6 años, por lo anterior, entre más antigua sea la organización, mas formalizado estará su comportamiento, ya que ejercen una influencia más pronunciada en la parte intermedia de la estructura de la organización.

CONCLUSIONES

El principal reto de las empresas familiares del sector industrial, es perdurar por varias generaciones. En el contexto actual, las organizaciones están cerrando de manera continua, y ya no pueden mantenerse sin profesionalizar su administración, debido principalmente al entorno cambiante y a que deben ser competitivas dentro de los mercados globales, quedando atrás el esquema en donde las empresas aprendían sobre la marcha, porque los cambios son tan acelerados que las organizaciones de este tipo tienden a desaparecer. Por consiguiente, no debe ser pretexto, el que las organizaciones sean empresas familiares, para no llevar una óptima administración, cuando debería ser lo contrario, ya que inician como un pequeño negocio, que bien administrado puede ir creciendo, a través, de la implementación de estrategias, técnicas y herramientas eficientes. En la etapa de planeación, los propietarios deben considerar que uno de los mejores caminos para tener una compañía fortalecida es la profesionalización, para lo cual, deben tomar en cuenta lo siguiente:

- a) Contratar un porcentaje de directivos o gerentes no familiares ya que estos van a tener una visión más objetiva y amplia experiencia acerca de lo que sucede, así como una gestión sin los vicios de las relaciones familiares.
- b) La profesionalización de la empresa tiene que ver con la formación de los integrantes, principalmente de los sucesores.
- c) Formalizar la capacitación, ya que la tendencia es que lo familiares que laboran en la empresa no poseen alguna formación académica o sea deficiente y cuando llegan a tener una preparación formal, no sea acorde a las necesidades de la empresa.
- d) Tanto el fundador como la familia, deben tomar en cuenta a los empleados mejor preparados, a través de sistemas de evaluación de desempeños, derivados de la capacitación, estableciendo planes de vida y carrera.
- e) El integrante de la familia designado como el sucesor debe estar preparado, de preferencia que cuente con una carrera para asumir el control de la empresa familiar.
- f) la planificación del proceso de profesionalización se debe llevar a cabo a través de un protocolo familiar, en donde se establezcan los procesos de preparación de sucesores profesionales al interior de la empresa,
- g) Establecer por escrito los mecanismos que preparen a los empleados para el proceso de profesionalización.

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OPCIÓN LEGAL PARA EVITAR LA EVASIÓN DEL PAGO DE IMPUESTO SOBRE LA RENTA EN LA INDUSTRIA DE LA CONSTRUCCIÓN EN MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

En la presente investigación se analiza el tema de la evasión del pago del Impuesto Sobre la Renta en la Industria de la Construcción. La necesidad de esta investigación se origina por los diversos casos de problemas legales que tienen este tipo de empresa, los cuales pueden tener como consecuencias multas innecesarias por incumplimiento de sus obligaciones fiscales y la quiebra de la empresa, entre otras. El propósito del estudio es proporcionar al Estado, al gobierno y a los gobernados, una opción legal para evitar la evasión de este impuesto. Es un estudio de corte cualitativo de tipo documental. Se revisa la normatividad mexicana vigente aplicable a este impuesto en la industria de la construcción. Se indaga si existe una solución a la problemática de evasión de impuestos en leyes, libros, revistas e investigaciones previas. Se analiza la aplicación de la estimación de ingresos y de las deducciones por obra determinada para pagar el citado impuesto, como una opción para evitar la evasión del mismo. Se determina el efecto que provoca la evasión del Impuesto sobre la Renta en este tipo de industrias, a través de un caso práctico. Con base en los datos obtenidos se plantean conclusiones y recomendaciones.

PALABRAS CLAVE: evasión, Impuesto Sobre la Renta, industria de la construcción

A LEGAL OPTION TO PREVENT EVASION OF THE PAYMENT OF INCOME TAX IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY IN MEXICO

ABSTRACT

This research examines the topic of evasion of the payment of income tax in the construction companies. The need for this research originates from the various cases of legal problems that have this type of companies, which may have as consequences the unnecessary payment of fines, because of the failure to comply with their tax obligations and the bankruptcy of the company, among others. The purpose of the study is to provide the State, the Government and the governed, a legal option to avoid this tax evasion. It is a study qualitative in nature; a document analysis is done. A review of the current Mexican regulations applicable to this tax in the construction industry is also done. It explores whether there is a solution to the problem of tax evasion in law, books, magazines and previous investigations. It discusses the application of the estimation of income and deductions for specific work, to pay the income tax, as an option to prevent evasion of the tax. The effect resulting in evasion of the tax in this type of industries is shown through a case study. Based on the data gathered, some conclusions are drawn and some recommendations are done.

JEL: K34

KEY WORDS: evasion, income tax, construction industry

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las constructoras en México han gozado por muchos años de ciertos estímulos fiscales en la causación del Impuesto Sobre la Renta, por ser una de las fuentes de empleo más importante en el país. Sin embargo, tras haberse encontrado con un paquete fiscal de nuevas medidas impositivas, estas empresas intentaron llevar ciertas estrategias fiscales agresivas que para la autoridad fiscal fueron tomadas por evasión fiscal. Lo anterior tuvo como resultado pérdidas, auditorias, multas y recargos, lo que complicó la situación para las mismas empresas.

Dado lo anterior, se justifica la realización de este estudio, pues resulta trascendente proporcionar al Estado, al gobierno y a los gobernados, una opción legal para evitar la evasión de este impuesto.

El objetivo de la presente investigación es, por tanto, identificar una opción legal que se pueda aplicar para el pago del Impuesto Sobre la Renta en la industria de la construcción.

El estudio que se presenta inicia con la revisión literaria relevante sobre el tema de la evasión del Impuesto Sobre la Renta; en la sección de metodología se describe de manera detallada el procedimiento aplicado para la realización de esta indagatoria; en resultados se detallan los hallazgos más importantes del estudio y se ejemplifica una opción legal para evitar la evasión fiscal a través de un caso práctico; en la sección final se expone la conclusión derivada del análisis de la información obtenida.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Todo programa o actividad a desarrollar en la empresa debe quedar debidamente sustentado, para evitar caer en pago de impuestos excesivos o en un problema fiscal y/o penal con las autoridades hacendarias. A decir de Leonard (2006) se debe tener un soporte fiscal, legal, documental y contable. Señala el autor además que un programa de optimización fiscal empresarial se debe realizar no solo para cubrir un aspecto fiscal, sino también como una estrategia para mejorar por una razón del negocio. Asimismo señala el citado autor la importancia del dictamen fiscal, como una garantía jurídica, por lo que resulta un acierto el dictaminarse para efectos fiscales y financieros.

El pago de impuestos, al igual que otros insumos es un costo del producto, por lo tanto, no puede decirse que se está cumpliendo con la misión de la empresa de producir el mejor producto al precio más bajo si incurre en altos costos fiscales. La evasión fiscal tiene un importante componente relacionado con la capacidad del fisco para detectar y sancionar una conducta de omisión relacionada con el cumplimiento de la obligación tributaria. A fin de disuadir al contribuyente de incurrir en prácticas de evasión fiscal, las autoridades fiscales requieren contar con un sistema amplio y confiable de información. Este sistema le proporciona a las autoridades los elementos suficientes para conocer con precisión la composición del padrón de contribuyentes, las actividades que éstos realizan, su nivel de ingresos y las posibles irregularidades u omisiones en las que puedan incurrir.

En México, el régimen de facilidades administrativas para las empresas constructoras estuvo vigente hasta 1981. Sin embargo desde 1982 las empresas constructoras ya no tuvieron un régimen especial en la Ley del Impuesto Sobre la Renta.

las empresas constructoras habían disfrutado de un régimen especial de tributación que consistía en aplicar una tasa proporcional al monto de sus ingresos totales para así determinar el Impuesto Sobre la Renta a su cargo; en este sentido, en 1967 la tasa era de 1.5%, en 1968 de 2%, en 1973 de 5%; de 1975 a 1978 fue de 3% y de 1979 a 1981, de 3.75%. (Práctica Fiscal, 2008, parr. 2).

La evasión del pago del Impuesto Sobre la Renta dentro de la industria de la construcción es muy común ya que por las actividades que realizan, dada la incorrecta administración de presupuestos y estimaciones este es el primer impuesto que se ve afectado.

Con la incorporación de la deducción del costo de lo vendido a la Ley del Impuesto Sobre la Renta para las empresas constructoras se pone de manifiesto la importancia del tratamiento fiscal a que estos contribuyentes tienen derecho.

En el artículo 19 de la LISR se establece el momento en que las personas morales de la industria de la construcción deben acumular sus ingresos, en lugar de aplicar lo dispuesto en el artículo 18 de la misma ley. La acumulación de sus ingresos para este tipo de contribuyentes no es necesariamente al expedir un comprobante fiscal, ni entregar el bien, sino solo se acumulara un anticipo o depósito mientras se apruebe la estimación de obra correspondiente, o bien se cobre efectivamente la contraprestación pactada. Lo anterior trae ventajas en el sentido de acumular los ingresos hasta que se cobren o hacerlo hasta que se tenga la seguridad de que se cobrarán, a diferencia del sistema tradicional, donde se tiene que acumular la totalidad y en su caso pagar el impuesto correspondiente a pesar de que se retrase su cobro parcialmente o no se logre el mismo. Este retraso o falta de pago afecta en su flujo de efectivo a los contribuyentes.

En caso de no estar obligados a presentar las estimaciones de obra o la periodicidad sea mayor a tres meses, considerarán como ingreso acumulable el avance trimestral en la ejecución o fabricación de los bienes a que se refiere la obra. En este último caso, los contribuyentes tampoco tienen que acatar las reglas establecidas en artículo 18 del citado ordenamiento jurídico, dado que se trata de estrategias generales. En tanto, el artículo 19 de la LISR en una regla particular señala el momento de acumulación para este tipo de actividades que realizan estos contribuyentes. Esta regla particular no solo sólo establece un momento de acumulación de los ingresos para los contribuyentes dedicados a la construcción, sino para otros tipos de obra.

En cuanto a la deducción estimada, en el artículo 36 de la LISR, se establece que los contribuyentes que se dediquen a llevar a cabo contratos de obra inmueble o fabricación de bienes de activo fijo y los que prestan servicios de tiempo compartido, tienen la opción de efectuar una deducción con base en las estimaciones que realicen respecto de sus costos. Lo anterior implica llevar a cabo la obra comprometida, en lugar de la deducción real en el ejercicio en que se inicie la obra, debiéndola ajustar a las erogaciones reales durante el periodo que dure dicha obra. Asimismo esto conlleva a que se les permita anticipar la deducción en el ejercicio, aunque deban ajustarla con base en las erogaciones reales que se realicen a futuro, hasta el término de la obra.

De acuerdo al artículo 36 último párrafo de la LISR, quienes opten por realizar la deducción estimada de los costos directos e indirectos, en lugar de la deducción real, deberán presentar un aviso ante el Servicio de Administración Tributaria, en un plazo de quince días posteriores al inicio de la obra o a la celebración del contrato. Una vez ejercida la opción, no podrá cambiarse; o en su caso, deberán cumplir con reglas de carácter general que al efecto expida la autoridad fiscal.

METODOLOGÍA

La presente investigación es de corte cualitativo de tipo documental. Se revisó la normatividad mexicana vigente aplicable a este impuesto en la industria de la construcción. Se indagó si existe una solución a la problemática de evasión de impuestos en leyes, libros, revistas e investigaciones previas. Se analizó la aplicación de la estimación de ingresos y de las deducciones por obra determinada para pagar el citado impuesto, como una opción para evitar la evasión del mismo. Se determinó el efecto que provoca la evasión del Impuesto sobre la Renta en este tipo de industrias, a través de un caso práctico. Con base en los datos que se obtuvieron se plantearon conclusiones y recomendaciones.

RESULTADOS

Al analizar la aplicación de la estimación de ingresos y de las deducciones por obra determinada para pagar el citado impuesto, como una opción para evitar la evasión del mismo, se pudo determinar que la opción consiste en deducir erogaciones estimadas de costos directos e indirectos de la obra, en los ejercicios en que se obtengan los ingresos. Lo anterior resulta diferente a respetar los plazos para efectuar las deducciones que se establecen en los artículos 21 y 29 de la LISR, donde las inversiones y el pago de salarios se deducen bajo las reglas previstas en materia de costo de lo vendido. En la medida que se acumulan los ingresos correspondientes, se deducen los conceptos antes mencionados.

Se deberán determinar por cada obra o inmueble los ingresos acumulables del ejercicio por el factor de deducción total que dará como resultado las erogaciones estimadas donde el factor de la deducción se obtendrá con la suma de costos directos e indirectos estimados entre el ingreso total que corresponda a la estimación.

Al final de cada ejercicio se deberá determinar, por cada obra o inmueble en desarrollo, el factor de deducción total, con el objeto de compararlo con el factor utilizado determinado al inicio de ejercicios anteriores, para determinar si el monto deducido está en función de las erogaciones reales por concepto de costos directos e indirectos de la obra según el avance que se tenga. En el caso de que el factor de deducción total determinado al final del ejercicio sea menor que el factor utilizado desde el inicio de la obra, se deberán presentar declaraciones complementarias de cada ejercicio en cuestión, utilizando para determinar las erogaciones reales el factor al final del ejercicio.

Con base en el artículo 36 de la LISR si de la comparación del factor al final del ejercicio es menor en más del 5% al factor del inicio de la obra, en las declaraciones complementarias que se presenten, se pagarán los recargos sobre el ISR que se determine en su caso.

Los contribuyentes que hayan tomado esta opción, deberán, en el ejercicio en que se terminen de acumular los ingresos por la obra que se realice, comparar erogaciones reales actualizadas contra las erogaciones estimadas actualizadas desde el inicio de la obra hasta el último ejercicio, actualizando con el factor que resulte de la división del INPC del mes de junio en que se termine de acumular los ingresos entre el INPC de diciembre ejercicio en que se dedujeron o efectuaron erogaciones. En caso de que las erogaciones estimadas sean mayores a las erogaciones reales, la diferencia se consideraría un ingreso acumulable en el ejercicio en que se terminen de acumular los ingresos correspondientes a la obra.

Para ejemplificar el efecto que provoca la aplicación de la opción legal propuesta, para evitar la evasión del Impuesto sobre la Renta en este tipo de industrias se presenta a continuación un caso práctico.

Tabla 1: Tabla que muestra la opción legal recomendada.

Concepto		Sin opción recomendada	Con opción recomendada
		a	
	Ingresos del desarrollo inmobiliario 80%	8,000,000.00	8,000,000.00
menos:	Deducciones art 21 y 29 LISR	0.00	0.00
menos:	Deducciones estimadas art 36 LISR	0.00	6,400,000.00
igual:	Utilidad Fiscal	8,000,000.00	1,600,000.00
por:	Tasa	30%	30%
igual:	ISR a enterar	2,400,000.00	480,000.00

Esta tabla presenta el beneficio fiscal para las empresas constructoras que utilizan la opción propuesta, al tener un desembolso menor en un 80% en este ejemplo.

CONCLUSIONES

Al término de esta indagatoria se establecen las siguientes conclusiones:

Primera. El empleo de esta opción para deducir las erogaciones estimadas y no las reales, debe verse como la posibilidad de anticipar las deducciones reales en el ejercicio en que se acumulan los ingresos. Sin embargo, tienen que ajustarse a la realidad de las erogaciones realizadas en cada obra; no se trata de una deducción ciega, sino de una deducción anticipada que, en un momento dado, lo que provocaría sería diferir el pago del ISR correspondiente pero nunca su disminución total.

Segunda. El que se permita acumular los ingresos hasta el cobro efectivo, hace que también se pueda diferir el pago del impuesto de un ejercicio a otro, en caso de que las operaciones se celebren al final de un ejercicio y el cobro se dé en el otro.

Tercera. El tratamiento fiscal en materia del Impuesto Sobre la Renta para la industria de la construcción, demostró tener sus ventajas en lo que corresponde al flujo de efectivo, dado que se logra capitalizar durante el periodo de la obra al contribuyente, y pueden pagar hasta que tengan los recursos para hacerlo y no antes, como normalmente sucede con otras empresas que no se dedican a estas actividades.

De acuerdo al ejemplo mostrado se recomienda a estos contribuyentes la aplicación de esta opción, para evitar su descapitalización, al pagar un impuesto sin haber cobrado el ingreso.

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EL EFECTO ECONÓMICO DE LA MIGRACIÓN INTERNACIONAL EN EL CRECIMIENTO ECONÓMICO DE MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

El propósito de este trabajo es presentar un acercamiento a la influencia que tiene el fenómeno migratorio en el crecimiento económico de México. Se hace una revisión de los antecedentes de la migración desde la época de la colonia hasta nuestros días. Actualmente la migración internacional y las remesas familiares ocupan uno de los primeros lugares en las esferas de los temas políticos. Lo anterior se puede argumentar en base a los resultados obtenidos a partir de la aplicación de un modelo econométrico de corte transversal aplicado a una muestra formada por las entidades de la Republica Mexicana con variables de Producto Interno Bruto, remesas, nivel de educación de la población y el empleo de la población. En este contexto, al medir el impacto de la migración internacional en el crecimiento económico a partir de los envíos de remesas, se encuentra que los resultados obtenidos del modelo econométrico de corte transversal no permiten afirmar que efectivamente las remesas detonen el crecimiento económico de México, pero sin embargo se podría considerar que las remesas sirven como un paliativo a la pobreza a nivel local en los lugares de origen de los migrantes, sin llegar a solventar el problema de la pobreza.

PALABRAS CLAVE: crecimiento económico, migración, migrantes y remesas.

THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION ON ECONOMIC GROWTH IN MEXICO

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this work is to show a close view to the influence of the migration on Mexico's economic growth. A background analysis on migration has been performed since the colonial days up to nowadays. Currently the international migration and the family remittances hold one of the first places in the political issues..this can be argue based on the results achieved from the implementation of a cross-section econometric model applied to a sample taken from the Mexican states with gross domestic product's variables, remittances, population level of education and employment. In this context when we measure the international migration impact on the economic growth based on family remittances, we find that the results obtained from the cross-section economic model do not allow us to assert that indeed the remittances detonate Mexico's economic growth, but however we could consider that the remittances serve as a relief to local poverty in the migrant's places of origin, without resolving the poverty's problem.

KEY WORDS: economic growth, migration, migrants, and remittances.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Actualmente el tema de la migración tiene muchas aristas y se puede abordar desde diferentes visiones. Dentro del contexto del crecimiento económico la migración juega un papel importante en el sistema de producción ya que los desplazamientos de mano de obra de los países pobres hacia los países ricos se deben en parte a las diferencias salariales.

El objetivo que se persigue en este documento es analizar el fenómeno migratorio en México en el en el crecimiento económico, tratando de medir el impacto de las remesas y el nivel de educación de la población en el Producto Interno Bruto por ser el parámetro que mide el nivel de crecimiento de un país. Para lograr el objetivo se hace un análisis del fenómeno migratorio y de las remesas familiares que son los envíos de dinero que hacen los migrantes a sus familiares a sus lugares de origen. Por lo que la pregunta que se plantea es sobre qué relación que existe entre crecimiento económico y remesas familiares.

La hipótesis que guía el trabajo es que la migración afecta de manera negativa al crecimiento económico, ya que se ha incrementado en los últimos años los desplazamientos de fuerza de trabajo de México hacia los Estados Unidos de América.

REVISIÓN TEÓRICA

En México, el fenómeno de la migración tiene sus antecedentes en la implementación de programas de trabajadores temporales que se dieron después de la Segunda Guerra mundial como el Primer Programa Bracero 1917 y el Programa Bracero (1942-1964), Programa de Trabajadores Agrícolas, Temporales México-Canadá, de 1974 a la fecha y Programas de visas para agricultura desde 1987 mediante visas de trabajo. Estos acuerdos son bilaterales, porque se trata de una migración documentada, aunque algunos se establecieron su residencia de manera permanente y en 1986 cuando se promulgó la Ley de Reforma y Control de la Inmigración (Immigration Reform And Control Act, IRCA), legalizó a tres millones de indocumentados (Durand y Massey, 2003).

Las entidades federativas de la Republica Mexicana que tienen altos índices de migración internacional según datos de la CONAPO son las que pertenecen a la región centro occidente, esta región está formada por: Aguascalientes, Colima, Durango, Guanajuato, Michoacán, Nayarit, Querétaro, San Luis Potosí y Zacatecas.

Recientemente se han hecho investigaciones en las cuales se ha demostrado que quienes tienen un alto nivel de educación tienden a migrar, considerando esto como fuga de mano de obra calificada, son los migrantes de los países pobres con destino a las economías desarrolladas, que salen a estudiar al extranjero, se preparan y se quedan a trabajar en el país de destino antes de regresar a sus lugar de origen, aunque en algunas ocasiones estos migrantes se establecen de manera permanente en el extranjero y ya no regresan (Hanson, 2010).

METODOLOGÍA

Se utiliza un modelo de mínimos cuadrados ordinarios (MCO) con una muestra de corte transversal que corresponde a las 31 entidades de la Republica Mexicana, con datos correspondientes a Producto Interno Bruto del 2009 y Nivel de educación de la población de 13 años y mas correspondiente a 2010 y las remesas familiares o envíos de dólares de los migrantes de 2010.

Fuentes de información: Se consultaron las Cuentas Nacionales en INEGI, de la cual se obtuvo información del Banco de Información Económica (BIE) respecto al Producto Interno Bruto (PIB) y de información de la población del Censo General de Población y Vivienda 2010 correspondiente a cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana,

Otra fuente oficial considerada es Banxico (Banco de México) de donde se recopiló información de las remesas familiares o envíos de dólares que hacen los migrantes desde los Estados Unidos a México por cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana durante el años de 2010.

Las variables utilizadas: La ecuación utilizada en el método de mínimos cuadrados ordinarios con una muestra de corte transversal es la siguiente:

$$\ln PIBpc2009 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NivEduc2010 + \beta_2 Empleo2010 + \beta_3 \ln REMpc2010 + \mu$$

Donde: la variable dependiente es $\ln PIBpc2009$ = Logaritmo del Producto Interno Bruto per cápita obtenido de dividir el Producto Interno Bruto entre la población de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana.

Y las variables independientes son: $NivEdu2010$ = Nivel de educación de la población de 13 años y mas o nivel de educación de la de la población económicamente activa de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana.

$Empleo2010$ = Proporción del empleo de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana.

$\ln REMpc2010$ = Logaritmo de las Remesas per cápita obtenidas de dividir las remesas entre la población de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana.

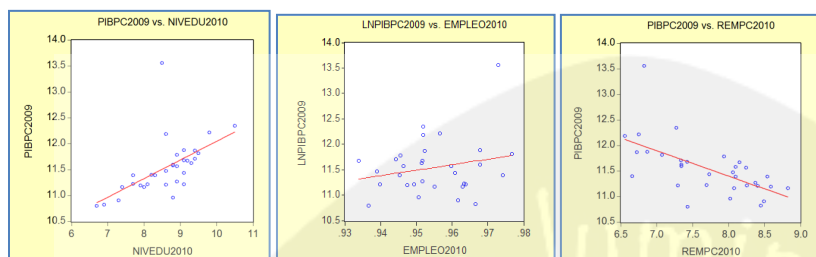
RESULTADOS

En la Figura 1 se presenta el diagrama correspondiente a la relación entre las variables del logaritmo natural del Producto Interno Bruto 2009 y el nivel de educación 2010,

El siguiente diagrama presenta una correlación positiva entre el logaritmo natural del Producto Interno Bruto per cápita y el nivel de empleo de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana muestran una dispersión entre los datos y una relación positiva, lo que significa que a un aumento en el empleo se da un aumento en el logaritmo natural del Producto Interno Bruto per cápita.

En el diagrama de dispersión correspondiente al logaritmo natural de las remesas per cápita y el logaritmo natural del Producto Interno Bruto per cápita presentan una correlación débil entre los datos de cada una de las entidades de la Republica Mexicana, lo que muestra que a un incremento en las remesas genera un disminución en el Producto Interno Bruto.

Figura 1: Diagrama de dispersión o grafica de puntos de las variables.



Fuente: elaboración propia en base a datos de INEGI y BANXICO 2010.

A continuación se presenta el modelo de mínimos cuadrados ordinarios (MCO) en una muestra de corte transversal:

$$\ln PIBpc2009 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NivEduc2010 + \beta_2 Empleo2010 + \beta_3 \ln REMpc2010 + \mu$$

Sustituyendo los valores de los coeficientes se obtiene:

$$\ln PIBpc2009 = \beta_0 + (0.272) NvEd2010 + (11.665) Emp2010 + (-0.251) \ln REMpc2010 + \mu$$

En los datos que se muestran en la Tabla 1 se desprende que un valor de t-Statistic igual a 2 o mayor significa que la variable puede considerarse estadísticamente significativa, por lo que el nivel de Educación (2.892385) y la proporción del empleo (7.780638) son estadísticamente significativos e influyen de manera positiva en el logaritmo del Producto Interno Bruto per cápita y el logaritmo de las remesas per cápita (2.175160) es considerado estadísticamente pero influye de manera negativa en el logaritmo del Producto Interno Bruto.

El coeficiente de determinación que mide la bondad de ajuste del modelo $R^2 = 0.49$ o 49% es la razón de causalidad entre la variable dependiente o logaritmo natural del Producto Interno Bruto y las variables independientes que corresponden al nivel de educación de la población, la proporción del empleo y el logaritmo de las remesas per cápita, en una muestra de corte transversal se considera que es aceptable este resultado.

Tabla 1: Resultados de la regresión.

Dependent Variable				
Method: Least Square				
Simple: 1: 32				
Included Observation : 32				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
NIVEDU2010	0.272462	0.094200	2.892385***	0.0072
PROEMPL2010	11.66558	1.499309	7.780638***	0.0000
PROEMPL2010	-0.251215	0.115493	-2.175160***	0.0379
R-squared	0.459082			
Adjusted R-squared	0.421778			
Durbin-Watson stat	2.153276			
N	32			

Fuente: elaboración propia en base a datos de INEGI y BANXICO 2010.

*El valor estadístico de "t" está en paréntesis. Los superíndices * ** *** muestran los niveles de significancia al 10, 5, 1 por ciento respectivamente*

Se ha encontrado que las remesas familiares en su mayoría se destinan al consumo familiar o de los hogares, principalmente se invierten en la satisfacción de necesidades básicas como alimentos, vestido, educación, transporte, salud y vivienda (para mejorar las condiciones, servicios básicos de agua, luz, entre otros), por lo que la inversión en proyectos productivos es mínima (De la Rosa, 2006).

CONCLUSIONES

Se puede concluir que los resultados del análisis realizado en este documento no fueron los esperados de acuerdo a la hipótesis planteada. Se esperaba encontrar una relación positiva entre remesas y crecimiento económico ya que gran parte de la literatura existente afirma que las remesas influyen en el desarrollo económico, pero los resultados de los cálculos realizados a través de las herramientas de la econometría no permiten hacer esas aseveraciones porque el resultado del estimador estadística R² son muy bajos, por lo que no puede concluirse que exista una fuerte relación entre las remesas y el crecimiento económico medido a través del Producto Interno Bruto.

La importancia de las remesas es que forman parte de uno de los rubros de la balanza de pagos y podría decirse que es son un paliativo a la pobreza en los lugares de origen de los migrantes porque en su mayoría son empleadas en el consumo de los hogares para la satisfacción de necesidades básicas de alimento, vestido, estudios, pago de servicios de agua, luz, etc., y no en proyectos productivos de inversión, lo que no genera un impacto en el crecimiento económico.

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COOPERATIVA SANZEKAN TINEMI: PROMOTORA DE ALTERNATIVAS DE TRABAJO EN BASE AL DESARROLLO ORGANIZACIONAL GUERRERENSE, MEXICO

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RESUMEN

Gracias al desarrollo organizacional, la Cooperativa Sanzekan Tinemi: Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS), tiene como eje central dar respuestas a las necesidades de comunidades campesinas indígenas del Estado de Guerrero, México, y es mediante su propio comportamiento organizacional lo que le ha permitido ser un promotor del empleo, así como conservación de la biodiversidad de la región y detonante del desarrollo regional a través de las comunidades productoras de mezcal, zonas de cultivo agrícola y artesanal, con presencia en los mercados regionales, estatales y la incursión internacional.

ABSTRACT

Thanks to the organizational development, Cooperative Sanzekan Tinemi: Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS) is central to respond to the needs of rural indigenous communities of Guerrero, MEXICO, and is using its own organizational behavior which makes him a promoter of employment, conservation of biodiversity in the region and trigger regional development through mezcal-producing communities, areas and traditional agricultural crop, with market presence in regional, national and international foray.

METHOD .- This trial represents 8 months (2011), field research, in the south. The benchmark study is the Cooperative Sanzekan Tinemi: Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS). The boundaries of the research area includes the municipality of Chilapa de Alvarez in Guerrero state and aims to demonstrate that organizational development is successful not only in large firms and in senior management but based on teamwork characteristic of our rural communities.

For the present research work outlined a representative sample of five working groups: the cooperative board Sanzekan Tinemi, producers of mezcal, mezcal distillation process, greenhouse and marketing. Data collection was through the interview instrument card. Respondents (study subjects), are the peasant leaders and coordinators own area of work teams of the cooperative itself, by its status as these represent 3% of the total community. 90% of those interviewed were male and 10% are women.

KEY WORDS: Development organizacional, cost, especulación, demand.

INTRODUCCION

El presente ensayo representa 8 meses, (2011), de investigación de campo, en la zona sur del país. El referente de estudio es la Cooperativa Sanzekan Tinemi: Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS). La delimitación territorial de la zona de investigación lo comprende el Municipio de Chilapa de Álvarez en el Estado de Guerrero y tiene como objetivo demostrar que el desarrollo organizacional no solo tiene

éxito en las grandes empresas ni en la alta directiva sino en base al trabajo en equipo propio de nuestras comunidades campesinas.

Para el presente trabajo de investigación se delimitó una muestra representativa de cinco equipos de trabajo: mesa directiva de la cooperativa Sanzekan Tinemi, productores de mezcal, proceso de destilación de mezcal, invernadero y comercializadora. La recopilación de datos fue a través del instrumento de cédula de entrevista. Los entrevistados (sujetos de estudio), son los propios dirigentes campesinos y coordinadores de área de los equipos de trabajo de la propia cooperativa, por su estatus estos representan el 3% del total de la comunidad. El 90% de la población entrevistada fueron varones y el 10% restante son mujeres.

Términos usados: *Comportamiento Organizacional*.-Disciplina que estudia, dentro de las estructuras formales de la empresa, las distintas conductas o comportamientos, de cada individuo, de los grupos que la integran, y de las interrelaciones que se dan entre los mismos. *Desarrollo Organizacional*.-Entendido como un sistema que aplica sus propios procesos de mejora, crecimiento e innovación. *Costos*.-sumatoria de los precio de las unidades requeridas durante el proceso de producción y comercialización. *Especulación*.-proceso económico comercial mediante el cual se generan alza en el precio de los productos y prácticas de acaparar la mercancía. *Inflación*.-subida generalizada de precios. *Oferta*.-producción de mercancías y/o servicios destinados al mercado, *demanda*.-bienes adquiridos por la población para cubrir necesidades.

Palabra clave: Desarrollo organizacional, costo, especulación, demanda

COOPERATIVA SANZEKAN TINEMI: “SOCIEDAD DE SOLIDARIDAD SOCIAL (SSS)”: PROMOTORA DE EMPLEO, DESARROLLO REGIONAL Y AMBIENTAL

En el centro del estado de Guerrero teniendo como sede la Cabecera municipal de Chilapa de Álvarez, se constituye como figura jurídica la Cooperativa Agrícola Sanzekan Tinemi, el 20 de abril de 1990. Ampliando así los espacios de negociación y de apertura económica política y comercial para sus habitantes. El objetivo central de esta sociedad es la búsqueda de alternativas a la problemática rural de Guerrero, con impacto regional.

La cooperativa Sanzekan Tinemi, abarca los municipios de Chilapa, Zitlala, Mártir de Cuilapan, y Ahuacutzingo, colindando con la región conocida como La Montaña y delimitado por los ríos Atempa y Petatlán, subsidiarios del Balsas.

En la zona de impacto de la cooperativa SSS, habitan aproximadamente unos 40,000 campesinos de origen nahua, la población en su mayoría se dedica a las actividades rurales con parcelas menores a dos hectáreas, siendo una actividad agrícola de temporal, con un clima semicálido y mala distribución de los suelos, la mayoría habla alguna lengua indígena.

La región de trabajo presenta un alto grado de analfabetas, con un aumento constante en los índices de migración transitoria y permanente, acompañado con elevadas cifras de mortalidad y desnutrición principalmente en infantes.

La familia campesina de la localidad, constituye la unidad de producción, la cual diversifica su trabajo en actividades agrícolas de subsistencia, micro ganadería: bovinos, la producción de artesanías de palma, textiles, elaboración de muebles y elaboración de mezcal.

El maíz es el principal cultivo de la región. Fuera de la producción de autosuficiencia, los habitantes se emplean dentro del sector primario como jornaleros agrícolas y en el tercer sector como comerciantes y transportistas, entre otros empleos.

Estructura Organizacional de La Cooperativa Sanzekan Tinemi: Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS).

La estructura Institucional de la Sanzekan Tinemi está constituida por: una Asamblea General de Socios, que es la autoridad suprema, seguida por El Comité Ejecutivo, que es el órgano de administración y de representación de la Sociedad lo conforman: Presidente, Secretario y Tesorero. Ellos nombran la directiva formada por tres comités: ejecutivo, financiero y de vigilancia.

Es el Comité Financiero y de Vigilancia quien ejerce la supervisión de todas las actividades y fiscaliza los actos del Comité Ejecutivo; dando fe de la transparencia del manejo de los recursos monetarios, seguidos por las Comisiones para cada una de las áreas; y por último los Grupos de Trabajo, representando a los miembros de cada comunidad.

Los integrantes de estos comités designan a los coordinadores de cada área, quienes a su vez se integran por los equipos técnicos conformados con los grupos familias campesinas y jóvenes de la región, juntos trabajan en las diferentes áreas y empresas de la organización cooperativa SSS.

Actualmente el consejo comunitario de abasto, la ha convertido en una Sociedad de Solidaridad Social (SSS), con diversas áreas de trabajo que han ido creciendo hasta convertirse en un caldo de cultivo para generar alternativas laborales para los pobladores de la región sur del país. Las principales áreas que conforman la asociación son: Abasto, Distribución de Fertilizantes, Producción Agrícola, Comercialización de Artesanías, Reforestación, Caja de Ahorro, y Mujer Campesina.

La Cooperativa Sansekan Tinemi, es una empresa SSS que se preocupa por la igualdad de oportunidades tanto de mujeres como de hombres, debido a que el 65% de la población está integrado por mujeres y el resto por hombres. Para las sesiones de trabajo de la cooperativa se maneja a nivel regional reuniones bimensuales en las que los grupos comunitarios se reúnen a discutir y evaluar los avances y resultados de la organización así como la nueva planeación de sus procesos productivos, de inversión y comercialización.

Gracias al desarrollo organizacional la Cooperativa Agrícola Sanzekan Tinemi, cuenta hoy en día con un mil ocho cientos socios, la Sociedad de Solidaridad Social ha logrado el desarrollo de pequeñas y medianas empresas tanto productoras y comercializadoras, además de contar con una red de artesanos cuyo objetivo es la conservación de recursos genéticos del maguey papalometl o mezcal papalote mariposa, para la elaboración de mezcal, sin dejar de lado los invernaderos de hortalizas y productores de artesanías típicas del estado. La palabra mezcal proviene del nahua de mexcalli de metl maguey e ixca. La historia de la fabricación del mezcal se remonta a la época prehispánica y es con la llegada de los españoles como se lleva a cabo el proceso de destilación.

DIAGNOSTICO

Los entrevistados (sujetos de estudio), son los propios dirigentes campesinos y coordinadores de área de los equipos de trabajo de la propia cooperativa, por su estatus estos representan el 3% del total de la

comunidad. El 90% de la población pre entrevistada fueron varones y el 10% restante son mujeres. La recopilación de datos de primer acercamiento, fue a través del instrumento de cédula de entrevista.

Dentro de esta primera etapa de acercamiento, se pudo observar la estructura Institucional de la Sanzekan Tinemi, la cual está constituida por: una Asamblea General de Socios, que es la autoridad suprema, seguida por El Comité Ejecutivo, que es el órgano de administración y de representación de la Sociedad lo conforman: Presidente, Secretario y Tesorero, (ellos nombran la directiva formada por tres comités: ejecutivo, financiero y de vigilancia). Es el Comité Financiero y de Vigilancia quien ejerce la supervisión de todas las actividades y fiscaliza los actos del Comité Ejecutivo; dando fe de la transparencia del manejo de los recursos monetarios, seguidos por las Comisiones para cada una de las áreas; y por último los Grupos de Trabajo, representando a los miembros de cada comunidad. Los integrantes de estos comités designan a los coordinadores de cada área, quienes a su vez se integran por los equipos técnicos conformados con los grupos familias campesinas y jóvenes de la región, juntos trabajan en las diferentes áreas y empresas de la organización cooperativa SSS.

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ANÁLISIS ECONÓMICO DEL COMERCIO AL POR MENOR EN LA CIUDAD DE MÉRIDA

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ANTECEDENTES

Para comprender el contenido del análisis económico del comercio al por menor y la metodología empleada para la obtención de los elementos que lo integran, se retoman algunos conceptos que facilitaran la comprensión de la información contenida. El primer término que se debe definir para entender el proyecto expuesto es: el análisis. Haciendo una revisión del significado de esta palabra, se encuentra en el Diccionario enciclopédico ilustrado Océano (1991), que un análisis es “la distinción de las partes de un todo hasta llegar a conocer sus principios o elementos”, es decir, estudiar las partes que componen algo para entenderlo. Para continuar, se presentan algunas definiciones de la economía:

Malinvaud (citado por Schettino, 2002), define a la economía como: Ciencia que estudia de qué manera los recursos escasos son empleados para la satisfacción de las necesidades de los hombres en sociedad; por una parte, está interesada en las operaciones esenciales de la producción, distribución y consumo de los bienes, y por la otra, en las instituciones y actividades cuyo objeto es facilitar estas operaciones (pág. 3-4). Stonier y Hague (citados por Rosetti, 1985, p.25), establecen que la economía “es el estudio de la escasez y de los problemas que de ella se derivan”.

Retomando las definiciones anteriores se puede resumir que la economía es la ciencia social que estudia a las empresas y la forma en que estas pueden afrontar la escasez para su desarrollo. Según Méndez (2008): La economía mexicana está formada por el conjunto de actividades económicas que conducen a la producción de bienes y servicios. El conjunto de actividades productivas del país se divide en tres sectores económicos, que a su vez están integrados por varias ramas productivas (pág. 31). Estas se diversifican en sector agropecuario (sector primario), el sector industrial (sector secundario) y el sector servicios (sector terciario). El sector servicios está integrado por las ramas de comercio, transporte, comunicaciones, restaurantes y hoteles. Muchos autores indican que el comercio es el proceso de compra y venta de productos, tal es el caso de Zorrilla (2005, p.110), que expresa que el comercio es “la actividad económica que se encarga de la adquisición de los bienes para proceder a su venta”.

Méndez (2008, p.192), dice que el comercio “consiste en la compraventa de mercancías y servicios”.

De acuerdo con Zorrilla (2005, p.111), “el comercio admite una amplia clasificación para estudiarlo en forma interna (nacional), y externa (comercio internacional)”. De manera nacional, Zorrilla indica que se clasifica en comercio al por mayor y al por menor. Cabe mencionar que el presente documento está enfocado al comercio al por menor en la ciudad de Mérida. El Sistema de Clasificación Industrial de América del Norte (SCIAN, 2002), indica que: Los comercios al por menor tienen una o más de las siguientes características: atraen clientes por la ubicación y diseño del establecimiento; tienen extensa exhibición de mercancías para facilitar a los clientes la selección de las mismas; y hacen publicidad masiva por medio de volantes, prensa, radio, televisión, etcétera (pág. 256).

El SCIAN (2002, p.256), agrupa en este sector a las empresas dedicadas a “la compra venta (sin transformación) de bienes de consumo final para ser vendidos a personas y hogares, así como unidades económicas dedicadas solamente a una parte de este proceso (la compra o la venta)”. En los conceptos

presentados, expresa en repetidas ocasiones el término empresa, lo que implica la necesidad de definir su significado, Méndez (1990, p.6) la determina como “la unidad básica de producción”, además de representar “un tipo de organización económica que se dedica a cualquiera de las actividades económicas fundamentales en alguna de las ramas productivas de los sectores económicos”. Las empresas son clasificadas de acuerdo a varios criterios, Méndez (1990), dice que las empresas son clasificadas de acuerdo a su tamaño, origen y su capital. Para este reporte se contemplará la clasificación de acuerdo a su tamaño, debido a que el Directorio Estadístico Nacional de Unidades Económicas (DENUE), emplea esta clasificación en las empresas incluidas en su base de datos y de ahí se selecciona las que se usaran para el estudio. El Instituto Nacional de Estadística, Geografía e Informática (INEGI, 2004) aclara que: La clasificación por tamaño de empresa en micro, pequeña y mediana, según los criterios publicados en el Diario Oficial de la Federación en diciembre del 2002, se puede hacer con base en los datos censales. Estos criterios establecen diferentes tamaños de empresas en función del personal ocupado y las actividades que desarrollan, ya sean de manufacturas, comercio o servicios.
(http://www.inegi.org.mx/est/contenidos/espanol/proyectos/censos/ce2004/pdfs/CT_PyMES.pdf)

El INEGI (2004), dice que “para la industria, el comercio y los servicios, las microempresas son aquellas que tienen hasta 10 personas ocupadas; después de este rango, el tamaño de la empresa varía según el sector económico que se trate”. En el caso del sector comercial, indica que las pequeñas empresas tiene de 11 a 30 personas laborando en ella, en el caso de las medianas empresas ocupan de 31 a 100 personas y las grandes empresas más de 101. En cuanto al personal que integra a cada una de estas empresas, se les considera como población económicamente activa (PEA). Méndez (2007, p.34), menciona que la PEA “es aquella que aporta su trabajo a la economía del país” y que lo conforman “el conjunto de personas mayores de 12 años que tiene una ocupación remunerada en el momento del censo”. Y Espadas (1997) afirma que el concepto de PEA deriva de disposiciones legales, cuando hace mención de que: Este concepto establecía que la edad mínima de trabajo eran los 12 años..., porque se suponía que era la edad en la que los niños salían de la escuela primaria. Por otro lado, la edad máxima era de los 65 años, que de acuerdo a las leyes laborales era la edad en la que una persona podía jubilarse..., y tener una hora de trabajo remunerado (pág. 187).

Espadas (1997, p.46), enfatiza que “la estabilidad social y política de un país son condiciones necesarias para la realización de las actividades encaminadas hacia el desarrollo económico del mismo” y afirma que “sin esa condición, los esfuerzos por desarrollar la economía se ven fácilmente truncados. La economía requiere de esfuerzos permanentes acumulativos que no se pueden dar en situaciones de conflicto”. Para entender el significado del desarrollo económico, se cita a Méndez (2007, p.47), que lo define como “proceso mediante el cual los países pasan de un estado atrasado en su economía a un estado avanzado”, es decir, mejora nivel de vida de sus habitantes.

CONTEXTO

La Universidad tecnológica Metropolitana, organismo educativo además de ofrecer servicios de formación superior, tiene iniciativas de investigación y desarrollo de innovaciones, en los cuales pretende contribuir al crecimiento de la economía local y nacional. Actualmente se lleva a cabo el proyecto denominado “Factores económicos que inciden en la movilidad territorial laboral a la ciudad de Mérida y Umán de la zona Metropolitana del Estado de Yucatán”. Este proyecto, responde a la Convocatoria 2009-07 del área social y económica (Convocatoria Especial de Estudios Metropolitanos del Estado de Yucatán), emitida por Comité Técnico y de Administración del Fondo Mixto de Fomento a la

Investigación Científica y Tecnológica CONACYT-Gobierno del Estado de Yucatán, y del cual se desprende la presente investigación realizada en la ciudad de Mérida.

El estado de Yucatán con 106 municipios que lo integra, alberga a la ciudad de Mérida (Capital del Estado) que se ubica al noreste de la Península a 9m sobre el nivel del mar colindando con los municipios de Progreso, Chicxulub, Abalá, Tecoh, Timucuy, Conkal, Kanasín, Umán, Ucú y Tixpeual. Con mano de obra disponible y una ubicación estratégica para la salida e ingreso de productos al estado. Yucatán y por lo tanto su capital, son los lugares indicados para el comercio y más actividades económicas que se llevan a cabo en ellas. Tal y como afirma Montalvo (1997, p.51), “Mérida ha sido la ciudad más importante del sureste de México. Comparada con las capitales de sus estados vecinos, ha contado con mayor población, mejor infraestructura y equipamiento urbano”. Durante mucho tiempo el estado explotó la industria henequenera, tanto que la estructura económica y social del estado llegó a girar en torno a ella, y que propició establecer otras actividades para mantener la economía local. Debido a lo anterior, se hizo intentos por diversificar la producción agropecuaria para impulsar la inversión privada y la creación de empleos, sin embargo la mayoría de los capitales privados permanecieron las ciudades en actividades comerciales, al turismo, especulación de terrenos y propiedades inmobiliarias. A mediados de los sesenta y después de varias pruebas para la creación de otras actividades, se crea la empresa paraestatal Cordemex y la llamada industria de la construcción, las cuales causaron un reajuste en la economía estatal. Durante ese tiempo los gobiernos federales y estatales desarrollaron diversas acciones para impulsar la industrialización lo que provocó que se modificara la estructura económica tradicional de la entidad y el espacio urbano de Mérida. Se crea una ciudad Industrial a las afueras de la capital y de 1975 a 1982 las actividades comerciales se fueron incrementando constantemente. En este lapso el número de establecimientos comerciales se duplicaron y de manera más notable, el número del personal fue más del doble.

DESARROLLO

El trabajo comenzó con la ubicación de establecimientos clasificados en el sector terciario de la rama 0046 comercio al por menor en la ciudad de Mérida y que incluyó la dirección y teléfono. Para la ubicación de las empresas se utilizó el Directorio Estadístico Nacional de Unidades Económicas del INEGI y el directorio local “Sección Amarilla”. Antes de visitar a las empresas seleccionadas, se impartió una breve introducción del proyecto en el que se trabajó y de la estructura que contenía el instrumento de recopilación de datos, con el fin de aclarar las dudas que pudiesen encontrarse en la aplicación de las encuestas. Esta revisión tuvo como resultado la modificación del instrumento en algunos apartados, en los que también se precisó la forma en la cual se debía cuestionar cada enunciado plasmado en la encuesta del empleado y empresario (también se puede aplicar a gerentes de recursos humanos de la empresa, inclusive a gerentes o encargados de sucursal).

Después de la revisión se procedió a realizar las citas correspondientes con las empresas seleccionadas para la investigación, algunas de forma personal y otras por vía telefónica. En la investigación realizada se encontró en el INEGI (2010), que la población económicamente activa nacional (PEA), es de 47'137,757 personas y solamente 44'651,832 se encuentran ocupadas, y los distribuye de la siguiente manera:

Tabla 1: Distribución de la PEA nacional, según el sector

Sector Agropecuario (Sector primario)	Sector industrial (Sector secundario)	Sector servicios (Sector terciario)
5'899,290	10'594,481	27'860,436

Y según estadísticas del INEGI (2009), la PEA en el estado de Yucatán corresponde a 881,855 personas y de ellas 857,005 están ocupadas en los sectores de actividad económica:

Tabla 2: Distribución de la PEA estatal, según el sector

Sector Agropecuario (Sector primario)	Sector industrial (Sector secundario)	Sector servicios (Sector terciario)
96,854	244,997	514,547

De estas, el sector terciario, deja en claro el poder de una captación mayor de PEA. Sin embargo, al consultar más a detalle el anuario estadístico del INEGI (2009), se encuentra que la rama del comercio, incluida en el sector servicios, ocupa a 158,620 personas, por debajo de la industria manufacturera que tiene ocupada a 161,169 que se ubica en el sector secundario. La Secretaria Fomento Económico (SEFOE, 2008), expresa que los sectores que destacan en la economía del estado de Yucatán son las industrias manufactureras, la construcción y el comercio.

La SEFOE (2008), indica en su portal de Internet que: El sector comercio es el que más aporta al producto interno bruto estatal (PIB), sin embargo, por su contribución a la generación de empleo y su aportación al valor agregado, el sector industrial podría considerarse el más fuerte de Yucatán y dentro de éste, la industria manufacturera y la industria de la construcción, las cuales tienen un elevado efecto multiplicador en los demás sectores económicos (<http://www.sefoe.yucatan.gob.mx/esp/yucatan/sectores-productivosAct.php>). Para mejor entendimiento, Parkin (2006, p.434), define el PIB como “el valor de mercado de los bienes y servicios finales producidos en un país durante un periodo”. Es por ello, que el proyecto en desarrollo considera importante analizar cada uno de los elementos que integran al sector, para determinar las que deben mejorarse para su fortalecimiento y consolidar al sector del comercio al por menor. El proyecto pretende mostrar el comportamiento actual de los factores económicos del comercio al por menor y la importancia que estos dan al desarrollo de los negocios establecidos en la ciudad de Mérida. Esto generó un mayor interés para la obtención de la información en el estudio de campo, y determinar de igual manera, las condiciones en las que los trabajadores se encuentran laborando.

Conclusiones preliminares Entre las conclusiones generadas en el proceso, una muy importante es que el sector comercial a pesar de que es uno de los que más aportan al PIB estatal, no es el que más empleos genera. En cuanto a las micro empresas, es que a pesar de que son las empresas más estables, son las que tienen menos capacidad de contratar personal que provengan de zonas muy alejadas del lugar de trabajo, es decir, que por mucho que se mencione que son las que tienen la mayor captación de personal no contratan a gente del interior del estado. Además de que la gran mayoría de estas empresas son familiares, lo que implica no tener que contratar personal. Las pequeñas empresas, por la gran expansión que tienen estas, tomando de referencia a sus sucursales, éstas no tienen la necesidad de contratar personal de fuera por que las personas del interior se acomodan en las que se encuentran más cercanas a su lugar de origen o el lugar donde habitan. Sin embargo, no descartan la posibilidad de contratar personal proveniente de otros municipios del estado. Las medianas y grandes empresas, tienen la capacidad suficiente para reclutar

personal del interior, mas no quiere decir que ellas tengan al mayor número de personal empleado. Algunas de estas empresas, establecen entre sus políticas la abstención de reclutar personal que no esté cercano al establecimiento. En cuanto al aspecto económico, las empresas micro, se puede concluir diciendo que su estabilidad económica, se basa a que ellas no cuentan con tantas responsabilidades financieras, como por ejemplo, los sueldos por que el personal que maneja es mínimo, inclusive algunas ni contratan por que no encuentran la necesidad y por consiguiente no tienen que generar prestaciones de ley. Hasta se puede afirmar que la mayoría de estas micro empresas son fuentes de empleo para su mismos inversionistas y debido eso ellos mismos toman el rol de empleados.

Las pequeñas empresas, en este contexto, tienen un problema completamente contrario, ya que tienen una rotación de personal extrema y eso les complica situaciones legales, como por ejemplo las altas en el seguro social y sueldos. Además de establecerse en zonas de confort y no tomar iniciativas de expansión. Los datos que se pudieron captar en la recopilación de información, en torno a la educación, del personal establecido en el comercio al por menor en la ciudad de Mérida, es que la gran mayoría son jóvenes que llegan a la ciudad provenientes tanto de los municipios que colindan en el centro del estado, como los de otras entidades. La mayoría de ellos apenas y cuentan con un nivel de educación primaria o secundaria, que llegan con los motivos de continuar sus estudios y mejorar sus servicios, sin embargo, ellos externan que debido a las ausencia de facilidades que otorgan las empresas, no pueden mantenerse y estudiar al mismo tiempo, por lo que optan dejar sus estudios para ayudar a su familia.

Una gran parte de los encuestados cuenta con un puesto operativo en una empresa con ingresos equivalentes al salario mínimo o menos. Aquellos que cuentan con estudios de preparatoria y superiores alcanzan puestos administrativos pero no de altos mandos, a pesar de que algunos cuentan con los estudios y preparación suficiente para desempeñarlos, y comentan que esperan su promoción y ocuparlos en futuro. Fueron muy pocos los que pudieron expresar la satisfacción que genera sus actividades. En cuanto a los empresarios y encargados que se entrevistaron, cuentan que las empresas han tenido un crecimiento debido a la actualización constante que tienen internamente en su estructura empresarial y que da como resultado implementar nuevos procesos, capacitaciones y la adquisición de maquinaria. Entre las actividades de innovación destacan las investigaciones que desarrollan con motivo de no excluirse del mercado, como el desarrollo o adquisición de software y la capacitación que requiere para su utilización. Las empresas no toman en cuenta el lugar de origen del personal que contrata, pero si tienen exigencias en sus criterios de admisión, como lo indica el estudio, las empresas utilizan el criterio de nivel de preparación, que concierne, a la gran mayoría, el nivel de preparatoria completa, pero mencionan que a falta de ese nivel optan por contratar personal con nivel menor.

También consideran, que debido a la diversidad cultural con el que cuentan, manejan diversos tipos de capacitación aunque no muy fructíferos, por la indiferencia que tiene el personal en ella. Fue gratificante, el intercambio de opiniones con empresarios con años de experiencia. Se tuvo la fortuna de la participación de ellos. Cabe mencionar que los empresarios tienen muchas maneras de expresarse, pero aquellos que tienen la calidez humana y sensibilidad hacia sus empleados, son lo que llegan a tener mayor éxito, y ellos son los que pueden, de alguna manera, posicionarse en el mercado hasta controlarlo. Recomendaciones Se recomienda la invitación e integración de las empresas en los proyectos que se desarrollan, debido que existen empresarios interesados en estas actividades de investigación para su beneficio y la apertura de nuevos mercados, además de que ellas no lo realizan por la falta de conocimiento acerca de las investigaciones.

El gobierno del estado de Yucatán se encuentra interesado en fomentar el apoyo de manera administrativa, jurídica, operacional y social de todas las empresas que se encuentren interesadas en crecer y desarrollarse más en su campo laboral. Ya se tiene centros de investigación de negocios en varias universidades y tecnológicos que ayudan a fomentar nuevos proyectos de empresarios.



LA COMPETITIVIDAD COMO FACTOR DE DESARROLLO SUSTENTABLE INDICADORES PARA LA EVALUACION DE LA INDUSTRIA MAQUILADORA

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RESUMEN

El objetivo de esta investigación, es proponer un conjunto de indicadores que evalúen el desempeño de la industria maquiladora, bajo un nuevo enfoque de "Competitividad Sustentable". Tomando como sujeto de estudio el sector electrónico de la industria maquiladora de la ciudad de Tijuana, Baja California, México. Implementando una metodología de orden cualitativo y cuantitativo considerando la dimensión internacional y su impacto regional, basada en investigaciones y estudios desarrollados con enfoque en dos modelos establecidos como estándares internacionales. El Modelo de Competitividad Sistémica, desarrollado por la Organización para la Cooperación y Desarrollo Económico (OCDE) y el Modelo PER propuesto por la Organización de las Naciones Unidas (ONU) mediante la CEPAL, y la AGENDA 21. Con los hallazgos obtenidos y analizados de manera cualitativa y correlacional. Nos arrojaron, que del total de las industrias de clase mundial encuestas, establecen sus operaciones bajo estándares internacionales de calidad, sin embargo en cuanto al desarrollo sustentable aplicado a sus procesos y actividades los resultados nos muestran cierta flexibilidad en la aplicación de políticas ambientales.

Palabras clave: Competitividad, Industria Maquiladora, Desarrollo Sustentable.

THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AS FACTOR OF COMPETITIVENESS INDICATORS FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE MAQUILADORA INDUSTRY

ABSTRACT

The objective of this research is to propose a set of indicators to assess the performance of the industry maquiladora, under a new approach of "Sustainable competitiveness". Taking the electronic sector of the city of Tijuana maquila industry as a subject of study, Baja California, Mexico. implementing a methodology of qualitative and quantitative order considering the international dimension and its impact regional, research and studies developed with focus on two models established as standards-based. The model of systemic competitiveness, developed by the Organization for cooperation and economic development (OCDE) and the model PER proposed by the United Nations (UN) through CEPAL, and AGENDA 21. With the findings obtained and analyzed qualitative and correlational manner. Threw us that class industries total global surveys, establishing its operations under international standards of quality, however with regard to sustainable development applied to their processes and activities results show some flexibility in the implementation of environmental policies.

JEL:L60,L63,M14,O14,P48,P52,Q01,Q28,Q57,R58

KEYWORDS: Competitiveness, Maquiladora Industry, sustainable development.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Esta investigación se enfoca en la industria maquiladora, específicamente en el sector electrónico, debido a sus características específicas de producción, origina una gran demanda de materia prima, recursos naturales y de servicios públicos, lo que se traduce en una gran presión ambiental, especialmente en la frontera norte con Estados Unidos y la ciudad de Tijuana Baja California, México; por tener establecidas el mayor número de industrias de clase mundial de este sector que son un eje impulsor del desarrollo económico local.

EL objetivo de esta investigación, es proponer un conjunto de indicadores de evaluación, que refleje en materia de competitividad su desempeño e impacto con el desarrollo sustentable, destacando la importancia de vincular la competitividad de la industria maquiladora con el desarrollo sustentable de sus operaciones, bajo un enfoque de *“competitividad sustentable”*.

El desarrollo de esta investigación esta soportado por un estudio, basado en dos tipos de modelos establecidos internacionalmente; el modelo de Competitividad Sistémica, propuesto por la OCDE, y el modelo PER, propuesto por la ONU, mediante la CEPAL y la AGENDA 21, para el establecimiento de indicadores de desarrollo sustentable para medir el impacto al medio ambiente y el uso y preservación de los recursos naturales de las naciones.

Se adopto una metodología exploratoria, descriptiva, de orden cualitativo, mediante la estructura y aplicación de un cuestionario con un total de 117 ítems, clasificados en cuatro segmentos, dirigido exclusivamente a los directivos de las industrias de clase mundial, donde la información obtenida de los factores de competitividad, fue analizada y evaluada en conjunto con los indicadores, políticas, normas y reglamentos en materia de sustentabilidad y cuidado del medio ambiente, establecidos bajo las normas y leyes mexicanas. Con información y datos estadísticos obtenidos de la Secretaría de Economía (SE) del gobierno del Estado de Baja California, del Instituto nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI), y de la Asociación de Industriales de Mesa de Otay (AIMO).

Una vez que se determinaron los resultados, se obtienen las bases para el análisis y diagnóstico de los factores que determinan la competitividad y sustentabilidad de las actividades y procesos de las industrias de clase mundial. Finalmente, se presentan los hallazgos, conclusiones y propuestas para futuras investigaciones.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Se construye con base en dos modelos internacionales, el primero, Modelo de Competitividad Sistémica, desarrollado bajo los enfoques micro, macro, meso y meta que destacan los factores de la competitividad internacional, implementado por la (Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (1992) y el segundo, modelo PER (presión-estado-respuesta) implementado por la ONU, a través de la CEPAL (1990), como indicadores basados en la causalidad: donde las actividades humanas ejercen (presión) sobre el medio ambiente, modificando la calidad y cantidad de los recursos naturales (estado), donde la sociedad responde a estos cambios, mediante la propuesta y establecimiento de políticas medioambientales, económicas y sectoriales (respuesta). Y la AGENDA 21, establecida como un programa para desarrollar la sostenibilidad a nivel planeta, aprobado por 173 gobiernos en la Conferencia de las Naciones Unidas sobre Medio Ambiente y Desarrollo, celebrada en Río de Janeiro en 1992. Abarca

en sus capítulos, aspectos económicos, sociales y culturales, así como relativos a la protección del medio ambiente. En su capítulo 28 anima a las comunidades locales a crear su propia versión, una AGENDA 21 Local. Gran parte de los objetivos de la AGENDA 21 dependen casi en exclusiva del papel de las comunidades locales. Es decir, de las decisiones, actitudes y comportamientos de los ciudadanos y autoridades locales. Estas últimas se ocupan de la creación, el funcionamiento y el mantenimiento de la infraestructura económica, social y ecológica, supervisan los procesos de planificación, establecen las políticas y reglamentaciones ecológicas locales y contribuyen a la ejecución de las políticas ambientales en los planos nacional e internacional. Gracias a su cercanía a los ciudadanos, desempeñan una función importantísima en la educación y movilización de la ciudadanía en pro del desarrollo sostenible.

Importancia del Sector Electrónico

A nivel mundial, la industria electrónica se ha transformado en un sector altamente globalizado y estratégico, ya que participa en los procesos de producción de productos fabricados, que van desde la industria juguetera hasta la automotriz y electrodomésticos.

La dinámica e importancia desarrolladas por el sector electrónico ha estimulado importantes flujos de comercio a nivel mundial. Durante la década de los noventa, el comercio de productos electrónicos mostró el mayor nivel de crecimiento, comparado con otros sectores manufactureros, alcanzando tasas promedio anuales de 12.1%. Casi el doble de otros sectores tradicionales como textil y vestido, automotriz y químico.

De acuerdo a las estadísticas de la Organización Mundial de Comercio (OMC), la industria electrónica representó un 15.1% del total de las operaciones del comercio mundial en el año 2009. A partir de la firma del Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte (TLCAN), en México, las empresas maquiladoras de exportación son una fuente generadora de divisas para el país, sin excluir el número de empleos que ha generado sobre todo en los estados fronterizos y la capacitación constante al personal que labora en ellas.

La dinámica que ha mostrado la Industria Maquiladora de Exportación en México, obedece a la demanda creciente de los mercados externos, y a los resultados de la política económica interna, que ha impulsado la creación de enclaves industriales para la exportación; asimismo, esta dinámica se ha visto reforzada por la instrumentación de un programa fiscal, aduanero y administrativo de acuerdo a estudios del Consejo Nacional de la Industria Maquiladora y Manufacturera de Exportación, A.C. (2009).

El Estado de Baja California ocupa el primer lugar a escala nacional en número de empresas maquiladoras dedicadas a la electrónica, el indicador de empleo constituye también el primer lugar entre los estados de la frontera norte, comprendida por Baja California, Sonora, Coahuila, Chihuahua, Nuevo León y Tamaulipas. Donde la participación de la industria electrónica se encuentra concentrada principalmente en los municipios de Tijuana, con un 60.5%; Mexicali, con un 21.6%; Tecate con 10.8% y Ensenada y Rosarito con el 7%, (fuente: Secretaría de Economía, del Gobierno del Estado, 2008).

Modelo de Competitividad Sistémica

Klaus Esser (1994), establece un modelo denominado "competitividad sistémica" que constituye un marco de referencia para países tanto industrializados como en vías desarrollo. La visión de mediano a largo plazo y la intensa interacción entre los actores no debe encaminarse únicamente a optimizar potenciales de eficiencia en los diferentes niveles del sistema, movilizand

creatividad con el fin de desarrollar ventajas competitivas nacionales. Ello ocurre porque ningún país puede escoger a su antojo particular políticas o elementos de competitividad a partir del juego de determinantes (niveles del sistema e instrumental de conducción). Los países más competitivos cuentan con: Estructuras que promueven la competitividad desde el nivel meta, un contexto macro que presiona a las empresas para que mejoren su rendimiento, un espacio meso estructurado en el que el Estado y los actores sociales negocian las necesarias políticas de apoyo e impulsan la formación social de estructuras. Numerosas empresas en el nivel micro que, todas a la vez, procuran alcanzar eficiencia, calidad, flexibilidad y rapidez de reacción y están en buena parte articuladas en redes colaborativas. Los cuatro conceptos anteriores son llamados "los cuatro niveles de la competitividad sistémica" y se presentan bajo el siguiente modelo.

Tabla 1: Modelo de Competitividad Sistémica

<i>Nivel</i>	<i>Características</i>
Meta	Se refiere a la capacidad de organización por parte de todos los actores, para canalizar los conocimientos sociales, que permitan a su vez regular y conducir correctamente, tanto a nivel macro como micro los intereses del futuro. Que permitan cohesionar esfuerzos para generar ventajas nacionales de innovación y conocimiento, es decir el desarrollo de habilidades y conocimientos de la sociedad encaminados a la competencia. Es decir, una formación social de estructuras que permitan la modernización de la economía.
Macro	Se refiere a las variables macroeconómicas y su estabilización, para poder competir en el mercado mundial, pues su inestabilidad no permite operar eficientemente el mercado nacional y limita el crecimiento de la economía. La estabilización macroeconómica tiene que apoyarse sobre todo en una reforma de la política fiscal. Y la presupuestaria, así como también de la monetaria y cambiaria, con el fin último de mantener un equilibrio en todo el sistema económico de manera sostenible que permita el éxito en el mercado mundial.
Meso	Se considera el desarrollo de políticas que fomenten la formación de estructuras y apoyo específico hacia aquellas industrias o empresas líderes en el mercado nacional, así como también formar y apoyar aquellas empresas que consideren que puede alcanzar a los líderes o la formación de competidores. Dentro de este nivel se considera lo nacional y regional o local, pues son procesos distintos pero no por ello no interconectados. Dichas políticas están encaminadas a desarrollar la infraestructura física e inmaterial —como son las carretas, transportes etc., y la educación— tanto en el ámbito nacional, como local o regional, delegando poder de decisión para formar la infraestructura necesaria que permita un desarrollo con respecto al espacio territorial, a través de ventajas competitivas, sin perder de vista la dirección nacional de desarrollo.
Micro	Se identifican factores que condicionan el comportamiento de la empresa, como productividad, los costos, los esquemas de organización, la innovación con tecnologías, la gestión empresarial, el tamaño de empresa, etc. Siendo los indicadores de la productividad del trabajo y el capital la calidad, la flexibilidad y la rapidez.

En esta tabla se describen los diferentes enfoques del modelo de competitividad sistémica, que representan las bases teóricas de esta investigación.

Agenda 21

Es un programa creado por la Organización las Naciones Unidas (ONU), para promover el desarrollo sostenible. Es un plan detallado de acciones que deben cumplirse a nivel mundial, nacional y local por entidades integrantes de la ONU, por los gobiernos de sus estados, y por grupos y organizaciones de todas las áreas, donde ocurran impactos humanos sobre el medio ambiente. Es una lista detallada de asuntos que requieren atención, organizada cronológicamente, y se denomina 21 por que hace referencia al siglo XXI. La Agenda 21 ha tenido un estrecho seguimiento a partir del cual se han desarrollado ajustes y revisiones.

Primero, con la conferencia denominada Rio + 5, se llevó a cabo en junio de 1997, en la sede de la ONU en Nueva York; posteriormente con la adopción de una agenda complementaria denominada Objetivos de desarrollo del Milenio (*Millennium Development Goals*), con énfasis particular en las políticas de globalización y en la erradicación de la pobreza y el hambre, adoptadas por 199 países en la 55ª Asamblea de la ONU, celebrada en Nueva York en septiembre del 2000. Y finalmente se consolida en la cumbre de Johannesburgo en el 2002.

Los temas fundamentales de la AGENDA 21 están tratados en 40 capítulos organizados en cuatro secciones, que a continuación se presenta.

Tabla 2: Agenda 21

Sección	Capítulo
I	Dimensiones Sociales y Económicas
II	Conservación y Manejo de Recursos para el Desarrollo
III	Fortalecimiento del papel de los grupos sociales
IV	Medios de Ejecución

Esta tabla nos muestra los cuatro segmentos de la estructura de la Agenda 21. Fuente: elaboración propia.

Modelo PER (presión - estado - respuesta)

El modelo PER propuesto por la OCDE (1993), es un método para la derivación de los indicadores sobre las presiones humanas sobre el ambiente, el estado ambiental de los ecosistemas y las respuestas individuales e institucionales a los retos ambientales que se presentan. La lógica de este modelo es que las actividades humanas ejercen presión sobre el ambiente, las cuales inducen cambios en el estado de los ecosistemas. Ante esto, las sociedades humanas responden a través de políticas ambientales, económicas y programas para reducir, prevenir o mitigar el deterioro ambiental, mediante indicadores que reflejan de manera integral, la estructura de las organizaciones y su participación en el mejoramiento del medio ambiente.

El Modelo PER tiene la ventaja de destacar estas relaciones, proporcionando al público en general y a los tomadores de decisiones una visión integrada del ambiente y otros aspectos interconectados. De acuerdo con el propósito para el cual el modelo PER es usado, este puede ser ajustado para mayor detalle o para incorporar algunos aspectos específicos. Un ejemplo es el modelo Fuerza directriz- Estado- Respuesta (Driving force- State- Response) empleado por la Comisión de Desarrollo Sustentable de las Naciones Unidas o bien, el marco utilizado para indicadores sectoriales por la Organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico y el modelo Fuerzas directrices- Estado- Impacto- Respuesta (Driving force- State- Impact- Response) manejado por la Agencia Internacional Europea. Para establecer el modelo de un problema ambiental dado, el esquema P-E-R identifica tres aspectos básicos: las presiones que recibe el ambiente, la situación del estrato ambiental afectado y la respuesta de la sociedad.

Los indicadores de *presión* describen las presiones que las actividades humanas ejercen en el ambiente, incluyendo los recursos naturales. Considera las presiones indirectas que se refiere a las actividades

económicas en sí mismas y las directas, es decir, uso de recursos, descargas de contaminantes y generación de residuos. Los indicadores de *estado* describen tanto la calidad del ambiente como la condición y cantidad de los recursos naturales. Ellos reflejan el objetivo último de las políticas ambientales. Estos indicadores están diseñados para dar una visión general de la situación del ambiente y sus tendencias temporales. Los indicadores de *respuesta* muestran como la sociedad responde a los aspectos ambientales.

Tabla 3: Modelo PER

Indicadores	actividad	Acciones públicas o privadas
Presión	Presiones que las actividades humanas ejercen en el ambiente.	Mitigar o prevenir los efectos negativos de las actividades humanas en el medio ambiente.
Estado	Describen la calidad y condición de los recursos naturales.	Detener o revertir el daño ambiental ya producido.
Respuesta	Muestran la respuesta a los aspectos ambientales.	Prevenir o conservar los recursos naturales.

La tabla describe los indicadores de medición de las políticas ambientales y las acciones tomadas establecidas para el cuidado del medio ambiente. Fuente: elaboración propia.

METODOLOGÍA

Esta investigación está enfocada a una metodología con carácter cualitativo, con enfoque exploratorio, descriptivo, correlacional. El fundamento para emplear este tipo de investigación radica en el argumento de Hill y Mc. Gowans (1999) que sugieren que la investigación en las empresas puede ser realizada de mejor manera a través de un acercamiento cualitativo que incluye la observación participativa, estudios de caso, entrevistas a profundidad y la aplicación de cuestionarios. Describiendo su desarrollo a continuación.

Cualitativa. En el marco de la observación, se estudiaron a las industrias maquiladoras del sector electrónico de la ciudad de Tijuana, Baja California, y se analizaron las características cualitativas que distinguen a las empresas de clase mundial establecidas en la localidad.

Exploratoria. Por ser un tema de carácter relevante para la industria maquiladora y donde en la actualidad se encuentran pocos estudios realizados al respecto.

Descriptiva. Se llevo a cabo el estudio y análisis descriptivo de las variables dependientes de la investigación: competitividad y desarrollo sustentable y los factores que determinan cada una de las variables, bajo un enfoque con estándares internacionales de aplicación.

Correlacional. Esta investigación pretende vincular la variable competitividad con la variable de desarrollo sustentable. Con la finalidad de proponer un conjunto de indicadores de competitividad y desarrollo sustentable, para evaluar el sector electrónico de la industria maquiladora, bajo un enfoque de “competitividad sustentable”.

Determinación de la muestra

Para determinar el universo, que será base de nuestra investigación, se eligió una muestra de tipo no probabilista o dirigida, con características de orden cualitativo, obedeciendo los criterios que arrojan los datos analizados, presentados por la Secretaria de Economía (SEDECO) y el directorio de la Industria

Maquiladora publicado en julio 2010, se seleccionó solo a las industrias caracterizadas como de clase mundial. Tomando como referencia para la selección de la muestra a Hernández Sampieri (2010), por tener una amplia experiencia referencial en materia de estructura para la obtención del tamaño de la muestra.

Tabla 4: determinación de la muestra

<i>etapas</i>	<i>Desarrollo</i>	<i>Total de industrias</i>
Universo	Se realizó una selección de las industrias de clase mundial del sector electrónico establecidas en el estado de Baja California.	122 = 100%
Selección de la unidad de análisis sujeto de la investigación	Se determinó el número de industrias del sector electrónico, establecidas en la ciudad de Tijuana, B.C.	84 = 68.84%
Determinación y selección de la muestra	Se seleccionaron solo a las empresas de clase mundial, del sector electrónico de la ciudad de Tijuana, B.C.	10 = 11.9%

En esta tabla se muestra el proceso de selección que se llevó a cabo para determinar la muestra sujeto de investigación. Fuente: elaboración propia.

RESULTADOS

Se presentan los hallazgos de esta investigación, mismos que se obtuvieron a partir de la identificación de las incidencias que existen entre los factores propuestos de evaluación y los aplicados por las industrias del sector electrónico de clase mundial.

Factores de competitividad de la industria del sector electrónico que en los hallazgos se encontraron incidencias.

Países a los que exporta: Los hallazgos obtenidos, nos muestran una clara coincidencia de las industrias hacia los países dominantes de sus exportaciones, siendo el principal Estados Unidos, donde todas las industrias exportan (10), seguido de Canadá (3), Europa (3), Japón (2) y Alemania (1) las industrias encuestadas.

País de origen de la inversión: Los hallazgos nos muestran que predomina el país de Japón (con 50%) en cuanto a la inversión extranjera directa (IED), del total de las industrias encuestadas, seguido de Estados Unidos con el 40% de IED, y Corea con el 10% de la IED.

Actividad Económica: En los hallazgos, obtuvieron que la actividad primordial el ensamble de productos electrónicos, donde el 40%, de las industrias de este sector, desempeñan como actividad preponderante, seguida por su importancia la de ensamble de televisores de alta calidad, donde la ciudad de Tijuana es importante productor y exportador de pantallas con LED, HD, 3D.

Certificaciones y acreditaciones: En los resultados obtenidos, se observa que en su totalidad, las industrias del sector electrónico de clase mundial, se encuentran certificadas por las normas de estándares de calidad ISO 9001, ISO 14001 estándares de medio ambiente, el 90% de las empresas cuenta con la certificación CBP-T/TPAT, para certificación de transporte de carga y la certificación de STPS/SASST-ES de seguridad y trabajo social.

Nivel de estudios de los directivos entrevistados: Los hallazgos de los resultados nos muestran que los directivos de las industrias de clase mundial del sector electrónico, cuentan con un nivel de posgrado el

90%, y un posicionamiento como líderes por la antigüedad que han acumulado en estas empresas, bajo su cargo.

En el Nivel Micro

En los hallazgos nos indican que las empresas encuestadas, cuentan con los niveles de certificación organizacional y manejan estándares de calidad y competitividad internacional.

El nivel Meso: Los hallazgos nos muestran que la infraestructura industrial es adecuada, según los directivos encuestados, y el 100% de las empresas cuenta con proveedores certificados, y determinan que la ciudad cuenta con infraestructura y logística para el establecimiento de este sector industrial.

El Nivel Macro: Los hallazgos nos determinan que el entorno político no es de todo favorable para este sector industrial, que sin embargo este sector es un fuerte detonador del desarrollo económico y generador de empleo. Coinciden los directivos en que la seguridad pública, no es la adecuada para el desarrollo de la región y de sus habitantes.

El Nivel Meta: Los resultados, que el puesto de los directivos debe de tener habilidades tanto de comunicación y liderazgo, así como primordialmente los conocimientos profesionales para este cargo. De igual manera los gerentes evalúan y fomentan las competencias de los empleados.

Indicadores de Desarrollo Sustentable que los hallazgos incidieron con el desempeño de las industrias.

Factor Económico: Los hallazgos nos muestran de manera contundente que las industrias de clase mundial, del sector electrónico cuentan con políticas y metas ambientales, vinculadas al desarrollo económico, bajo esquemas de aseguramiento de la calidad, con las certificaciones de ISO 14001, auditoría ambiental, establecidas por la Profepa y la introducción de tecnologías limpias para sus procesos productivos, del mismo modo fomentan el uso sustentable de los materiales y servicios.

Factor Social: Los hallazgos nos muestran que las industrias de clase mundial, establecen políticas de valores, acordes con la misión y visión de las empresas, fomentan el desarrollo de los empleados, y su participación en la comunidad, generando un ambiente de bienestar laboral.

Factor Ambiental: Los hallazgos, nos muestran que el establecimiento de estas industrias, del sector electrónico, son generadoras de contaminación y de residuos peligrosos, sin embargo los hallazgos también nos arrojan que estas industrias están preocupadas por el medio ambiente, manteniendo monitoreos y controles estrictos de sus materiales y desechos contaminantes, así como del retorno de los mismos al país de origen. Se encontró también que aplican medidas de reciclaje y consumo de agua, como políticas de sustentabilidad ambiental. Lo que coincide con los indicadores propuestos por esta investigación.

CONCLUSIONES

Con base a la investigación realizada y en los hallazgos cualitativos resultado de las entrevistas y encuesta aplicada a los directivos de las industrias maquiladoras del sector electrónico de clase mundial, con el fin de identificar los factores que vinculan la competitividad con el desarrollo sustentable, aplicados en sus

actividades y procesos productivos. A continuación se hace la aportación de un nuevo conjunto de indicadores para evaluar al sector electrónico de la industria maquiladora, bajo un enfoque de estándares internacionales. Que es fundamentalmente la contribución primordial de esta investigación de acuerdo al objetivo general definido al inicio de este estudio.

Con la instrumentación de esta nueva propuesta de evaluación, se contribuirá a una evaluación adecuada para este sector industrial, que implicará los siguientes beneficios específicos:

1. Una mejor evaluación que refleje las actividades productivas y su desempeño bajo estándares internacionales.
2. Las bases para la toma de decisiones, en la aplicación de políticas y acciones a seguir bajo un esquema de Competitividad y Desarrollo Sustentable.
3. Como base para evaluación de otros sectores industriales.
4. Como base de información y datos, para los sectores de gobierno y los organismos públicos y privados interesados en evaluar al sector electrónico de la industria maquiladora.
5. Contribuyendo como base de referencia para futuras investigaciones.

PROPUESTA DE INVESTIGACIONES

Se recomienda para futuros trabajos de investigación, continuar con estudios sobre la industria maquiladora, analizando:

1. El avance en competitividad y sustentabilidad, del sector electrónico de la industria maquiladora, de la ciudad de Tijuana, tomando como referencia el presente estudio.
2. Indicadores que reflejen el nivel de calidad de vida de los empleados, vinculado al crecimiento económico de la industria maquiladora.
3. El avance en instalaciones e implementación tecnologías y procesos sustentables.

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EL IMPACTO QUE TIENE LA BIBLIOTECA DEL CICESE, EN RELACIÓN CON LA PRODUCTIVIDAD DE LOS INVESTIGADORES DEL DEPARTAMENTO DE ACUICULTURA (DA)

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RESUMEN

El trabajo presenta las tendencias de uso, que los investigadores del DA tienen sobre el material bibliográfico de la biblioteca, cuantifica las referencias consultadas a través de esta biblioteca, que citan en los artículos publicados. La Biblioteca del CICESE cuenta con más de 22,000 títulos de libros, del orden de 120 títulos de revistas, acceso al menos a 560 bases de datos, a lo que se suma el servicio interbibliotecario para atender al personal académico de CICESE, donde el interés en este estudio de caso se enfoca en 13 investigadores del DA. Se presentan estudios similares en otras bibliotecas, como en: Cuba, España, Malasia, Venezuela y México, así como el panorama general del CICESE, su origen, misión, visión y el crecimiento que ha tenido, su estructura organizacional y funcional, la descripción del desarrollo del DA, sus publicaciones. Se incluye también en términos generales, cómo es la distribución de las publicaciones científicas en el mundo y en México. En particular, para el DA se describe la producción científica de los investigadores, los orígenes como departamento y su evolución.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Biblioteca, Investigadores de Acuicultura y Productividad

INTRODUCCIÓN

El objetivo general es conocer las tendencias de uso, que los investigadores del DA tienen sobre el material bibliográfico de ésta biblioteca, además de cuantificar las referencias consultadas a través de esta biblioteca, que citan en los artículos publicados. Por otra parte servirá para generar información en la toma de decisiones presupuestales para la adquisición de material bibliográfico. El planteamiento y análisis de este estudio consideró hacer un diagnóstico de la productividad científica del DA dentro del contexto de servicios bibliotecarios. La importancia que lleva al desarrollo de este estudio, plantea cuantificar la medida en que la Biblioteca del CICESE, apoya al desarrollo de la investigación básica y aplicada que se ve reflejada en el número de publicaciones científicas. La Biblioteca del CICESE cuenta con más de 22,000 títulos de libros, del orden de 120 títulos de revistas, acceso al menos a 560 bases de datos, a lo que se suma el servicio interbibliotecario para atender al personal académico de CICESE, donde el interés en este estudio de caso se enfoca en 13 investigadores del DA.

REVISION LITERARIA

Publicación es uno de los últimos pasos de cualquier investigación científica, previo al debate externo. Los investigadores que iniciaron las publicaciones científicas intercambiaban información por medio de cartas personales entre ellos. Se cuenta con el antecedente de la evaluación de las publicaciones científicas impresas, la cual se dio a partir de 1665 con la publicación del *Journal des Savants* en París y de *Philosophical Transaction of the Royal Society*, en Londres. (Albornoz, 2005). Aunque la evaluación

de revistas académicas se dio principalmente en Estados Unidos y España, en países como Brasil, Colombia, Venezuela y México dio inicio en los años noventas. En 1993 a través de CONACyT (Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología) y por primera vez en nuestro país, se integró un comité de 14 académicos mexicanos expertos en diversas áreas del conocimiento, con la misión de evaluar las revistas científicas mexicanas. En México los investigadores que publican artículos científicos en revistas arbitradas reciben un apoyo económico por medio del Sistema Nacional de Investigadores (SNI) un programa Federal que fomenta el desarrollo científico y tecnológico como estímulo adicional a su salario y de ésta manera se tiene un registro de los avances del quehacer científico en el país.

México: estudiosos en la materia de bibliometría se han puesto a medir el esfuerzo y la repercusión de la actividad científica, para cuantificar el número de documentos publicados en nuestro país, las instituciones que lo generan, los autores, el origen, la nacionalidad, entre otros. Los estudios realizados para medir la productividad científica se basan en la bibliometría, encuestas, entrevistas, estadística; técnicas utilizadas para lograr resultados en cuanto a la producción científica, destacando las siguientes características como: esfuerzos insuficientes, concentración del gasto en sectores de determinado potencial competitivo y predominio de una ciencia académica. En el estudio de la bibliometría, se construyen indicadores de la investigación, por lo tanto las medidas bibliométricas más comunes son las basadas en las publicaciones y en las citas. La cantidad de científicos investigadores y de recursos consignados para ubicar a América Latina a escala mundial, ha aumentado considerablemente, sin embargo sigue siendo precaria la contribución de la región al total mundial, la generación de conocimiento y su manejo no representa mayores logros.

Publicación De Artículos Por Investigadores

En cuanto a la producción científica en México según el Informe General del Estado de la Ciencia y la Tecnología 2005, indica que el número de artículos publicados en México ascendió a 5,885 en 2005, el crecimiento más alto desde 1994. Este incremento destaca en el área de plantas y animales, química y microbiología. Cabe mencionar que dentro del CICESE, se creó la División de Biología Experimental y Aplicada, dada la necesidad en el área, esperando que destaque dentro de poco tiempo con la producción de artículos científicos.

Generales Del CICESE

Para conocer como se encuentra el CICESE este capítulo presenta un panorama general del Centro, su estructura organizacional y de personal. Ver anexo 1. El inicio de sus fundadores que impulsaron su desarrollo, misión, visión, trayectoria de las líneas de investigación. El CICESE es un organismo público descentralizado, creado por decreto presidencial, publicado en el Diario Oficial de la Federación el 18 de septiembre de 1973. Con la expedición de la Ley de Fomento a la Investigación Científica y Tecnológica, el Decreto del Centro fue reestructurado como Centro Público de Investigación sectorizado en el CONACyT según decreto del 29 de agosto del año 2000 y, el 13 de octubre del 2006 fue objeto de una nueva reestructuración para adecuarse a la Ley de Ciencia y Tecnología. Durante sus 33 años de existencia el CICESE, ha mostrado cambios relevantes en su estructura interna, como lo es la apertura de nuevas líneas de investigación: Biotecnología, Microbiología, Biología de la conservación. Programas académicos en Ciencias de la Tierra con opciones nuevas como: Medio Ambiente; Ciencias de la Computación; Maestría en Administración Integral del Ambiente, entre otras, que han generado una gran demanda de requerimientos bibliográficos. El Centro tiene 8 programas de posgrado con maestría y doctorado, los cuales cuentan con el reconocimiento en el Padrón Nacional de Posgrado (PNP) del

CONACyT y están clasificados como posgrados de alto nivel, lo que significa que son posgrados consolidados que han alcanzado ciertos parámetros de calidad y excelencia.

Para este estudio de caso que es el DA adscrito a la División de Oceanología el posgrado en ciencias esta orientado en Acuicultura, Biotecnología Marina y Microbiología, el cual tiene como objetivo principal formar recursos humanos para desarrollar funciones de docencia e investigación científica y tecnológica en el sector público o privado y para incorporarse al sector productivo. El DA esta integrado por 13 investigadores que desarrollan investigación científica y tecnológica en las siguientes líneas: Alimentación y nutrición de organismos acuáticos, Biología y patología de organismos acuáticos, Ecofisiología de organismos acuáticos, Genética de organismos acuáticos y Diseño y desarrollo de organismos acuáticos. En cuanto a los otros programas de posgrado como Ecología Marina; Oceanografía Física; Ciencias de la Computación; Electrónica y Telecomunicaciones; Óptica ; Ciencias de la Tierra, y el posgrado de Física de Materiales en colaboración con la UNAM y la Maestría en Administración Integral del Ambiente con el COLEF (Colegio de la Frontera Norte).

METODOLOGÍA

En cuanto al tipo de investigación, el método aplicado es exploratorio y descriptivo ya que al inicio de este caso de estudio, se tenía en mente conocer el impacto o relevancia que causa la biblioteca para las publicaciones de los investigadores del DA, en otras palabras qué tanto del material era utilizado por los investigadores del DA para que ellos publicaran sus artículos científicos. Se inició la labor exploratoria, encontrando únicamente un reporte técnico del año 2000, lo cual dio la pauta a seguir, se revisó la productividad de cada uno de los 13 investigadores del departamento en la página de Estudios de Posgrado del CICESE, se analizó la bibliografía referenciada en sus publicaciones, se realizó una base de datos con la información obtenida y se corroboró con lo solicitado en el servicio interbibliotecario. En cuanto a la base de datos que se elaboró, con la información de los 264 artículos publicados. Para este estudio de caso se tomó lo registrado como arbitrado, en realidad la publicación total desde 1989 a 2005 fue de 799 artículos, 519 fueron artículos no arbitrados; 4 libros arbitrados, 3 capítulos de libros no arbitrados y 9 capítulos de libros arbitrados

Descripción Del Método De Estudio

El alcance de este método de investigación es descriptivo-exploratorio ya que según los estudios de esta categoría obtienen información de manera independiente con el propósito de describir lo que sucede en la biblioteca del CICESE; como la situación a resolver en este estudio de caso el impacto, relevancia o importancia que tiene la Biblioteca del CICESE, para las publicaciones de los investigadores del DA se trató de formular en forma lo suficientemente concreta como para que pudiera ser resuelta efectivamente por la vía administrativa y lo suficientemente clara como para saber qué datos buscar para resolverla. Se trata de un estudio de caso solucionable en donde se realizó un plan para recolectar y analizar datos corroborándolos y combinándolos entre sí, con la intención de hallar una respuesta a la demanda de libros por el servicio interbibliotecario con la Universidad de San Diego CA. UCSD solicitados por los investigadores del departamento.

Se obtuvo información primaria y secundaria, la primaria fue proporcionada por la Dirección de Estudios de Posgrado cuando se hizo una búsqueda de los 799 artículos científicos publicados por los investigadores del DA. Se revisaron físicamente los artículos que se encontraban en unas cajas en donde precisamente las publicaciones científicas del DA eran las únicas que todavía no tenían orden de los cuales se tomaron 264 artículos arbitrados para este estudio de caso, se buscó en cada artículo cuales fueron sus referencias consultadas y con la información obtenida se elaboró una base de datos, logrando registrar que fueron utilizadas 1,247 revistas, 355 libros, 86 tesis y 93 que quedaron como otros

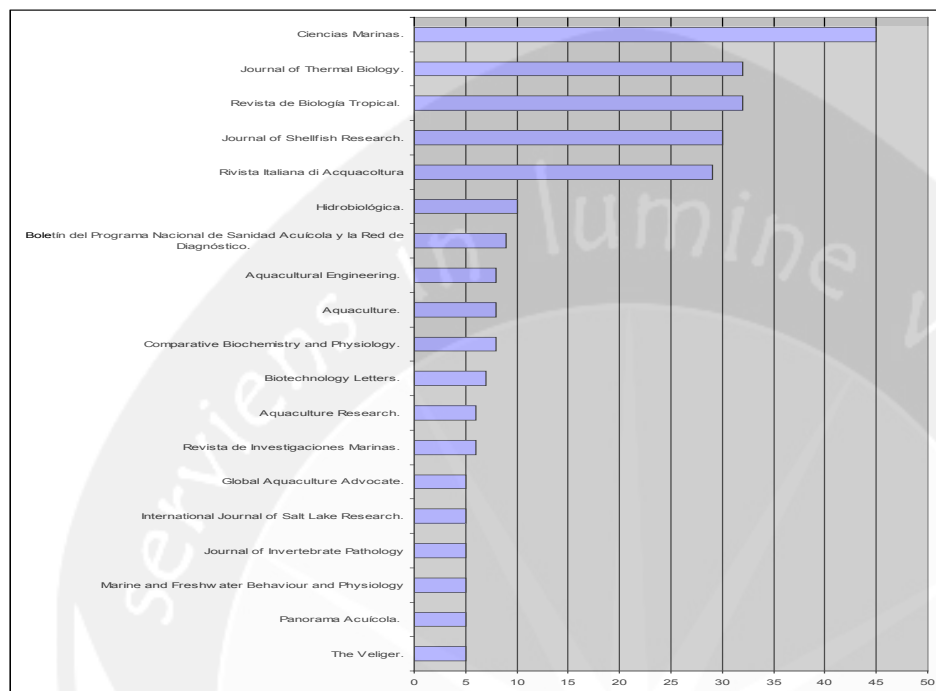
refiriéndose a *symposiums*, conferencias, congresos, talleres, reportes *proceedings*, cursos, informes, seminarios y algunos más. El lugar de la investigación estuvo básicamente dentro de la Biblioteca del CICESE, con entrevistas no estructuradas al personal de la biblioteca. Otra fuente de información fue obtenida de la sección de adquisiciones donde se encuentran los registros estadísticos de cómo a incrementado el acervo año tras año en cada división y departamento, también se utilizó la página de productividad a cargo de la División de Estudios de Posgrado dentro del portal de CICESE, en donde se desglosa la productividad por departamento y por investigador, siendo estudio de caso el DA. Hernández Sampieri, 1990, dice que según la finalidad que persiga el científico, las investigaciones pueden ser exploratorias – descriptivas. Se entiende como investigación exploratoria cuando se busca información sobre algún tema o problema por resultar relativamente desconocido o nuevo como este estudio de caso y por investigación descriptiva cuando se busca correlacionar estadísticamente cada uno de los factores.

RESULTADOS

Con el objetivo de realizar un diagnóstico, se llevó a cabo una revisión de los artículos publicados por los investigadores del DA a partir de 1989 fecha en donde aparecen los primeros 5 artículos publicados hasta el año 2005 con 799. Para conocer qué tanto del material consultado en sus publicaciones científicas se encuentra disponible en la Biblioteca del CICESE. De los 5 investigadores iniciados en el Departamento en 1989 con los que cuenta a la fecha son 13 en 2005 se han publicado 264 artículos científicos arbitrados, en donde la bibliografía consultada arroja un total de 1,781 referencias: 1,247 fueron consultados en revistas, 355 de libros, 86 de tesis y 93 de otros refiriéndose a *symposiums*, conferencias, congresos, talleres, reportes, *proceedings*, cursos, informes y algunos otros. Ver gráfica 1. Las 1,247 referencias bibliográficas arrojan un total de 408 revistas de las cuales la biblioteca posee 159, lo que significa que más del 60% son revistas que no están disponibles en la biblioteca.

En cuanto a las 19 revistas más consultadas por los investigadores del DA para elaborar los 264 artículos científicos de 1989 a 2005, se encuentra la revista de Ciencias Marinas como principal fuente de referencia y donde más investigadores de este Departamento publican sus artículos científicos, con 45 veces mencionada, le siguen en segundo y tercero: Journal of Thermal Biology y la Revista de Biología Tropical con una frecuencia de 33 veces consultadas, en cuarto lugar esta la Journal of Shellfish Research 30 veces consultada, en quinto lugar queda la Rivista Italiana fi Acquacoltura 29 veces referenciada, la revista Hidrobiológica 10 veces consultada, con 9 veces consultado el Boletín del Programa Nacional de Sanidad Acuicola y la Red de Diagnóstico, 8 veces citadas las revistas Aquacultural Engineering, Aquaculture y Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology, 7 veces consultada la revista Biotechnology Letters. Las revistas Aquaculture Reserach y la Revista de Investigaciones Marinas fueron consultadas 6 veces y 5 veces: Global Aquaculture Advocate, International Journal of Salt Lake Reseach, Journal of Invertebrate Pathology, Marine and Freshwater Behaviour and Physiology, Panoram Acuicola y The Veliger. De éstas 19 revistas la Biblioteca del CICESE cuenta con 9 de la lista de títulos mas consultados. Ver Figura 1.

Figura 1: Revistas más consultadas por los investigadores del Departamento de Acuicultura para publicar sus artículos científicos de 1989 al 2005



Fuente: elaboración propia, datos tomados del Informe de Ciencia y Tecnología 2005

Se hace la aclaración que la revista de Biología Tropical, si se encuentra en Biblioteca del CICESE, solo que los volúmenes consultados como referencia no están dentro de la colección, esta revista se recibió de 1981 al 2000 de forma irregular, por donativo. La revista Hidrobiológica, también está en forma irregular de 1991 a 1992 y vuelve a renovarse en el año 2003 solo cuatro volúmenes. Referente a los 355 libros consultados, que aparecen como citas bibliográficas consultadas por los investigadores, se aprecia que el 43% es decir 154 de ellos se encuentran en biblioteca, el resto 57% es decir 201 libros han sido solicitados para su consulta por otros medios, en entrevistas personales con algunos investigadores mencionan que la obtención de material que no encontraban en la biblioteca la solicitaban con amigos, o por la cercanía a la ciudad de San Diego CA ellos pasaban a recogerla. En cuanto a las 86 tesis; el acervo de la biblioteca cuenta con 35 de ellas lo que significa que casi el 60% no se encuentran en la colección de la Biblioteca del CICESE, las 51 restantes fueron obtenidas por otros medios. Ver gráfica 13. De los datos agrupados como "otros" se encuentran referencias que aparecen con datos incompletos e incorrectos tales como *papers*, *symposiums*, conferencias, *proceedings*, reportes, memorias, informes, informes especiales *meeting*, publicaciones, obteniendo un resultado de 48 referencias que sí se encuentran como impresos, reportes académicos del CICESE, informe especial, informe técnico, comunicaciones académicas, localizadas en la colección de la biblioteca.

	Solicitado	Si están en Biblioteca	en %	No están en Biblioteca	%
*Revistas	1,247	159	12%	249	20%
Libros	355	154	43%	201	56%
Tesis	86	35	40%	51	59%
Otros	93	48	51%	45	48%

*Este es el número de revistas consultadas, con títulos repetidos y con número de volúmenes diferentes.

Como este servicio también incurre en las peticiones de material. A continuación se presenta una tabla del comportamiento que tuvo el servicio interbibliotecario en relación con el DA desde el año 2003 al 2005. Donde se representa entre paréntesis lo solicitado por el Departamento (no se recuperó información anterior porque los disquetes están dañados).

Tabla 2: Material solicitado por investigadores del Departamento de Acuicultura, a través del servicio interbibliotecario del año 2003 al 2005.

Años	2003		2004		2005	
Porcentaje		%		%		%
Libros						
CICESE	186		132		187	
Acuicultura	(33)	17%	(3)	2%	(17)	9%
Artículos						
CICESE	277		201		285	
Acuicultura	(33)	12%	(40)	20%	(48)	17%

Se hace la aclaración que la búsqueda de revistas electrónicas será tema de investigación ya que el presente estudio de caso se dedicó a reflejar el material bibliográfico que se encuentra disponible en la biblioteca de CICESE.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados obtenidos en este estudio de caso, muestran que existe un déficit de material para los investigadores de esta área de acuicultura, ya que en revistas, tesis y libros, más del 50 por ciento de la información no se encuentra en la Biblioteca del CICESE, solo lo referente a reportes académicos y técnicos, que son publicados aquí, lo que alcanzó a disminuir el porcentaje a favor de la biblioteca.

Ya que el Departamento de Acuicultura no es el único con déficit bibliográfico, sí es, el que ha hecho mayor uso del sistema de préstamo interbibliotecario en los últimos años. Por lo menos en 2004, este departamento requirió casi el 20% del total de solicitudes a través del mencionado servicio. Este dato resulta preocupante por lo que se decidió analizar los registros de productividad de los años de 1989 al 2005, (encontrando información solo de 2003 al 2005) para detectar cuáles son los hábitos de utilización de la información de este sector del centro y cuál es el estatus de los recursos que la biblioteca proporciona a este grupo de investigación científica.

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LIDERAZGO POLÍTICO: CARACTERÍSTICAS Y PARTICULARIDADES. UN ESTUDIO DE CASO

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RESUMEN

El estudio y la práctica del liderazgo, ha sido una temática de preocupación preferente entre investigadores del mundo académico y político e importantes ejecutivos del sector público y privado. ¿Qué es ser un líder? y ¿cómo se práctica el liderazgo? Son algunas de las preguntas que se han formulado de manera recurrente y en diversas latitudes. En la actualidad son más de doscientas las definiciones de liderazgo generalmente aceptadas, situación que lejos de facilitar la formulación de respuestas a las preguntas precedentes, ha complejizado el análisis. Este trabajo halla sustento en una investigación que tuvo por objetivo describir el perfil de liderazgo de un alcalde chileno, caracterizado por haber sido reelegido en cinco periodos consecutivos para “gobernar” la misma Municipalidad. A partir de una síntesis teórica ligada a estudios sobre liderazgo político y datos de la Comuna se determinó un perfil de éste alcalde, para luego proponer algunas hipótesis que permitan explicar el por qué de su permanencia por dos décadas en el cargo. Este trabajo recoge elementos teóricos del liderazgo político, interpreta y elabora conclusiones sobre el perfil del alcalde en particular, procesando la información obtenida al operacionalizar el modelo de liderazgo local desarrollado por el español Antonio Natera.

PALABRAS CLAVES: líder, liderazgo político, gobierno local.

POLITICAL LEADERSHIP: CHARACTERISTICS AND PECULIARITIES. CASE STUDY.

ABSTRACT

The study and practice of Leadership has been a topic of primary concern among academics and political researchers and high executives of public and private sector. What is being a leader? and How to practice Leadership? These are some of the questions that have been made on a regular basis and in different latitudes. Currently there are more than two hundred definitions of Leadership generally accepted, situation far from facilitating the formulation of responses to previous questions, has become a more complex analysis. This case study is based on an investigation that aimed to describe the profile of Leadership of a Chilean Mayor, characterized by being re-elected five consecutive terms to govern the same township. Theoretical synthesis linked to political Leadership Studies and data from the town determined a profile of this Mayor, and then propose some hypotheses that may explain the reason for his stay for two decades in the office. This study includes theoretical elements of the political Leadership, interprets and elaborates conclusions about the profile of the mayor in particular, processing the information obtained when operationalizing the local Leadership model developed by the Spanish “Antonio Natera”

JEL: M10, 50, H76

KEYWORDS: Leader, political leadership, local government.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Este trabajo describe la investigación desarrollada en torno al proceso del liderazgo municipal generado en Chile, a partir de un estudio de caso: el liderazgo político gestado en una comuna de la ciudad de Santiago de Chile, respondiendo a la pregunta de investigación ¿qué hace que un Alcalde sea percibido como líder de su comunidad?

Las características de su accionar político, de su entorno, y de su formación y socialización política son analizadas sobre la base de observaciones y percepciones dadas por los sujetos que conformaron la muestra de informantes del estudio.

En consecuencia, el presente trabajo sintetiza algunas de las conclusiones derivadas de la investigación, que tuvo como misión, conjugar el concepto de liderazgo político con el de liderazgo local, verificando la tipología de liderazgo político que caracteriza a su alcalde. El estudio se sustenta en los aportes teóricos de Antonio Natera (2001) para estudiar el liderazgo político local y en el trabajo de campo que consistió en la aplicación de entrevistas a expertos con funciones en el municipio, a saber: empleados de la planta directiva y concejales concertacionistas y de oposición.

ELEMENTOS TEORICOS DEL LIDERAZGO POLITICO

El desarrollo social, la competitividad y la reforma del Estado, son desafíos actuales para los distintos países, sobre todo en Latinoamérica. Estos procesos son posibles de alcanzar en aquellas zonas de mayor contacto entre Estado y sociedad civil, es decir, en los gobiernos locales y regionales (Castells: 1997).

Demás está decir, que para que ello ocurra, los municipios requieren de gobiernos locales democráticos, eficientes y transparentes. Su gestión debe ser estratégica, de suerte tal, que se creen condiciones adecuadas para la consecución de aliados sensibles a las demandas de la sociedad, sobre todo en educación, salud y vivienda a través de alianzas efectivas con el sector privado (Brito: 2002).

No obstante, es bueno recordar que las formas participativas de gobierno tienden a transformarse en comunidades políticas de escala reducida, mediante la puesta en marcha de órganos y procedimientos que permiten la inclusión de grupos y asociaciones en las labores de gobierno (Navarro: 2000). Generalmente, la mayoría de los países que presentan dificultades de cualquier índole, sobre todo, en lo referido a conducción, se menciona al liderazgo. “Al liderazgo le atribuimos la capacidad de generar impactos, así como la responsabilidad de los grandes fracasos” (Gil Adí: 2004).

Katz y Kahn (1979) en relación al concepto de liderazgo, afirman que no hay acuerdo respecto a la definición conceptual, o inclusive a la significación teórica, de los procesos involucrados. Los autores cuando se refieren al concepto del término liderazgo le asignan tres significados: (i) el atributo de una posición, (ii) la característica o rasgo de una persona y, (iii) una categoría de conducta. Por ejemplo, en la relación entre un presidente y un ministro, el primero, podría ejercer un bajo grado de liderazgo y un alto grado el segundo. En este mismo sentido, “consideran que la esencia del liderazgo organizacional está en aumentar la influencia por arriba del nivel de obediencia mecánica a las órdenes rutinarias venidas de la organización” (Katz y Kahn: 1979).

Natera (1998) considera que el liderazgo se ha transformado en un factor relevante en la legitimación de las estructuras de autoridad, adquiriendo importancia como expresión de la personalidad del poder en la política contemporánea. Este hecho se manifiesta en que los líderes se superponen a programas, grupos e

intereses que representan. En este sentido, Duverger (1968) diferencia entre poder personal y poder personalizado, dónde al primero- poder personal- lo hace compatible con una gran variedad de regímenes autoritarios y, al segundo- poder personalizado- lo asocia con los sistemas democráticos.

Por su parte, es prudente afirmar que los estudios de liderazgo han presentado una mayor preocupación en cuanto a investigación empírica, en la teoría de las organizaciones, la gerencia empresarial, la psicología social y el desarrollo organizacional. Estos son lejos, los ámbitos que más han estudiado la temática en el siglo XX. De esta manera, se presentan complejidades teóricas y prácticas para encauzar estudios de liderazgo político, sobre todo, que en este ámbito la ciencia política ofrece principalmente imágenes o concepciones no muy acabadas, dado que se acercan al concepto enriqueciendo el debate, pero no han logrado dilucidarlo eficientemente.

El liderazgo no es sólo un atributo personal sino también, un rol vinculado a situaciones sociales determinadas, donde el líder existe como una consecuencia derivada de la interacción entre individuos que comparten valores, intereses y propósitos, tratando de conseguir objetivos determinados. No es extraño constatar por tanto la cercanía y/o dualidad entre líder y gerente, aspecto que en cierta medida será abordado más adelante.

En Chile las Municipalidades están constituidas por el alcalde que será su máxima autoridad y en tal calidad le corresponde su dirección y administración superior, como asimismo la supervigilancia de su funcionamiento. Los alcaldes son elegidos por sufragio universal, en votación conjunta y cédula separada de la de los concejales, su mandato dura cuatro años y podrán ser reelegidos (Ley 18.695: 2000). Las Municipalidades de acuerdo con la ley son corporaciones de derecho público, con personalidad jurídica y patrimonio propio, cuya finalidad es satisfacer las necesidades de la comunidad local y asegurar su participación en el progreso económico, social y cultural de las respectivas comunas.

Analizado el comportamiento de las elecciones de alcaldes en Chile, se puede constatar, que las reelecciones de ellos, son relativamente normales, e incluso, por debajo de lo que sucede en otros países, como es el caso de España, donde de acuerdo con Natera (1998), algo más de la mitad de los alcaldes españoles pertenecientes a municipios intermedios y urbanos ha renovado mandato al menos en tres ocasiones. Al año 2004 sólo en la Región Metropolitana, veinte alcaldes presentaban tres períodos consecutivos de ejercicio del cargo.

Esta característica, relacionada con aquella autoridad que es reelegida, se acostumbra denominar incumbente, asociándola con la situación en la cual una empresa que se encuentra posicionada en el mercado, enfrenta una amenaza potencial al ingreso de otra empresa como competidora. Sin embargo, de acuerdo al diccionario es pertinente denominar a esa autoridad como titular, entendiendo por ello, a quienes desempeñando un cargo de elección popular enfrentan la reelección con la ventaja de ocupar los beneficios involucrados por la posición.

Al respecto, existen muchos estudios que demuestran que los alcaldes en Chile bajo la denominación de titulares han obtenido éxito apelando a las prerrogativas del cargo. Al año 2004 de quienes se presentaron a su primera reelección, el 60% ganó la elección, los que fueron por su segunda reelección el 77% tuvo éxito, y los que fueron por su tercera reelección el 70% logró ganarlas (Luco: 2006). En este mismo sentido, de acuerdo a otra investigación (Selume: 2008) se concluye que entre los incumbentes ganadores y los perdedores, se observa que los ganadores, en promedio, aumentan la participación de las inversiones hasta en un 40% más que los perdedores y reducen los gastos corrientes en alrededor de un 45% que

aquellos incumbentes derrotados en la elección, todo dentro de la composición del gasto municipal presupuestado. Navarro (2000) señalaba que el objetivo principal de los partidos o del potencial alcalde, reside en la maximización de los votos para obtener el poder, siendo su interés principal el control del gobierno municipal para ser reelegido. Se podría derivar por tanto, que la participación ciudadana dentro del territorio municipal, se encontraría sujeta al oportunismo político, dado que las exigencias de participación de la comunidad, serán resueltas en la medida que el gobierno municipal se beneficie.

Finalmente y tal como lo afirma Natera (2001) se debe entender al liderazgo como un proceso complejo que incorpora tres componentes esenciales: el comportamiento del líder, el ámbito de dominio político específico y la relación funcional entre ellos; asimismo dependerá de la situación y de la personalidad de ese actor individual, ambas en interacción. En este sentido, hay una semejanza con lo afirmado por Katz y Kahn (1979) cuando considera que el concepto de liderazgo tiene tres significados: la posición (el cargo de alcalde), los rasgos de la persona (personalidad, actitudes, motivación y competencias) y la categoría de conducta (el comportamiento).

“Liderazgo es una palabra que está en boca de todos. Los jóvenes lo atacan, y por él los mayores se hacen más sabios. Los padres lo han perdido y la policía lo busca. Los expertos lo alaban, los artistas lo menosprecian, y los académicos lo desean. Los filósofos lo reconcilian (como autoridad) con la libertad, y los teólogos demuestran su compatibilidad con la conciencia. Si los burócratas pretenden que ellos lo tienen, los políticos desearían tenerlo. Todo el mundo está de acuerdo en que hay menos liderazgo del que solía haber” (Bennis & Nanus: 1985).

Stogdill (1974) hizo una revisión ardua de la literatura del liderazgo, llegando a la conclusión que existen tantas definiciones como personas que han intentado definir el concepto. Otros autores, como Rost (1991) revisaron cerca de 221 definiciones concluyendo que no se sabe más que antes sobre el tema y, por supuesto que no existe consenso sobre este concepto.

Yukl (1989) atribuye esta confusión a la disparidad de enfoques, al interés de muchos investigadores y la ausencia de teorías que integren los hallazgos de los diferentes enfoques. Este autor señala que las definiciones sobre el liderazgo involucran procesos de influencia, pero que difieren en términos de quien ejerce la influencia, el propósito de los intentos de influenciar, y la manera a través de la cual se ejerce la influencia.

Se ha dejado para el final de esta introducción la controversia que se da entre liderazgo y gerencia pues, resulta del todo evidente, de acuerdo al número de investigaciones y publicaciones, que este concepto ha acaparado la atención principal de la teoría de las organizaciones y gestión empresarial durante gran parte del siglo XX (Natera: 2001).

En las organizaciones existen líderes que no son gerentes o bien, gerentes que no tienen subordinados. No cabe dudas que estos conceptos son diferentes, pero “el grado de solapamiento es un punto en torno al cual existen marcados desacuerdos” (Yukl: 1989).

De acuerdo con Zaleznik (1992), los gerentes son distintos de los líderes. Los objetivos de los gerentes surgen de las necesidades por sobre los deseos, son excelentes haciendo desaparecer conflictos entre individuos, calman a las partes mientras aseguran que los negocios se realicen. En cambio los líderes adoptan actitudes personales respecto de los objetivos, buscan oportunidades y recompensas potenciales, inspiran a los subordinados e impulsan procesos creativos con su propia energía.

Bennis & Nanus (1985) afirman que los gerentes son gente que hace las cosas correctamente y los líderes gente que hacen las cosas correctas. La distinción esencial según Yukl (1989) parece ser que los líderes influyen en el compromiso, mientras los gerentes simplemente cumplen con responsabilidades de sus posiciones y ejercen autoridad. Una adecuada diferenciación entre estos dos conceptos se encuentra en Davis (1967) cuando establece que “el liderazgo es una parte de la gerencia, pero no es toda ella... el liderazgo es la habilidad de convencer a otros para que busquen con entusiasmo el logro de objetivos definidos. Es el factor humano el que une a un grupo y lo motiva hacia los objetivos. Las actividades de la gerencia como la planificación, la organización y la toma de decisiones no son efectivas hasta que el líder estimula el poder de la motivación en las personas y las dirige hacia los objetivos”.

EL LIDERAZGO POLÍTICO SEGÚN NATERA(1)

Desde la ciencia política, el liderazgo político no ha sido objeto de estudio preferente, lo cual puede atribuirse también a los estudios de la política local. Esto significa que, es a partir de los '70 que las estructuras municipales empiezan a ser concebidas como verdaderos gobiernos locales; y la preocupación de la ciencia política por el tema del gobierno local, ha sido consecuencia de las profundas transformaciones económicas, políticas, sociales y culturales que ha vivido el mundo en las últimas décadas, las que a su vez provocaron un quiebre en la concepción de lo local, sobre todo en los países de tradición centralista.

A pesar de que el estudio del liderazgo, ha sido una cuestión predominante en la teoría de las organizaciones, también en los análisis políticos está incorporado como elemento central dentro de la esencia de la política. De acuerdo con Blondel (1987) para la mayoría de los ciudadanos, la política se circunscribe a los líderes nacionales que quedan en la memoria colectiva cuando todo lo demás ha desaparecido, no existiendo dudas, de que los líderes y el fenómeno que originan, constituyen lo más universal reconocido y de lo que más se habla en la vida política de todos los países. Así se estaría reconociendo el impacto del liderazgo en el desarrollo político de los pueblos, sin desconocer a las instituciones y los partidos.

Natera (2001) diferencia el tratamiento tradicional del tema en relación a lo actual. En su opinión, hasta que no se produce la institucionalización de la ciencia política en los albores del siglo XX, el pensamiento político entregó variadas aproximaciones al liderazgo, Platón, Maquiavelo y Hobbes fueron los referentes más destacados. Para ello Natera recurre a Paige (1972), quien define el liderazgo como un fenómeno conductual por el cual determinadas personas en interacción con otras de similar potencial se comprometen en iniciativas de relevancia social. De esta manera, las diferentes formas que el liderazgo puede presentar dependerán de la recíproca interacción de cinco variables básicas: personalidad, roles, tareas, valores y entorno específico.

Para Tucker (1981) el liderazgo político es la manera de participar e incidir de manera significativa en la dirección de las actividades de una comunidad política, aspecto de mayor relevancia cuando existe incertidumbre e inseguridad y, por tanto, deben adoptarse decisiones que provocarán cambios en la situación. El liderazgo político visto de esta manera se ajusta a la lógica de un proceso. Frente a ello Zonis (1984) determina que el liderazgo político se desarrollará de manera ordenada y cíclica a consecuencia del descontento o insatisfacción de la población o grupo. Esto significa que los procesos de liderazgos se activan o son vitales cuando la situación social está en crisis. Sin embargo, es bueno recordar que la comprensión del liderazgo, se relaciona en alguna medida con los enfoques explicativos que existen para

abordar el liderazgo, como el de rasgos y el del comportamiento, entre otros, y que en este trabajo se han obviado.

Natera observa, primeramente, el rol de alcalde a partir de sus condiciones personales, como aquellas propias de los contextos donde actúan, siendo central para ello, la posición formal que ocupa el alcalde en el contexto municipal.

Hace una distinción de las formas de organización municipal que gatilla la posibilidad de gestar liderazgos políticos locales. A partir de la observación de estructuras monocráticas y estructuras colegiadas, afirma que en los primeros casos estaríamos en condiciones de observar la emergencia de liderazgos locales, debido a que estas estructuras al ser gestadas a partir de una individualidad, hacen posible una mayor posibilidad de concretar liderazgos políticos.

Luego, para Natera será posible describir cinco factores que estarían determinando el liderazgo político local: la ecuación personal del liderazgo, el comportamiento político, la red de apoyos utilizados, entorno del liderazgo, la percepción e impacto del liderazgo.

RESULTADOS DEL ESTUDIO

1. Comportamiento político del líder

a) Adopción de decisiones y fijación de la agenda del alcalde.

El ejercicio del Gobierno Local permite que existan simultáneamente mecanismos de participación y sistemas de decisión unipersonales, los cuales, de alguna manera caracterizan la forma como los habitantes de la comuna y la misma estructura del municipio resuelven sus problemas, conciliando los intereses personales y colectivos.

“Discutir la agenda es parte del diálogo con la oposición y también el lugar donde se reflejan los ajustes a las demandas cambiantes del medio. La idea de agenda nos muestra que el gobierno es el espacio donde se definen los tiempos, avances y retrocesos, en función de la criticidad de las demandas” (Etkin: 2000).

Natera (2001) considera fundamental para conocer el comportamiento de los líderes, la manera de decidir lo que harán, vale decir, como fijan su “agenda”. La fijación de la “agenda” consiste tanto en fijar las metas y objetivos a largo plazo como en lo que va a decidir después de desayunar (Kotter y Lawrence: 1972- citado en Natera: 1998).

En general es difícil asociar los procesos decisorios con el liderazgo, esto es, diseñar una matriz de liderazgo donde se plasmen el estilo con la participación de los seguidores. En este sentido, existe en la bibliografía dos modelos que logran esta asociación: (i) el continuo de Tannenbaum y Schmidt, (Lussier: 2004) que relaciona el grado de autoridad usada por el líder y la cantidad de libertad que tienen los seguidores y (ii) el modelo de participación del líder de Vroom y Yetton (Lussier: 2004) que conjuga el comportamiento y la participación del liderazgo en la toma de decisiones.

En este sentido Natera (2001) reformula la escala de Tannenbaum y Schmidt de siete posiciones, reduciéndola sólo a cinco posiciones de acuerdo a la descripción siguiente: Individualista-autocrático, Consultivo, Participativo, Delegatorio y Laissez-faire.

Ahora bien, una cosa es asociar el proceso decisorio a una tipología de liderazgo y la otra determinar si el proceso decisorio se ajusta a planificación, el dilema de ser reactivo o proactivo.

El alcalde, en razón de la información recogida se lo clasifica en la posición de *laissez-faire*, en lo relativo a las decisiones dado que deja hacer, en lo personal no adopta muchas decisiones y no tiene preocupación clara sobre la gestión del municipio.

En cuanto a su capacidad de anticiparse a problemas, la conclusión es que es un alcalde que no tiene una “agenda” definida, carece de visión estratégica, no planifica, de ahí que se aproxime al modelo incremental. “Este modelo argumenta que las decisiones sobre políticas son pragmáticas y se basan en el método de las aproximaciones sucesivas y limitadas” (Tamayo: 1997).

b) Realización de Tareas

Este apartado trata de caracterizar el trabajo político del alcalde, que operativamente responde a los aspectos de: (i) que actividades consumen el mayor tiempo del alcalde, (ii) que roles cumple y (iii) como hace su trabajo el alcalde.

De esta forma, el alcalde estudiado desarrolla un gran volumen de trabajo, fragmentado, con variadas interrupciones, con visión reactiva, enfatizando las tareas presentes, de acción inmediata, donde la comunicación oral e informal es fundamental.

Natera (1998) influenciado por Yukl y Mintzberg construyó un continuo de roles, en los cuales se pueden clasificar los alcaldes en función del volumen de recursos involucrados y del impacto que tiene sobre la comuna. Este continuo se compone de cuatro tipologías de acuerdo a la descripción siguiente:

Alcalde ausente: evade la responsabilidad de gobernar y de enfrentar las necesidades de la comuna.

Alcalde individualista: ejecuta en forma directa muchas tareas sin la ayuda de la estructura municipal ni de otros actores.

Alcalde gestor: es un administrador que anhela el máximo rendimiento de la organización burocrática, en base a su autoridad formal, como único instrumento.

Alcalde emprendedor: utiliza en menor medida la estructura municipal para el ejercicio del gobierno, actúa usando menos autoridad formal, su propósito es lograr relaciones cooperativas con actores políticos y sociales en lo interno y externo al municipio, atrayendo la mayor cantidad de recursos.

En la medida que el alcalde utilice más de una tipología ampliará los temas de su agenda y por ende la cantidad de recursos. En este mismo sentido, la tipología de alcalde emprendedor, es más proclive a generar procesos de liderazgo. En cuanto al alcalde, éste clasificaría más nítidamente en la tipología de emprendedor.

c) Búsqueda de recursos y apoyos

Este proceso que conforma junto a los dos anteriores el Comportamiento Político del Alcalde, “se transforma en el aspecto central del comportamiento político, para analizar los procesos de liderazgo local” (Natera: 1998).

Esta afirmación, se relaciona en concreto con las funciones que los alcaldes desarrollan en sus comunas de comprometerse a buscar apoyos y recursos que les permitan ejecutar los diferentes programas comunales, incluidos o no en su “agenda”.

En el caso del alcalde estudiado, es posible afirmar, que es muy clara su habilidad para acceder a recursos, en paralelo al presupuesto corriente municipal, pues muchos de los adelantos que ha tenido la comuna han requerido de una baja inversión municipal. Es reconocida su cercanía con la Unión Europea, desde dónde ha logrado transferir importantes recursos para otros tantos proyectos de la comuna.

2. Ecuación Personal del Liderazgo

Tal como se describe en el modelo de Natera, los factores personales o ecuación personal del liderazgo se simplifican a partir de dos variables: la competencia y la ambición política. Las competencias, se asocian a las llamadas habilidades administrativas de la gerencia (Katz: 1955), las que se clasifican en tres tipos : (i) habilidades técnicas, que son aquellas referidas al conocimiento que el líder tiene para resolver determinadas funciones especializadas mediante procedimientos, métodos e instrumentos, (ii) habilidades cognitivas, relacionadas con la capacidad analítica del líder para conceptualizar, tener visión estratégica o bien para reconocer oportunidades y amenazas y, (iii) habilidades interpersonales, como actitudes y motivaciones que permiten generar empatía, receptividad, persuasión, relaciones de intercambio y, en general influenciar la conducta de otros.

De acuerdo a la percepción de los informantes, el alcalde estudiado muestra una gran fortaleza en las habilidades interpersonales, reconociendo que esta habilidad es fundamental para todos los Alcaldes, toda vez, que son las habilidades interpersonales las que en rigor se relacionan significativamente con el trabajo político. En cuanto a la ambición política, esta se entiende como el propósito de incrementar y consolidar el poder, de esta manera, es posiblemente el principal estímulo para ejercer el liderazgo.

El alcalde estudiando tiene gran ambición política, lo que se traduce en su orientación a incrementar y consolidar el poder, independientemente de su motivación, hacia la comunidad o bien para fines personales.

3. Redes de Apoyo

La matriz estado- céntrica característica del siglo XX en Chile “a mi juicio ha tendido a cambiar integrándose los liderazgos a una nueva matriz, cuyo eje rector se relaciona con la constitución de redes sociales y políticas que permiten explicar de mejor manera los liderazgos locales” (Acosta: 2006).

Al entender las redes sociales como un modo de interacción e interdependencia de organizaciones y actores en planos relativos de formalidad e informalidad (Acosta: 2006), se reafirma la idea de quiebre del modelo centralizador- vertical, respondiendo de una manera mas eficiente las demandas de la comunidad, reflejando una forma diferente de relación entre estado y sociedad.

En los casos, cuando el alcalde tiene su propia red social, los partidos políticos, el partido del Alcalde en lo particular, es más funcional al alcalde y no al revés como sería dable esperar. El alcalde presenta un carácter claramente clientelista en su gestión, busca más que apoyo político, el soporte comunitario. Esto es un peligro potencial al perderse el sentido de municipio, dado que se entremezclan en la gestión, relaciones formales e informales.

La relación alcalde- comunidad, podría tipificarse como una relación cultural, caracterizada más bien por la emotividad, que por una de tipo secularizada, más racional, lo cual no refuerza la institucionalidad.

Las relaciones entre el alcalde y el ámbito del gobierno central, son muy expeditas, traducándose en un modelo de cooperación. Esta relación descansa en la constitución de las redes de apoyo, lo que determina que los compromisos o acuerdos se gesten desde el municipio hacia el gobierno central. Hay una clara empatía del alcalde con los distintos actores de la estructura decisional central.

En cuanto a las relaciones con el Concejo Municipal, el cual de acuerdo a la legislación, tiene un carácter normativo, resolutorio y fiscalizador, son muy expeditas, sin conflictos, fraternales. Esto encierra el peligro, que este órgano no cumpla adecuadamente su rol, garantizar una gestión institucionalizada.

El alcalde, de acuerdo a la percepción de los informantes asimila con mayor claridad tres tipos de relaciones que sustentarian sus redes de apoyo, a saber:

Relaciones clientelares, donde hay una cooperación utilitaria con intercambio de bienes, servicios y favores con los integrantes de la red de apoyo. El alcalde satisface necesidades económicas, personales o materiales a cambio de fidelidad o apoyo político electoral.

Relaciones basadas en la cooptación interesada, relación de cooperación que se sustenta en la incorporación de miembros de la red al municipio. El alcalde selecciona a gente clave ya sea de grupos o del mismo partido político al cual pertenece, para que operen como asesores, funcionarios del gobierno local o bien como informantes.

Relaciones basadas en vínculos personales, aquí el alcalde obtiene confianza de los miembros de la red basándose en relaciones personales. La red de esta manera la puede gestionar mediante relaciones de amistad o mediante vínculos familiares.

4. Entorno del Liderazgo

Entendido el liderazgo político del alcalde como un proceso social, éste debe desarrollarse en un ámbito o entorno determinado, con características propias y de carácter dinámico y cambiante (Natera: 2001).

De esta forma, el entorno otorga al alcalde oportunidades y, al mismo tiempo influye en las acciones y actitudes que adopta. Tres son los ámbitos de dominio político: (i) ciudadanos, votantes, seguidores y clientes, (ii) organizaciones y medios de comunicación y, (iii) niveles de gobierno (nacional, regional y local).

a) Ciudadanos, Votantes, Seguidores, Clientes

La última elección considerada para este trabajo es la correspondiente al año 2004, en la cual el alcalde fue reelegido por más del 41% del total de sufragios emitidos, en circunstancias que los dos concejales de su Partido, fueron elegidos sumados ambos, por el 26,4% de los sufragios emitidos. La votación obtenida por el Partido del Alcalde en esa elección a nivel nacional alcanzó el 11,8% de la votación total del país.

Esto significa que el universo de seguidores y que votan por el alcalde, no se corresponden con una votación ideológica, sino que más bien obedece a un voto personalizado o por el candidato. La personalización de la política y el liderazgo del candidato asumen como elementos determinantes en la conducta de los electores, sobre todo en regímenes presidenciales y democracias emergentes (Rico: 2002).

Lo anterior reflejaría la pérdida de las fronteras ideológicas de los habitantes de la comuna y el fortalecimiento del clientelismo que encubre la participación junto al surgimiento de una identidad ligada a la persona del Alcalde.

b) Organizaciones, Segmentos de Organizaciones, Medios de Comunicación

La experiencia de haber trabajado en una ONG, le permitió al alcalde aplicar dicho modelo a la comuna, resaltando la participación de la comunidad organizada. De esta forma desarrolla “una gestión de interlocución de la gente organizada”.

En cuanto a los medios de comunicación locales, estos no parecen ser eficientes, dado que los habitantes de la comuna no se encuentran debidamente enterados de los logros del Municipio. Es así que el alcalde es el que de alguna manera a través de su constante acercamiento a los habitantes sería la fuente de información.

c) Niveles de Gobierno (nacional, regional, local)

La Municipalidad tiene gran dependencia del gobierno nacional, especialmente en la consecución de los recursos, vía el Fondo Común Municipal (FCM), vía acción directa de los ministerios o bien vía concursable. Se puede afirmar por tanto, que es clara la tendencia a la nacionalización de la política local, sobre la base de la debilidad de la estructura municipal, condicionando su autonomía.

Sin embargo, en el caso del alcalde, se observan algunos elementos que tienden a limitar esta tendencia, los que se enuncian a continuación: (i) es un alcalde fuerte, lo que se manifiesta por su permanencia en el cargo, (ii) en todas las elecciones su candidatura ha obtenido el mayor número de concejales, (iii) las elecciones se han personalizado en la comuna, vale decir, obtiene votación cruzada, superando el peso de su partido y, (iv) el alcalde se ha restado del nivel político nacional y regional, asumiendo un discurso local que responde a las demandas de la población, principalmente por su labor en terreno y cercanía a la gente.

5. Percepción e Impacto del Liderazgo

Natera (2001) afirma que estas variables presentan claras dificultades, en virtud de lo complejo de su operacionalización, ¿cómo medir el impacto del liderazgo?

Natera (1998) concluye que la forma operativa de precisar el impacto del liderazgo, no está dado principalmente por estudiar como es o actúa el líder, sino que más bien, en estudiar la imagen que se tiene de ellos y su actuación pública, lo que conduciría a encontrar la presencia de la percepción de liderazgo.

De esta forma, deriva a que la percepción de liderazgo sería resultado de estudiar cuatro factores básicos: (i) la competencia percibida, (ii) la ambición que se le atribuye al líder, (iii) la popularidad y, (iv) la credibilidad.

Tanto la competencia percibida como la ambición, se encuentran analizados en este mismo apartado, cuando nos referimos a la ecuación personal del liderazgo, de ahí que sólo concluya en relación a la popularidad y credibilidad.

La popularidad, la aceptación, estimación y ascendiente que tiene un alcalde en su comunidad, es un excelente componente de influencia y recurso vital a alcanzar y mantener en el ejercicio del liderazgo. En

el caso del alcalde hay tendencia en las respuestas de los informantes, que la comunidad lo reconoce y que se esmera por relacionarse cercanamente a ella, adquiriendo un compromiso social y político.

La credibilidad, entendida como la confianza en la persona que la comunidad ha elegido para efectos de cumplir lo prometido, con honradez, claridad de propósitos, habilidad para contagiar y entusiasmar y, capacidad técnica (Kouzes y Posner: 1995- citado en Natera: 1998). El análisis de este factor para el caso del alcalde, es difuso, principalmente, por el hecho que los informantes no presentan suficiente claridad en sus apreciaciones, por lo que se puede concluir que la percepción sobre el alcalde es positiva en la habilidad para generar entusiasmo, es honrado. En cuanto a la claridad de propósitos, se puede inferir que su claridad está conectada con la convicción de la importancia de lo local y de las demandas de la población y, que en su capacidad técnica, sobresale su habilidad para relacionarse con la gente en planos de abierta informalidad.

CONCLUSIONES ACERCA DEL LIDERAZGO DEL ALCALDE

La importancia del tratamiento que da Natera al tema del liderazgo político, se encuentra en el carácter interactivo que le adjudica al fenómeno del liderazgo. “El liderazgo es un fenómeno relacional, como tal, se desempeña en un contexto específico de interacción y refleja en si mismo la situación de ése contexto” (Natera: 2001).

De esta forma, el surgimiento de los fenómenos de liderazgo suceden a consecuencia de aquel conjunto de relaciones que se dan entre aquella persona que actúa como líder y su ámbito de dominio político, donde se debe producir el impacto. Sin embargo, Natera (2001) no simplifica este ámbito de dominio sólo a los seguidores, por el contrario, lo complejiza al determinar la existencia de: ciudadanos, votantes, clientes, medios de comunicación, partidos políticos, gobierno nacional y local y otros. Por tanto, siguiendo al autor, el liderazgo se entiende como un proceso de carácter complejo conformado por tres factores básicos, como son: el comportamiento del líder (decisiones y agenda, realización de tareas y búsqueda de recursos y apoyos), el ámbito de dominio político y la relación que se da entre estos dos factores. Natera (2001) concluirá afirmando que las diferentes formas que el proceso de liderazgo puede adoptar dependen de las características que asumen las interacciones entre líder y ámbito de dominio político.

En este sentido la visión integradora que sustenta lleva a Natera a afirmar que los resultados obtenidos al aplicar el modelo al estudio del liderazgo, determina mas interrogantes que respuestas, no obstante en su beneficio de debe decir que rescata el liderazgo de esa mayoritaria tendencia reduccionista, para incorporarlo a una visión multidimensional.

En definitiva, y cumpliendo el propósito del trabajo, el alcalde presenta las siguientes características que conforman su perfil de liderazgo y, que explican en cierta forma sus sucesivas reelecciones:

Es un Alcalde que confía en la gente y sus subordinados, deja hacer.

No tiene Agenda y por tanto carece de visión estratégica explícita, sus decisiones tienden a ser muy acotadas, parciales, de corto plazo y pragmáticas.

Desarrolla gran volumen de trabajo, fragmentado, con visión reactiva, enfatizando el presente y la comunicación oral e informal.

Se acerca a la tipología de “Alcalde Emprendedor”, pues utiliza menos autoridad para gobernar, enfatizando relaciones cooperativas con actores políticos y sociales, buscando atraer recursos.

De las tres habilidades gerenciales: técnicas, cognitivas e interpersonales, las más nítidas y que le otorgan su gran fortaleza son las interpersonales que permiten que realice su trabajo político con empatía y receptividad.

Tiene gran ambición política que lo induce a incrementar y consolidar el poder, para beneficio de la comunidad.

Tiene carácter clientelista en la forma de gestionar, busca el soporte comunitario.

Su relación con la comunidad está caracterizada por la emotividad.

Se relaciona en forma muy expedita con el gobierno central, mucha cooperación con los distintos actores que toman decisiones.

Los seguidores del alcalde y que votan por él, no lo hacen ideológicamente, sino que más bien es un voto personalizado.

Su experiencia en Organizaciones no Gubernamentales (ONG), le ha permitido replicar dicho modelo, desarrollando por tanto, una gestión de interlocución de la gente organizada.

Es una fuente de información relevante para los habitantes, dada la debilidad de los medios de comunicación internos de la comuna.

Tiene un discurso local, se ha restado al nivel político regional y nacional. Este discurso responde a las demandas de la población por su labor en terreno y cercanía con la gente.

Es popular, aceptado, estimado y con ascendiente en la comunidad. Tiene compromiso social.

Genera entusiasmo, cree en lo local y en las demandas de la comunidad, es honrado.

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NOTAS

(1) Este apartado describe el ideario del autor, desprendido de su tesis doctoral: “Percepciones y estilos de liderazgo local en la España democrática”. Universidad Complutense de Madrid (1988); y de su texto: “El liderazgo político en la sociedad democrática”. Centro de Estudios Políticos y Constitucionales. Madrid. 2001.

INTENCIÓN DE EMPRENDIMIENTO EN ESTUDIANTES: EL CASO DE UNA UNIVERSIDAD PÚBLICA EN CIUDAD JUÁREZ, MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

El emprendimiento ha sido considerado un factor significativo para el crecimiento socioeconómico y el desarrollo y recientemente se ha observado un crecimiento importante en la educación en emprendimiento en instituciones educativas en el mundo (Karimi, Chizari, Biemans y Mulder, 2010). El objetivo central del presente estudio es identificar las intenciones de emprendimiento en estudiantes universitarios de una universidad pública localizada en Ciudad Juárez, México, tomando como base el modelo de intención de emprendimiento de Liñan, Urbano y Guerrero (2011). El análisis estadístico se llevo a cabo a una muestra de 153 estudiantes. Los resultados muestran que la universidad, como un elemento de valoración cercana, puede influir de forma determinante en que sus estudiantes tengan o no una intención de emprendimiento, ya que aun cuando la tendencia es positiva respecto a si han pensado alguna vez seriamente convertirse en empresario, la creación de empresas formales entre estudiantes es prácticamente nula. Los resultados de este estudio proporcionan información valiosa para líderes de la administración pública, maestros, estudiantes y empresarios.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Intención de emprendimiento, Universidades, Creación de empresas

ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship has been considered a significant factor for socioeconomic growth and development, and has recently seen a significant growth in entrepreneurship education in educational institutions in the world (Karimi, Chizari, Biemans y Mulder, 2010). The main objective in this study is to identify entrepreneurship intentions among college students in a public university located in Juarez, Mexico, based on the model develop by Liñan, Urbano and Guerrero (2011).

The statistical analysis was conducted on a sample of 153 students. The results show that the university, as a closer valuation element, can have a decisive influence in their students in whether or not to have an entrepreneurship intention, since ,even tough the trend is positive with respect to whether they have ever seriously thought about becoming an entrepreneur, formal business creation among students is almost non existent. The results of this study also provide valuable information for policy makers, teachers, students and entrepreneurs.

KEYWORDS: Entrepreneurship intention, Universities, Business Creation.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El emprendimiento ha sido considerado como una de las necesidades en países en desarrollo (Zoltan, 2006) y los gobiernos deben prestar especial atención a la educación en emprendimiento a fin de expandir las capacidades de los estudiantes en el (Smit, 2004). A través de entrenamiento, es posible crear emprendedores que crearan pequeñas empresas y maximizaran el potencial económico de su región (Karimi et al., 2010), y las instituciones educativas pueden servir como catalizadores (Ibicioglu et al., 2008), ayudando a sus estudiantes al introducir en sus programas educacionales y de investigación el área del emprendimiento (Wallace y Nilsson, 1997).

El presente artículo aborda en la revisión de la literatura el hecho social emprendimiento así como el modelo de Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero, posteriormente se aborda la justificación de usar el método de estudio de caso, se presentan los resultados de la encuesta usando el cuestionario de intención de emprendimiento de dichos autores, y se finaliza con la discusión de los mismos así como las conclusiones y futuras líneas de investigación.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

La palabra “emprendimiento” se deriva del término francés *entrepreneur*, que significa estar listo a tomar decisiones o ha iniciar algo (Verin, 1982). Hisrich et al. (1989) señala que desde la perspectiva personal existen tres elementos clave en la definición de emprendimiento; se habla de un tipo de comportamiento que incluye: a) toma de iniciativas, b) organización y reorganización de mecanismos sociales y económicos para enviar recursos y situaciones a práctica y c) aceptación de riesgo o falla, considerando que las nociones centrales que cualquier definición de emprendedor debe contener son la innovación, organización, creación, bienestar y toma de riesgos.

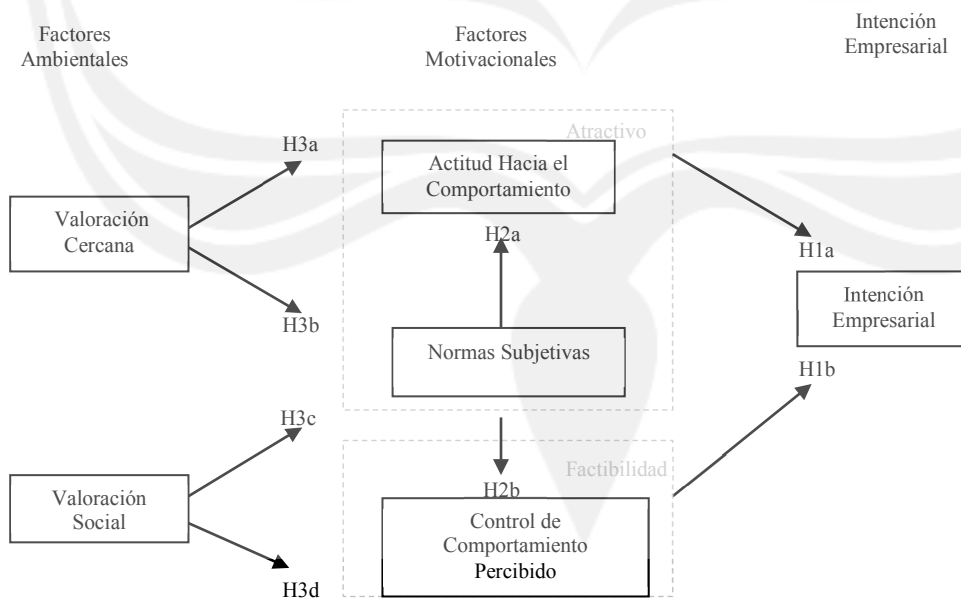
González y Gálvez (2008) señalan que al analizar al emprendimiento desde la epistemología, es posible encontrar esfuerzos como los de Brazeal y Herbert (1999), Bygrave (1989) y Bygrave y Hofer (1991), que enumeran diferentes perspectivas científicas que aportan a la consolidación del emprendimiento como teoría y buscan su fundamentación científica. Por ejemplo: se observa una relación directa con la Economía y la Gestión; y una relación indirecta con la Matemática, Psicología, Sociología y Biología (Bygrave, 1989). El debate rodea a lo que constituye el emprendimiento como campo de estudio. Los estudiosos de la empresa tradicionalmente se han centrado en los perfiles de los empresarios y lo que el empresario hace (Gartner, 1989), así como en el desempeño de empresarios y empresas. Brush et al. (2003) propone un marco unificante para la investigación del emprendimiento alrededor de la creación de actividad como resultado del proceso de identificación, exploración y explotación de una oportunidad.

González y Gálvez (2008, pp. 17 y 18), mencionan que “dentro del estudio del emprendimiento, el proceso de creación de empresas es quizás uno de los más analizados; en la actualidad muchas universidades están desarrollando o formulando su modelo de fomento al emprendimiento.....dichas universidades buscan la apropiación de competencias profesionales por parte de sus estudiantes, de tal manera que puedan enfrentar los retos del mercado”. La educación en emprendimiento ha evolucionado notablemente los últimos años; en Estados Unidos se incrementó el número de universidades que ofrecían cursos de emprendimiento de 16 en 1970 a más de 400 en 1995 (Vesper y Gartner, 1997). En Europa, el desarrollo de la educación en el emprendimiento ha sido más baja que en los Estados Unidos (Guzmán y Liñán, 2005). En Latinoamérica, hay cursos sobre el tema ofrecidos en universidades en Colombia, Argentina, México, Honduras, Panamá, Costa Rica, Perú y Brasil, pero hay poca información confiable al

respecto (Postigo y Tamborini, 2002). A pesar de ello, un elevado porcentaje de jóvenes no considera la opción de emprender un negocio como una salida profesional atractiva, y ello es cierto incluso en aquellos que están formándose para dirigir empresas, en carreras como Ciencias Empresariales o Administración de Empresas (Zapico, Nieto y Muñoz, 2008). La búsqueda de la seguridad y una creciente aversión de asumir riesgos, especialmente en el terreno profesional, parecen estar en el origen de esta pérdida del espíritu emprendedor, pues la actividad empresarial se percibe como una actividad de riesgo que no es necesario ni conveniente asumir (Coduras, 2006).

Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011) mencionan que la investigación en emprendimiento ha seguido dos líneas principales: las características personales y la influencia de factores contextuales. Mitchell et al. (2000) menciona que los principales modelos con una base cognitiva que han servido para explicar el emprendimiento son el del evento empresarial (Shapero y Sokol, 1982) y el de la teoría de la conducta planeada (Ajzen, 1991). El primero se enfoca en el evento empresarial, condicionado este por las percepciones de lo atractivo (el sistema individual de valores y el sistema social del cual el individuo es parte) y factibilidad (financiamiento y socios potenciales). Percepciones producto de ambientes sociales y culturales, los cuales determinan las elecciones personales (Shapero y Sokol, 1982). Por su parte, el modelo de Ajzen (1991) aborda como el medio ambiente cultural y social afecta la conducta humana. Toma como base la intención individual resultado de: actitud hacia la conducta, normas subjetivas y el control percibido de comportamiento (Perceived Behavioural Control, por sus siglas en inglés, PBC). En base a estos dos modelos y a la falta de evidencia sobre variaciones entre regiones o países (Delmar y Davidsson, 2000), Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011), desarrollaron un modelo de intención de emprendimiento, integrado por tres factores: motivacionales, ambientales y situacionales (variables de control). Los elementos y relaciones que integran el modelo de intención en emprendimiento propuesto por Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011) se muestra en la figura 1.

Figura 1. Modelo de Emprendimiento de Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero



Fuente: Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011).

En los factores motivacionales, la actitud hacia la comportamiento o conducta se refiere a lo atractivo de la conducta propuesta o grado bajo el cual un individuo mantiene una valoración positiva o negativa hacia ser emprendedor (Ajzen, 1991, 2002). El segundo factor motivacional es el PBC, esto es, la facilidad o dificultad percibida en ser emprendedor (Ajzen, 1991). Esta variable es importante por su capacidad predictiva, ya que refleja la percepción del individuo si podrá controlar esa conducta (Ajzen, 2002). Respecto a las normas subjetivas, estas miden la presión social percibida de familia, amigos u otras personas cercanas (Ajzen, 1991) para desempeñar una conducta empresarial, ya que estas personas pudieran aprobar o no la decisión de ser emprendedor (Ajzen, 2001).

Sobre los factores ambientales, según la teoría del aprendizaje social, los factores ambientales tienen una gran influencia sobre procesos cognitivos y de aprendizaje (Bandura, 1977). Al igual que Liñan, Urbano y Guerrero (2011), este artículo se enfoca al análisis del rol que juega un factor informal específico: la valoración del emprendimiento en el medio ambiente del individuo. Estos factores informales institucionales reflejaran las dinámicas sociales del emprendimiento, donde el nivel de actividad de este dentro de una comunidad es una consecuencia inintencional de muchas opciones individuales hacia el emprendimiento (Bygrave y Minniti, 2000). Este capital social cognitivo (en inglés, Cognitive Social Capital, CSC), es derivado de procesos mentales y de sus ideas resultantes, reforzadas por la cultura e ideología, generando valores, actitudes, creencias y confianza (Naphiet y Ghoshal, 1998), y no ha recibido mucha atención (Liñan, Urbano y Guerrero, 2011). Al juntar el CSC, basado en fuertes lazos con familia y amigos (valoración cercana), genera diferentes valores, confianza, lenguajes y narrativas compartidas (Liñan, Urbano y Guerrero, 2011). Por otra parte, la valoración social del emprendimiento toma un rol crítico en determinar la conducta empresarial (Zahra, Jennings y Kuratko, 1999). El sistema de valores de un grupo o sociedad forma el desarrollo de ciertos rasgos y habilidades, modelando las percepciones normativas y de habilidad hacia la actividad empresarial (Thomas y Muller, 2000).

Sobre las variables de control, se refieren a la información demográfica (figura o modelo a seguir, edad, género, nivel educativo o experiencia laboral). En la literatura estas variables han sido usadas para definir un perfil de un típico emprendedor (Robinson et al., 1991).

El modelo presenta varias hipótesis:

H1a: La actitud hacia la conducta tendrá un impacto positivo en la intención de emprendimiento, independientemente del contexto regional. H1b: El control percibido de conducta tendrá un impacto positivo en la intención de emprendimiento independientemente del contexto regional. H2a: Las normas subjetivas tendrán un impacto positivo en la actitud hacia la conducta independientemente de su contexto regional. H2b: Las normas subjetivas tendrán un impacto positivo en el control percibido de la conducta independientemente del contexto regional. H3a: La valoración cercana tendrá un impacto positivo en la actitud hacia la conducta, pero es diferente dependiendo del contexto regional. H3b: La valoración cercana tendrá un impacto positivo en las normas subjetivas, pero es diferente dependiendo del contexto regional. H3c: La valoración social tendrá un impacto positivo en las normas subjetivas, pero es diferente dependiendo del contexto regional. H3d: La valoración social tendrá un impacto positivo en el control percibido de la conducta, pero es diferente dependiendo del contexto regional.

Respecto al emprendimiento en América Latina, el fenómeno de la iniciativa emprendedora se ha convertido en un campo de rápida expansión (Amorós, Fernández y Tapia, 2011). Según el Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), las oportunidades percibidas entre la población de México (véase Tabla 1) para poder emprender un negocio son de más del 50%, así como la percepción de sus

capacidades. El miedo a fracasar es más alto en México, pero el emprendimiento es visto como una opción de carrera atractiva, es alto el status que perciben tiene un emprendedor y la atención de los medios hacia ellos. El problema radicaría en la intención de emprendimiento, donde solo el 22.3% estaría dispuesto a crear una empresa.

MÉTODO DE LA INVESTIGACIÓN

La presente investigación es no experimental, transversal descriptiva. La estrategia de la investigación es el estudio de caso. Yin (2003) menciona que en esta estrategia puede utilizarse tanto el enfoque cuantitativo como el cualitativo, o utilizarse un enfoque mixto, para responder al tipo de preguntas de cómo y por qué. Este mismo autor define un estudio de caso como aquel donde el estudio se desarrolla sobre un solo objeto, proceso o acontecimiento, realizados con una unidad de análisis. Es un estudio de caso intrínseco, ya que Stake (2006) menciona que en él se busca analizar y comprender un caso particular y el propósito no es entender alguna construcción abstracta o un fenómeno genérico ni construir una teoría. El estudio es emprendido porque hay un interés intrínseco en él.

Tabla 1. Actitudes y percepciones empresariales en algunos países latinoamericanos GEM en 2010 por fase de desarrollo económico

	Percepción de Oportunidades	Percepción de Capacidades	Miedo al Fracaso*	Iniciativa Empresarial como una Buena Carrera	Alto Status de los Empresarios Exitosos	Atención de los Medios hacia la Iniciativa Empresarial	Intención Empresarial **
Economías Impulsadas por Eficiencia							
Argentina	50.3	63.5	21.3	74.3	67.1	61.1	21.0
Brasil	48.1	57.9	33.2	78.0	79.0	81.1	26.5
Chile	65.0	65.6	22.1	87.4	71.2	45.7	38.3
Colombia	68.2	65.1	27.7	88.6	75.9	66.7	41.3
México	55.6	64.6	33.4	69.4	62.8	54.0	22.3

*Denominador: 18-64 grupo de edad que percibe buenas oportunidades para iniciar un negocio.

** Denominador: 18-64 grupo de edad que no está involucrado en la actividad emprendedora.

Fuente: GEM (2010), encuesta de población adulta

El presente estudio de caso comprende los cinco pasos que Yin (2003) recomienda en su diseño: pregunta de investigación, proposiciones, unidad de análisis, la lógica para enlazar los datos a las proposiciones y el criterio para interpretar los hallazgos. De esta forma, la pregunta de investigación general es: ¿Cómo son las diferencias en la intención de emprendimiento en los estudiantes de diferente instituto de la Universidad Autónoma de Cd. Juárez? El objetivo central del presente estudio es identificar elementos ambientales y motivacionales que puedan explicar las diferencias en las intenciones de emprendimiento en estudiantes universitarios de diferente instituto de una universidad pública localizada en Ciudad Juárez, México, tomando como base el modelo de intención de emprendimiento de Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011). Respecto a las proposiciones, estas se abordan en el apartado revisión de literatura. Sobre la unidad de análisis, esta es los estudiantes de cursos de verano de 2011 (periodo comprendido del 9 de junio al 20 de julio de 2011) y sobre estos se realizó el análisis empírico. Sobre el paso 4 y 5, la lógica y el criterio que se ha abordado es el modelo de Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero y sobre el paso 5, el cuestionario utilizado es el EIQ v3.1 (Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero, 2011). Se ha obtenido permiso del autor para su uso. Se utilizó un muestreo de conveniencia, usadas en investigación sobre emprendimiento (Liñán, Urbano y

Guerrero, 2011). Estos autores señalan que los ítems A1–A20 miden los 4 constructos centrales de la teoría de la conducta planeada: Intención empresarial (A4, A6, A9-reversed (rev)-, A13, A17 y A19-rev-), actitud hacia la conducta (A2-rev-, A10, A12-rev-, A15 y A18), PBC (A1, A5-rev-, A7, A14, A16-rev-, A20) y normas subjetivas (A3, A8, A11). Por otro lado, los valores sociales sobre emprendimiento fueron medidos usando una escala de 8 ítems (C1–C8). Tres de estos miden la valoración del emprendimiento en el ambiente cercano del encuestado (C1, C4 y C7, constructo valoración cercana). El resto de los ítems miden las percepciones acerca de la valoración social general del emprendimiento (C2, C3-rev-, C5-rev-, C6, C8-rev-).

RESULTADOS

La UACJ cuenta con 4 campus en el estado de Chihuahua, México: Ciudad Juárez, Nvo. Casas Grandes, Ciudad Cuauhtémoc y Chihuahua Capital. En total, su matrícula asciende a cerca de 26,000 estudiantes. En Cd. Juárez existen 4 institutos: Instituto de Ciencias Biomédicas, Instituto de Ingeniería y Tecnología, Instituto de Arquitectura y Diseño de Arte, así como el Instituto de Ciencias Sociales y Administración. Las características de la muestra se pueden apreciar en el Tabla 2.

Tabla 2. Características de la muestra

Institutos	Edad	Sexo	¿Cuál es el nivel de estudios alcanzado por su padre?	¿Cuál es el nivel de estudios alcanzado por su madre?	¿Cuál es la ocupación actual de su padre?	¿Cuál es la ocupación actual de su madre?	Número de personas que residen en su domicilio (incluyendo se usted)	Cuáles son los ingresos mensuales en su domicilio	Semestre	Instituto
IADA	22.63	1.95	3.00	2.71	2.38	3.39	4.25	5.13		2.00
ICSA	23.16	1.40	2.88	2.52	2.38	3.24	4.16	6.40	5.92	1.00
IIT	22.34	1.37	2.42	2.10	2.22	3.15	3.46	3.33	4.59	3.00
ICB	22.72	1.72	2.84	2.67	2.60	3.52	4.68	5.44	7.24	4.00
General	22.66	1.56	2.72	2.42	2.37	3.30	4.04	4.93	5.74	2.61

El promedio de edad es de 22.66 años. La muestra estuvo equilibrada respecto al porcentaje de mujeres y hombres (1=mujeres, 2=hombres). En casa, el padre tiene una formación casi profesional, mientras que el de la madre es ligeramente inferior (2=preparatoria, 3= profesional). El padre trabaja como funcionario público (2=funcionario publico), mientras que la madre, y este es un dato relevante, trabaja por su cuenta (3=autónomo o empresario). El rango de los ingresos esta en el rango de \$4000 y \$7000 m.n., presentando ICSA e ICB los más altos. La mayoría de las carreras que se ofertan tiene 9 semestres, la muestra arrojó estudiantes cursando en promedio el 5.74 semestre (IADA no pudo ser recabado).

En el Tabla 3, sobre la intención empresarial (desde 1, desacuerdo total a 7, acuerdo total), consistentemente ICSA, donde están localizadas las carreras de Administración, Turismo y Contabilidad entre otras, presenta los mejores resultados.

Tabla 3. Intención empresarial

Institutos	Estoy dispuesto a hacer cualquier cosa para ser empresario	Me esforzare para crear y dirigir mi propia empresa	Tengo serias dudas sobre crear una empresa algún día	Estoy decidido a crear una empresa en el futuro	Mi objetivo es ser empresario	Tengo muy poca intención de crear una empresa algún día
IADA	3.89	5.21	4.25	4.90	4.20	3.00
ICSA	5.52	5.88	3.28	5.60	5.16	2.20
IIT	4.13	5.16	3.44	4.76	4.20	3.33
ICB	4.30	5.88	3.68	5.24	4.68	3.16
General	4.44	5.48	3.60	5.07	4.51	2.99

La tendencia señala que están dispuestos a ser empresarios, seguidos de ICB, a crear su propia empresa (se infiere es un consultorio para el caso de ICB), no tienen dudas para iniciarla (seguido de IIT), tienen decisión para crearla (seguido por ICB), objetivo ser empresario (seguido de nuevo ICB) e intención de crear una empresa algún día (seguido por IADA). Sin embargo, ningún resultado llega a 6 ó 7.

Respecto a la actitud hacia la conducta (véase Tabla 4, desde 1, desacuerdo total a 7, acuerdo total), de nueva cuenta ICSA presenta los resultados más favorables. Ser empresario es atractivo (por debajo del valor medio, 3.5) y ante una oportunidad y recursos, todos los Institutos estarían dispuestos a crear una empresa y están debajo del valor medio respecto a preferir otra cosa antes que ser empresario (excepto IADA) y tendrían satisfacción al serlo. Sin embargo, no están seguros del todo de que ser empresarios tenga más ventajas que inconvenientes.

Tabla 4. Actitud hacia la conducta

Institutos	La carrera de empresario me resulta muy poco atractiva	Si tuviese la oportunidad y los recursos me encantaría crear una empresa	Entre varias opciones preferiría ser cualquier cosa antes que empresario	Ser empresario me supondría una gran satisfacción	Ser empresario me reportaría más ventajas que inconvenientes
IADA	4.10	6.15	3.85	5.25	5.30
ICSA	2.96	6.48	2.04	6.32	5.64
IIT	3.11	6.24	2.98	5.13	4.78
ICB	3.08	6.16	2.88	5.40	5.29
General	3.24	6.26	2.90	5.47	5.17

Sobre el control percibido de conducta (véase Tabla 5 desde 1, desacuerdo total a 7, acuerdo total) ICSA de nuevo tiene el puntaje más alto de todos los Institutos.

Tabla 5. Control percibido de la conducta (PBC)

Institutos	Crear una empresa y mantenerla en funcionamiento sería fácil para mí	Creo que sería totalmente incapaz de crear una empresa viable	Puedo mantener bajo control el proceso de creación de una empresa	Si tratase de crear una empresa tendría una alta probabilidad de lograrlo	Me resultaría muy difícil sacar adelante un proyecto empresarial	Conozco todos los detalles prácticos necesarios para crear una empresa
IADA	4.30	3.05	4.70	5.30	4.30	2.35
ICSA	4.92	1.80	5.56	5.48	2.80	3.92
IIT	4.49	2.04	4.84	5.13	3.16	3.53
ICB	4.68	2.32	5.48	5.40	2.92	3.52
General	4.59	2.22	5.11	5.30	3.23	3.41

Mantener en funcionamiento una empresa, no tiene una puntuación tan favorable (4.59), sin embargo, tienen confianza en que si pueden crear una empresa viable, mantener el control de creación de una empresa, buen nivel de logro y sacar adelante un proyecto de esta naturaleza (excepto IADA). Llama la atención que ICSA tiene un nivel apenas arriba del valor medio en conocimiento sobre crear una empresa, siendo el instituto sede de ciencias administrativas. Acerca de las normas subjetivas (véase Tabla 6), la familia es el núcleo cercano más importante para poder fortalecer la intención de emprendimiento, seguida por los compañeros universitarios y después amigos del interesado. En general, los tres valores sociales obtienen puntuación alta.

Tabla 6. Normas subjetivas

Institutos	Mis amigos aprobarían mi decisión de crear una empresa	Mi familia más directa aprobaría mi decisión de crear una empresa	Mis compañeros aprobarían mi decisión de crear una empresa
IADA	5.40	5.85	6.25
ICSA	6.00	6.36	6.24
IIT	5.84	5.98	5.78
ICB	5.60	6.33	6.20
General	5.75	6.11	6.05

Acerca de los valores sociales (véase Tabla 7), la familia tiene de nuevo un valor más alto respecto a otros valores cercanos, como el de los amigos y compañeros, aunque ninguno es mayor a 5. El contexto cultural arroja datos interesantes, ya que los estudiantes consideran que la actividad empresarial en México culturalmente no tiene soporte (3.37, 4.75). Respecto al papel del empresario, este alcanza un valor regular, y la puntuación no es muy favorable hacia la valoración de los jóvenes respecto al valor que la actividad empresarial tiene en el país (3.29, 4.39, 3.94, 3.83).

Tabla 7. Valores sociales sobre emprendimiento (valuación cercana y valuación social general)

Tabla	Mi familia directa valora la actividad empresarial por encima de otras	La cultura de mi país es muy favorable a la actividad empresarial	El papel del empresario en la economía está poco reconocido en mi país	Mis amigos valoran la actividad empresarial por encima de otras	La mayoría de las personas en mi país consideran poco aceptable ser empresario	En mi país se considera que la actividad empresarial merece la pena, a pesar de los riesgos	Mis compañeros valoran la actividad empresarial por encima de otras	En mi país se tiende a pensar que los empresarios se aprovechan de los demás
IADA	5.32	3.89	3.95	4.11	3.58	3.94	3.32	5.11
ICSA	4.68	3.04	3.80	4.12	3.24	4.32	4.12	4.52
IIT	4.13	3.16	3.80	3.87	3.11	4.36	3.93	4.73
ICB	4.44	3.68	3.84	4.04	3.44	4.84	4.24	4.76
General	4.52	3.37	3.83	4.00	3.29	4.39	3.94	4.75

Respecto al grado de atracción (véase Tabla 8 desde 1, mínima atracción a 7, máxima atracción) que tienen los estudiantes por ser empleado o empresario, el promedio indica una fuerte tendencia en lo último y que lo han considerado seriamente (1, Si, 2, no, su media sería 1.5).

Tabla 8. Grado de atracción y capacidades específicas.

Institutos	Grado de atracción por ser empleado	Grado de atracción por ser empresario	Nivel de detección de oportunidades	Nivel de creatividad	Nivel de resolución de problemas	Nivel de liderazgo y capacidad de comunicación	Nivel de desarrollo de nuevos productos y servicios	Nivel de establecimiento de relaciones y contactos profesionales	¿Ha considerado usted alguna vez seriamente convertirse en empresario?
IADA	3.05	5.42	5.11	5.83	5.47	5.32	5.26	5.05	1.32
ICSA	4.88	6.16	5.44	5.68	6.16	5.92	5.12	6.04	1.04
IIT	3.76	5.93	5.38	5.69	5.98	5.76	5.24	5.20	1.36
ICB	2.80	6.36	5.56	5.76	5.92	6.12	5.72	5.88	1.28
General	3.68	6.16	5.39	5.73	5.92	5.80	5.32	5.51	1.26

Existe un buen nivel (de 1, ninguna capacidad a 7, capacidad muy alta) de detección de oportunidades, creatividad, confianza en resolver problemas, comunicación, nuevos productos o servicios y de relaciones. Acerca de su formación y experiencia (véase cuadro 9a donde 1, Si, 2, no), así como su conocimiento empresarial (desde 1, desconocimiento absoluto a 7, perfecto conocimiento), la tendencia indica que la mayoría de los estudiantes ha tenido experiencia laboral y en promedio 2.89 años. Por el tamaño de la empresa donde han laborado, se infiere que ICSA e IIT han tenido esta experiencia en la industria maquiladora (en ICB se infiere es en un consultorio) y es relevante que la mayoría ha sido alguna vez autoempleado (1.70) durante 1.60 años. Acerca del grado de conocimiento (véase Tabla 9a y 9b) que tienen sobre como crear una empresa, todos los institutos presentan un nivel por debajo de la media en todos los rubros.

Tabla 9a. Formación, experiencia y conocimiento empresarial

Institutos	¿Tiene alguna experiencia laboral?	¿Cuánto tiempo de experiencia profesional tiene? (años)	Trabajadores que tiene/tenía la última empresa en que trabajo	¿Ha estado alguna vez auto empleado? (años)	¿Cuánto tiempo ha estado autoempleado? (años)	Grado de conocimiento sobre asociaciones privadas
IADA	1.26	1.58	17.58	1.50	1.25	1.58
ICSA	1.24	5.37	308.50	1.80	2.80	2.24
IIT	1.43	2.26	670.38	1.77	1.45	2.23
ICB	1.40	2.29	1.30	1.60	1.56	2.48
General	1.35	2.89	351.62	1.70	1.60	2.18

Tabla 9b. Formación, experiencia y conocimiento empresarial

Institutos	Grado de conocimiento de organismos públicos	Grado de conocimiento de medidas de formación específica para jóvenes empresarios	Grado de conocimiento, prestamos en condiciones especialmente favorables	Grado de conocimiento, ayuda técnica para iniciar negocio	Grado de conocimiento, centros/incubadora de empresas
IADA	2.16	1.95	1.89	2.00	1.74
ICSA	3.04	2.52	2.84	2.96	2.48
IIT	2.73	2.61	2.84	2.73	2.43
ICB	2.84	2.60	2.84	3.08	2.88
General	2.73	2.48	2.68	2.73	2.42

DISCUSION Y CONCLUSIONES

Este artículo muestra resultados interesantes acerca de la influencia de valores sociales en la intención en emprendimiento de los estudiantes de la UACJ. En línea con Liñán, Urbano y Guerrero (2011), se puede argumentar que estas percepciones acerca de los valores de la sociedad en general y de los ambientes cercanos tienen una influencia en los factores motivacionales que determinan la intención empresarial (ningún resultado del Tabla 3 llega a 6 ó 7).

La valoración cercana del emprendimiento, parece tener una fuerte influencia sobre las actitudes personales acerca de la conducta. La familia tiene un valor más alto respecto a los otros valores (amigos y compañeros), aunque ninguno es mayor a 5, por lo que esta se consideraría el núcleo cercano más importante para poder fortalecer la intención de emprendimiento, ya que el cuestionario no incluye a las instituciones educativas y este se sugiere es un aspecto a considerar. Dato relevante es que las madres presentan emprendimiento (3.30). El contexto local promueve fuertemente trabajos relacionados con las ventas, como representante de cosméticos, calzado y accesorios para el hogar, por lo que se sugiere los miembros (estudiantes) de la familia no están percibiendo estas actividades como emprendimiento. Esta fuerte influencia se sugiere pudiera también sustentarse en el hecho de que, respecto a la actitud hacia la conducta, aun y cuando ICSA presenta los resultados más favorables (esta por debajo del valor medio (3.5) para ser empresario es atractivo, seguido por ICB), ante una oportunidad y recursos, todos los Institutos estarían dispuestos a crear una empresa y están debajo del valor medio respecto a preferir otra cosa antes que ser empresario (o sea si hay recurso soy empresario, al parecer no por influencia familiar). Asimismo, todos también presentan puntuaciones bajas (favorables) ante el contexto de preferir ser otra cosa antes que empresario y tendrían satisfacción al serlo. Sin embargo, la influencia de la familia aparece de nuevo al no estar seguros del todo de que ser empresarios tenga más ventajas que inconvenientes. La idea les agrada, pero no hay motivación de alguna institución (familiar, o en este caso, se sugiere educativa), a pesar de que el grado de atracción de ser empresario es alto (6.16).

Por otra parte, la valoración social afecta medianamente las percepciones sobre el control de la conducta. El contexto cultural arroja datos interesantes ya que los estudiantes consideran que la actividad empresarial en México culturalmente no tiene soporte, pero en el control percibido de conducta, tienen confianza en que si pueden crear una empresa viable, mantener el control de creación de una empresa, buen nivel de logro al intentar crearla y sacar adelante un proyecto de esta naturaleza. Llama la atención que ICSA tiene un nivel por debajo del valor medio en conocimiento sobre cómo crear una empresa, siendo este el Instituto que alberga a las ciencias sociales y administrativas. Respecto al grado de atracción, los estudiante aun con esa valoración social, presentan tendencia a ser empresario y lo han considerado seriamente (sin embargo, datos de la Incubadora de Empresas de la UACJ que datan desde 2008, muestran que prácticamente no existen la creación de empresas entre los estudiantes, por lo menos en lo concerniente al autoempleo formal, aunque el dato de 1.60 años en autoempleo, sugiere que han estado en la economía informal), existiendo un buen nivel de detección de oportunidades, creatividad, confianza en resolver problemas, comunicación, nuevos productos o servicios y de relaciones. Los resultados en general sugieren que los estudiantes de la UACJ, a pesar de que perciben tener las capacidades, ven de forma atractiva el convertirse en empresarios, y ante una oportunidad y recursos, no solo ICSA, sino todos los Institutos estarían dispuestos a crear una empresa, necesitan recibir aún más información para intentar la creación de sus empresas. Cabe mencionar que a partir de agosto de 2011, las autoridades de la UACJ han iniciado un incremento importante en la promoción de la Incubadora de Empresas en la comunidad universitaria y a corto plazo tienen ya definidas diversas estrategias para incrementar la cultura emprendedora y la creación de empresas en sus estudiantes.

Como conclusiones, es importante hacer mención de la influencia que, como ambiente y valoración cercana a los estudiantes, las universidades tienen a través de sus acciones (presencia de incubadoras, fuentes de financiamiento disponibles que existan para promover la cultura emprendedora y materias en curricula sobre creación y desarrollo de empresas) en el emprendimiento de sus estudiantes. De acuerdo a la investigación es imprescindible la implementación de la educación en emprendimiento en los niveles universitarios, para así fomentar el desarrollo de la creatividad y la capacidad empresarial en los jóvenes y futuros profesionales (González Millán, 2007), a fin de alentar a sus estudiantes a ser creadores de empleos mas que buscadores de empleo, y el apoyo del gobierno es necesario para alcanzar ello (Karimi, et al., 2010). Cabe señalar que la materia de creación y desarrollo de empresas es obligatoria (se ofertan 22 cursos como parte de la curricula en diferentes carreras) en todos los Institutos, pero no en ICSA, lo cual, sugiere que la educación sí tiene un impacto en la intención de emprendimiento, ya que este instituto obtiene las puntuaciones más favorables para ello en casi todos los rubros a pesar de no ser esta obligatoria. Por otra parte, métodos activos como creación de planes de negocio, ponencias de emprendedores y elaboración de proyectos son apropiados para hacer crecer el emprendimiento en sus participantes, y las instituciones educativas deben desarrollar los incentivos necesarios para alentar a sus maestros a usar métodos de enseñanza de eventos de negocios reales e interactivos (Bennett, 2006). Asimismo, se recomienda establecer centros de investigación y desarrollo en emprendimiento en instituciones educativas de nivel superior e incluir materias de emprendimiento en la curricula de la oferta académica de las universidades a fin que los estudiantes puedan recibir educación y habilidades sobre emprendimiento una vez que entran a estas (Karimi, et al., 2010).

Como una línea futura de investigación, se recomienda llevar a cabo este estudio bajo enfoque mixto, usando herramientas de estadística inferencial, así como abordar este hecho social bajo entrevistas profundas y observación directa en las clases de creación y desarrollo de empresas. Asimismo, se considera necesario aplicar esta metodología a una muestra más amplia, ya que no todas las carreras de la UACJ fueron encuestadas, así como estudiantes de primeros y últimos semestres, a fin de hallar alguna relación entre la intención de emprendimiento en estudiantes de nuevo ingreso y aquellos próximos a salir. Finalmente se sugiere estudiar la relación entre mayores ingresos y mayor intención de emprendimiento, ya que ICSA e ICB presentan los más altos valores de intención, mientras que lo opuesto sucede en IIT e IADA.

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INNOVACIONES TECNOLÓGICAS APLICADAS EN LA ENSEÑANZA DE LAS CIENCIAS ADMINISTRATIVAS

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RESUMEN

El impacto de las nuevas tecnologías en la educación consiste en que estas cambian en espacio de manera conceptual en donde se desarrolla el proceso educativo. En las escuelas surge una sinergia que puede dar un valor agregado, es decir, las nuevas tecnologías posibilitan la construcción de un nuevo espacio social. A nivel mundial y ante el incremento de la población, la oferta educativa tiende a crecer porque los espacios sociales se han ampliado lo cierto es que el entorno digital emergente exige diseñar nuevas acciones educativas complementarias a las ya existentes. Sin embargo pese a todas las bondades de las nuevas tecnologías, su uso plantea varios problemas el impacto no es provocado por la nueva tecnología en sí sino por el uso que se les dé en la educación. La globalización ha permitido y promovido un cambio radical en la concepción de educación en el marco de la “Cátedra de Impuesto sobre la Renta a Personas Físicas” de la facultad de Ciencias Administrativas de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, se llevó a cabo el inicio del presente proyecto de integración de Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación como apoyo a las instancias presenciales. Este proyecto surge como una respuesta al llamado que hace la UNESCO relativo a las Normas sobre Competencias en TIC's para Docentes, tratando de combinar las competencias con esta tecnología con innovaciones en la pedagogía, el plan de estudios y la facultad con el fin de que éste pueda hacer progresar el desarrollo económico y social del país.

Palabras claves: Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación. Redes sociales

INTRODUCCIÓN

Las nuevas tecnologías como herramientas de comunicación tienen un gran potencial en los procesos educativos, es elemental reconocer que la educación está participando activamente en las transformaciones tecnológicas que se están dando en el mundo entero, modificando los procesos de enseñanza aprendizaje, en donde se tejen nuevas formas de producción y adquisición del conocimiento, distintos modos de comunicarse, sin límite de espacio y tiempo, en donde intervienen comunidades virtuales paralelas a las que se hallan en la sociedad, entre otras características, que redimensionan lo tradicional y resignifican el panorama educativo.

El impacto de las nuevas tecnologías en la educación consiste en que estas cambian en espacio de manera conceptual en donde se desarrolla el proceso educativo. En las escuelas surge una sinergia que puede dar un valor agregado, es decir, las nuevas tecnologías posibilitan la construcción de un nuevo espacio social. Esta transformación es similar en su impacto como cuando en el pasado surgieron nuevas tecnologías, si bien no electrónicas pero cuya repercusión en la educación fue impresionante, como las grandes revoluciones técnicas, la escritura e imprenta, que modificaron la educación.

A nivel mundial y ante el incremento de la población, la oferta educativa tiende a crecer, porque los espacios sociales se han ampliado; lo cierto es que el entorno digital emergente exige diseñar nuevas acciones educativas, complementarias a las ya existentes. Sin embargo pese a todas las bondades de las

nuevas tecnologías, su uso plantea varios problemas, el impacto no es provocado por la nueva tecnología en sí, sino por el uso que se le dé en la educación. La globalización ha permitido y muchas veces ha promovido, un cambio radical en la concepción de educación, asociada a expresiones como la era de la información, la supercarretera de la información, o la sociedad del conocimiento. Las redes educativas virtuales son las nuevas unidades básicas del sistema educativo, que incluyen el diseño y la construcción de nuevos escenarios educativos, la elaboración de instrumentos educativos electrónicos y la formación de educadores especializados en la enseñanza en el nuevo espacio social.

Una preocupación que tenemos como docentes es que los conocimientos que tratamos de impartir a nuestros alumnos lleguen, se asimilen, crezcan y se reproduzcan en forma tal que sean la solución a la problemática de dependencia económica de éstos. Las nuevas tecnologías como herramientas de comunicación tienen un gran potencial en los procesos educativos, pero cómo y qué elegir para aprovecharlas e integrarlas en el aula.

Para elaborar una estrategia educativa que integre las herramientas digitales y pueda llevar a buen puerto los procesos de enseñanza/aprendizaje es importante evaluar por anticipado las ventajas y desventajas que las diferentes plataformas pueden ofrecer a docentes y alumnos.

Concepto de red social.

De acuerdo a Wikipedia una **red social** es una estructura social compuesta de personas (u organizaciones u otras entidades), las cuales están conectadas por uno o varios tipos de relaciones, tales como amistad, parentesco, intereses comunes, intercambios económicos, relaciones sexuales, o que comparten creencias, conocimiento o prestigio. Se puede representar en forma de uno o varios grafos en el cual los nodos representan individuos (a veces denominados actores) y las aristas relaciones entre ellos.

Antecedentes

El primer sitio de redes sociales se puso en marcha en 1997 y fue SixDegrees.com. Este sitio permitía a los usuarios crear perfiles, lista de amigos y amigos de sus amigos.

MySpace

En 2003 comenzó a funcionar MySpace y se ha diferenciado de otros sitios porque permite a los usuarios personalizar sus páginas. En 2004 se creó Facebook, originalmente para apoyar a las redes universitarias y los usuarios del sitio estaban obligados a proporcionar las direcciones de correo electrónico asociada con las instituciones educativas. Posteriormente se amplió para incluir a los estudiantes de secundaria, profesionales, y finalmente todos los usuarios potenciales de Internet.

Existen otras muchas redes como Twitter, Yahoo, Neurona, eConozco, etcétera. Algunas continúan en funcionamiento, unas han desaparecido y otras más cambiado de nombre o se han fusionado con otras existentes. Facebook es un sitio web gratuito de redes sociales creado por Mark Zuckerberg. Originalmente era un sitio para estudiantes de la Universidad de Harvard, pero actualmente está abierto a cualquier persona que tenga una cuenta de correo electrónico.

Los usuarios pueden participar en una o más redes sociales en relación con su situación académica, su lugar de trabajo o región geográfica. A diferencia de otros Sitio de Red Social (SRS), en Facebook los usuarios sólo pueden hacer públicos sus perfiles a otros usuarios del sitio otra característica que distingue a este sitio es la capacidad para desarrolladores externos de crear aplicaciones lo que permite a los usuarios personalizar sus perfiles y realizar otras tareas tales como comparar las preferencias de las

películas. A principios de 2008 lanzó su versión en francés, alemán y español para impulsar su expansión fuera de Estados Unidos, ya que sus usuarios se concentran en Estados Unidos, Canadá y Gran Bretaña.

Uso De Blogs Y Wikis

Los *blogs* son páginas web prediseñadas donde de manera muy sencilla, el usuario puede publicar artículos que integren elementos como imágenes, videos, mapas, audios, enlaces, animaciones, etc. Las publicaciones (entradas o *posts*) de los usuarios se ordenan cronológicamente también pueden agruparse de acuerdo a su contenido utilizando *tags* (etiquetas o palabras claves). El usuario puede habilitar comentarios para las entradas lo que transforma a la herramienta en un buen espacio de interacción con los lectores. Las plataformas gratuitas de creación de *blogs* más usadas son Blogger y WordPress, ambos sitios permiten integrar a los blogs elementos multimedia y aplicaciones desarrolladas en otras plataformas. Wikis, Son plataformas de escritura colaborativa: todos los usuarios habilitados pueden modificar los textos que allí se escriban permiten visualizar y recuperar el historial de cambios producidos por los usuarios se pueden proponer diferentes modos de organizar las entradas en el sitio y al igual que los blogs, permiten integrar enlaces y elementos multimedia.

Los grupos en Facebook

Facebook, es una red social que permite compartir información en diversos soportes entre los contactos o *amigos* entre sus múltiples aplicaciones la que puede resultar más provechosa a nivel educativo es la creación de grupos de estudiantes donde alumnos y docentes pueden publicar y compartir lo que deseen y generar una comunicación dinámica entre ellos Facebook, es en la actualidad la red social más difundida es muy probable que la mayoría de los alumnos ya cuenten con un perfil allí, como aspecto negativo de la herramienta Facebook puede traer conflictos respecto a la exposición de información personal de los participantes es conveniente informarse sobre sus políticas de privacidad.

Twitter, Red De Microblogging

Es una herramienta de *microblogging*, permite publicar mensajes cortos (de no más de 140 caracteres). Como usuario puedes crear tu propia comunidad eligiendo a quiénes seguir en la página principal (el *home*) aparecen los mensajes en tiempo real que la gente a la que sigues va publicando se puede responder públicamente a esos mensajes o hacerlo en privado a través de un mensaje directo (DM). Probablemente, su aplicación educativa más interesante sea la creación de un *hashtag* o etiqueta que permita que todos los mensajes relacionados al curso en cuestión vayan a parar al mismo lugar. Toda la información organizada bajo ese *hashtag* puede ser levantada luego con un *widget* o artilugio integrado a un *blog*, *wiki* o sitio web.

Ning, Para Crear Tu Propia Red Social

Es un *software* para crear una red social propia. Permite integrar todas las herramientas anteriores. Los usuarios pueden crearse un perfil, interactuar entre sí, subir información de todo tipo e incluso crear y mantener un blog interno dentro de la red. La red de Ning informa permanentemente las últimas acciones de los usuarios. En la vorágine de actualizaciones, si se tienen muchos usuarios y muchas pestañas, la organización de la información puede volverse caótica y difícil de recuperar. Aprender a gestionar el conocimiento en la web 2.0 no es tarea sencilla. Una buena estrategia educativa con estas herramientas intentará seleccionar las herramientas más adecuadas de acuerdo a sus objetivos, procurará integrarlas y trabajará conjuntamente los espacios virtuales y los encuentros presenciales. En esencia, se habla de e-learning cuando se hace referencia a educación a través de Internet, principalmente basada en herramientas o servicios Web. Papel activo Por su parte, el énfasis 2.0 es consecuencia del término Web 2.0, acuñado por Tim O'Reilly en 2005 y que se refiere a todos aquellos servicios de internet en los que el

usuario adquiere un papel de editor y emisor de contenido frente al papel tradicional de receptor pasivo de la información. En inglés, el vocablo tweet es la onomatopeya del trinar de los pájaros, en el caso de esta nueva modalidad de red social llamada Twitter, un tweet es un mensaje de un máximo de 140 caracteres sobre lo que una persona (agrupación, empresa, institución, negocio, medio de comunicación, etc.) está pensando o haciendo en tiempo real. Twitter son anuncios cortos (o tweets) en tiempo real, que pueden obtener respuestas tanto públicas como privadas, a un grupo de seguidores (o followers). Cada persona decide a quien seguir: desde amigos y familiares hasta personajes públicos. Al mismo tiempo, cada persona puede tener uno o miles de seguidores, todo depende de su nivel de popularidad. La mejor manera de conocer las ventajas o desventajas de su uso, es describiendo en qué no se parece a otras redes:

- Twitter no es un sistema de redes de amigos y familiares con los se puede compartir información personal, fotos, juegos y más.
- Twitter no es una conversación cerrada entre dos o más conocidos.

Poniéndolo de una manera simple, Twitter es como una especie de club de fans pero en la red, de forma rápida, directa y en tiempo real. No es necesario entrar constantemente a la página de Twitter para leer mensajes existen aplicaciones para recibir actualizaciones a través de una ventana discreta en la computadora o vía teléfono celular en forma de mensajes de texto. David Pogue, columnista de tecnología del New York Times recomienda: Twitterific, Feedalizr y Twinkle; PocketTweets, Tweetie y iTweet para el iPhone.

Desventajas

- Twitter se considera como un medio de intercambio entre amigos y familiares éste puede resultar una verdadera pérdida de tiempo (a menos que alguno de ellos realice una actividad de gran interés para nosotros) porque entre blogs, sitios, correos, chats y Facebook, sinceramente ¿quién tiene capacidad para pertenecer a un medio más en Internet?
- Otra desventaja es que aún no existe una versión de Twitter en español. Sin embargo, una vez teniendo una idea general de su funcionamiento, usarlo puede ser muy sencillo. En sus inicios, Facebook tampoco estaba disponible en otros idiomas y eso no constituyó ningún obstáculo para sus millones usuarios alrededor del mundo.

Ventajas

Si se le da un uso correcto, Twitter puede resultar de gran utilidad ya que es un excelente medio para:

- Mantenerse enterado —en todo momento— de lo que sucede en el mundo o en la vida de los personajes que admiramos.
- Obtener respuestas inmediatas a preguntas simples, preguntas especializadas entre un grupo de colegas o levantar sondeos de opinión (¿Cuál es tu película favorita?)
- Políticos que deseen mantener informada a la población sobre sus actividades y campañas.
- Noticieros, periódicos y otros medios con notas de última hora o información relevante.
- Avisos de urgencia sobre huracanes, tormentas, incendios y otros fenómenos naturales o catástrofes.
- Cantantes o artistas que pretenden dar a conocer sus próximos discos, películas o presentaciones.
- Escritores que desean informar sobre sus nuevos libros, artículos o posts en sus blogs.
- Anuncios y promociones de todo tipo de empresas como restaurantes, librerías y tiendas de ropa, entre muchas otras.

También existen, dentro de Twitter, algunas reglas de etiqueta para utilizarlo de manera adecuada, pero éstas sólo se pueden ir aprendiendo sobre la marcha. En el caso de movimientos sociales o acontecimientos políticos, Twitter también puede ser una herramienta exitosa, durante y después de las elecciones en Irán, Twitter resultó ser un medio súper efectivo para mantener informado al mundo sobre lo que estaba sucediendo en el país. Existen cientos de usos positivos que se les pueden dar a esta herramienta digital ya que ningún medio hasta ahora ha logrado la misma cercanía e inmediatez en el intercambio de datos, la clave estriba en saber qué y a quien seguir y ser inteligente a la hora de seleccionar de otra manera, se corre el riesgo de terminar sumergido en un mar de información excesiva e irrelevante.

Una de las actividades del profesionista egresado de cualquiera de las carreras de la facultad de Ciencias Administrativas, es la de generar información que debe ser oportuna, veraz, confiable entre otros atributos, la que servirá de base para la toma de decisiones de distinta índole. Las autoridades fiscales imponen obligaciones tanto sustantivas como adjetivas, siendo las primeras de pago y las segundas de información, de control, es decir, constantemente se tiene que presentar avisos, declaraciones informativas de clientes y proveedores.

Problemática

En el caso de la enseñanza de impuestos en cuanto a la presentación de las declaraciones ya sean de pago o de información, así como la de contribuciones de seguridad social, para efectos de que el alumno esté en condiciones de preparar y enviar este tipo de información se enfrenta a un obstáculo que es el de no poder experimentar la transmisión de sus conocimientos adquiridos ya que para hacerlo necesita una clave digital que solamente la poseen los contribuyentes activos, además de ser información de carácter confidencial.

Proceso

Se reconoce internacionalmente que los modelos vigentes de formación profesional resultan inadecuados ante las características del nuevo contexto debido a que la formación se ha limitado al espacio escolar, en donde los estudiantes consumen cierta información –en ocasiones obsoleta- y adquieren habilidades y eventualmente actitudes y valores implicados en los perfiles establecidos con base en ciertas suposiciones acerca del individuo, de sus procesos cognoscitivos y socio afectivos, así como de la actividad que realizará como profesional que en poco contribuyen a su pertinencia. Se pretende formar estudiantes como profesionales creativos, innovadores, con capacidad para resolver de manera ética y competente las situaciones que su actividad académica y su práctica profesional les presentará en su momento. Como una propuesta que se pretende desarrollar competencias en el alumno es el de diseñar un portal utilizando java, donde el alumnado enviará la información de prácticas problemáticas de empresas, por medio de una clave y una identificación digital que será individualizado aplicado por áreas de conocimiento mediante prácticas hipotéticas. Prensky señala, que el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje que vivieron nuestras generaciones pasadas dista mucha con las actuales ya que, los estudiantes de hoy -a través de la universidad- representan las primeras generaciones formadas por la rápida difusión de la tecnología digital arribada a fines del siglo pasado, quienes poseen en su inventario de conocimientos muchas horas del uso de computadoras, juegos de videos, teléfonos celulares, otros juguetes y herramientas de la edad digital, los juegos de computadora, el correo electrónico, Internet, telefonía celular y la mensajería inmediata son partes integrantes de sus vidas. Esta interacción con la tecnología, señala, los estudiantes de hoy piensan y procesan la información diferentemente a sus precursores. Se utilizó una plantilla para implementar las TICs, recomendada por la ANUIES que es la siguiente

Materia:							
Tema	Objetivo uso TIC	Técnica Didáctica	Presencial (p) Distancia (d)	E libro	Audio	Foto	Video 15 min
x							
Redes Sociales							Portal virtual
Cine Celular 3 min		Twitter	Blog	Ning			

Para enfrentar la teoría con la práctica en relación con el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje en las cátedras de impuestos se está innovando en la creación de una red social interna en la que los alumnos no solo envíen sus prácticas de la información que tienen que efectuar en la vida profesional, sino que también les permita intercambiar conceptos, y no nada más en la carrera de Contaduría sino en las carreras como Informática y administración de empresas, responsables en su momento de la administración y automatización de la información para la eficiente toma de Decisiones

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FACTORES DETERMINANTES DE LA CALIDAD DEL SERVICIO DE UNA CAFETERÍA EN EL CAMPUS DE UNA UNIVERSIDAD PÚBLICA

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RESUMEN

Este trabajo presenta el análisis de la validez y confiabilidad de un instrumento de medición de la calidad del servicio de las cafeterías universitarias. Su objetivo consiste en validar una escala, de 19 ítems empleada para evaluar la calidad del servicio percibido por los clientes de la cafetería de una universidad pública; para lograrlo se realizó un estudio en una población de 297 usuarios, en el cual se evaluaron las propiedades de una escala integrada por tres variables. La validez lógica y de contenido fue evaluada por un grupo de expertos, mientras que para indagar la estructura subyacente de los ítems se empleó el análisis de componentes principales con rotación Varimax. Los resultados revelan la existencia de tres variables que explican el 63.186% de la variación. Las pruebas de validez y consistencia interna de la escala son satisfactorias. El instrumento quedó integrado por 19 ítems cuyo Alfa de Cronbach fue 0.923. Por lo anterior, se puede afirmar que el instrumento es válido y útil para evaluar la calidad de los servicios de las cafeterías en el campus en donde se realizó la investigación.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Calidad del servicio, cafeterías, universidad pública

INTRODUCCIÓN

La necesidad de mejorar constantemente los servicios obliga a las organizaciones a buscar herramientas fiables para evaluarlos (Gadotti y França, 2008). Esta búsqueda se ha tornado difícil debido a la existencia de características diferenciadoras entre los productos y los servicios; evaluar la calidad de un producto resulta ser un proceso sumamente sencillo debido a que cada producto suele tener especificaciones definidas con respecto a qué factores determinan su calidad, en el caso de un servicio, este proceso es complicado por motivo de su naturaleza.

A pesar de ello, en la actualidad se han publicado una gran cantidad de instrumentos de medición sobre calidad del servicio; sin embargo, aún existen servicios que se prestan en contextos muy específicos que no han sido evaluados. Un ejemplo de esto es la medición de la calidad del servicio de las cafeterías ubicadas en los campus universitarios, de ahí la necesidad de realizar el diseño o la adaptación de modelos que permitan una medición más real del tipo de servicio considerando cuestiones culturales o particulares que pueden interferir significativamente en la percepción del consumidor.

Esta reflexión dio origen al presente estudio, el cual se centra en la adaptación de la escala de Varela et al. (2006) para aplicarse a los usuarios de las cafeterías ubicadas en un campus universitario. Su objetivo consiste en validar una escala de 19 ítems que permita no solo evaluar la calidad del servicio sino que también, a través de ella, sea factible identificar el desempeño de los concesionarios de las cafeterías. La información que se presenta en este trabajo se organiza así: después de la introducción se hace una breve revisión de la literatura sobre el tema, posteriormente se describe la metodología empleada en el estudio y, finalmente, se presentan los resultados y conclusiones.

REVISIÓN DE LA LITERATURA

De acuerdo a su naturaleza, las características que identifican a un servicio son la intangibilidad, la no diferenciación entre producción y entrega y, la inseparabilidad entre la producción y consumo; esas diferencia constituyen el fundamento para la determinación de la calidad del servicio (Duque, 2005).

Actualmente abunda una gran diversidad y cantidad de modelos de medición en el sector de servicios, pero los más utilizados son los modelos SERVQUAL y SERVPERF, cuya fiabilidad y eficacia ya ha sido demostrada por innumerables investigaciones empíricas. El modelo SERVQUAL fue desarrollado por Parasuraman, Zeithaml y Berry (1985, 1988). Este instrumento realiza la evaluación por separado de las expectativas y percepciones de un cliente, basándose en los comentarios hechos por los consumidores participantes en la investigación. Después de llevar a cabo amplias revisiones al modelo, la versión final queda reducida a cinco variables: Confianza (empatía), Fiabilidad, Responsabilidad, Capacidad de respuesta y Tangibilidad (Duque, 2005).

Por su parte el modelo SERVPERF publicado por Cronin y Taylor, en 1992, propone una medida sólo basada en las percepciones; ésta es más corta que el modelo SERVQUAL y presenta menores problemas de validez. Este modelo se compone de los 22 ítems de la escala SERVQUAL pero utilizado exclusivamente para medir las percepciones del servicio.

Por lo que se refiere al estudio de la calidad de los servicios en restaurantes y universidades, el volumen de investigaciones publicadas es reducido. En el caso de restaurantes se reportan pocos trabajos, uno de ellos es el trabajo de Varela y colaboradores (2006) quienes aplicaron una escala propia en los restaurantes de hostelerías españolas; después de varios ajustes, proponen un instrumento de cuatro variables (producto, personal, instalaciones y acceso) distribuidas en tan sólo 15 ítems que muestran una elevada consistencia interna.

Precisamente en esta investigación se tomó como referencia el trabajo de Varela et al. (2006), considerando únicamente tres variables: personal, instalaciones y producto, de acuerdo a las particularidades del contexto en donde se aplica.

METODOLOGÍA

Para alcanzar el objetivo se realizó un estudio con diseño no experimental, transversal, caracterizado como exploratorio. El cuestionario fue aplicado únicamente a aquellos usuarios que tuvieran interés en compartir su opinión sobre los servicios, un total de 297 clientes de las cuatro cafeterías con cede en uno de los campus de una universidad pública, empleando la técnica muestreo no probabilístico de forma casual a conveniencia de la investigación (Hernández et al., 2006).

De la muestra, el 88.8% son estudiantes (262), el 8.1% empleados administrativos y solo el 1.4% fueron docentes. Respecto al género, el 55.2% fueron mujeres y el 43.8% hombres. En relación a la edad, 163 usuarios (54.9%) tienen menos de 20 años, 98 usuarios (33%) tienen entre 21 y 30 años mientras que el resto de los participantes tiene arriba de los 30 años.

El instrumento referido se compone por 19 ítems agrupados en tres variables fundamentales cuya técnica de escalamiento es tipo Likert de cinco categorías de respuesta, en el cual las anclas son 1= muy mala y

5= muy buena. La información obtenida fue procesada con el paquete *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS)® para posteriormente determinar si la escala presenta consistencia interna y validez satisfactorias para aplicarse en el contexto estudiado.

RESULTADOS

En la validez de contenido, se consideraron los trabajos de Vera y Trujillo (2004), Mejías, Villegas y Maneiro (2009) y Varela, Prat, Voces y Rial (2006). Adicionalmente, la escala fue sometida a escrutinio por parte de expertos en el tema quienes validaron los fundamentos teóricos de la misma estimando que existe buena claridad en la especificidad de concepto. Atendiendo al criterio de los mismos expertos y para dar mayor calidad al factor, se realizaron modificaciones a la redacción de los ítems 4 y 13, buscando una mayor comprensión de los enunciados.

Tabla 1: Matriz rotada de los determinantes de la calidad de los servicios de una cafetería universitaria

Variables (Factores)	Ítems	Carga Factorial		
		1	2	3
Productos	1. La amplitud y variedad de la carta (Menú) es	.656		
	2. La calidad del alimento es	.784		
	3. El sabor del alimento es	.763		
	4. La temperatura del alimento es	.688		
	5. La cantidad del alimento que se sirve es	.811		
	6. La presentación del alimento es	.793		
	7. La relación entre la calidad del alimento y el precio es	.650		
Instalaciones	8. La comodidad y ambiente del local es		.588	
	9. La decoración y mobiliario del local es		.715	
	10. La limpieza del local y sus alrededores es		.686	
	11. La limpieza del área en donde se elaboran los alimentos es		.553	
	12. La iluminación del local es		.765	
	13. La temperatura del local es		.767	
	14. El nivel del ruido del local es		.666	
Personal	15. La limpieza y equipamientos de los baños es		.701	
	16. La amabilidad del personal que lo atiende es			.814
	17. La higiene y vestimenta del personal que lo atiende es			.783
	18. La rapidez del servicio es			.572
	19. La confianza que le inspira el personal es			.676

En esta Tabla se muestra el resultado del análisis de factores; la segunda columna de esta tabla describe los ítems de las variables que integran la calidad del servicio de una cafetería, mientras que en la tercera columna, se anotan sus cargas factoriales. Método de extracción: Análisis de Componentes Principales. Método de Rotación Varimax. Elaboración propia

La validez de constructo (identificación de los factores que determinan la calidad del servicio de las cafeterías) se realizó empleado la técnica estadística del análisis factorial. Previo se verificó la adecuación muestral de los datos disponibles mediante dos indicadores del grado de asociación de las variables como son las pruebas de Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) y de esfericidad de Barlett. El KMO fue de .923 y la prueba de esfericidad de Barlett ($C^2=3019.672$; $p=.000$ para 171 gl), lo cual indica que los datos son adecuados para el uso del modelo de análisis factorial (Lévy y Varela, 2003).

El resultado del análisis de factores (método de componentes principales) reveló la existencia de tres factores que logran explicar el 63.186% de la variabilidad de los datos, del cual un 23.494% corresponde al primer factor, un 23.151% al segundo factor y, finalmente, el 16.541% al tercer factor.

Al analizar la matriz de la Tabla 1 se observa que el factor 1 aparece asociado a los ítems 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 y 7 (cargas factoriales mayores que 0,5) y está, por tanto, vinculado a la amplitud, calidad, sabor, temperatura, presentación y relación alimento/precio. Por su parte, los ítems 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 y 15 asociados a las instalaciones físicas de las cafeterías, quedan resumidos en el factor 2. El factor 3 está constituido por los ítems 16, 17, 18 y 19 relativos a las cualidades del personal que atiende las cafeterías.

Para determinar la fiabilidad de la escala se utilizó el coeficiente de consistencia interna Alfa de Cronbach, en la Tabla 2 se muestran los coeficientes alfa para la escala. Considerando que el valor de éste varía entre 0 y 1, en la medida que se acerca a 1 indica una mayor fiabilidad puede decirse que la escala de 19 ítems presenta una fiabilidad muy adecuada ($\alpha = 0.932$). Por subescalas, la variable producto presenta un incremento en su fiabilidad ($\alpha = 0.911$) respecto a las otras variables; $\alpha = 0.79$ y $\alpha = 0.88$ para personal e instalaciones, respectivamente.

Tabla 2: Consistencia interna de la escala

Variables de la Calidad del Servicio	Alfa de Cronbach (unidad de análisis N=297)	Número de Ítem
Producto	0.911	7
Instalaciones	0.886	8
Personal	0.794	4
TOTAL:	0.932	19

La Tabla describe los índices de confiabilidad de cada una de las variables que integran la Calidad del Servicio de las cafeterías, así como el número de ítems que conforman cada una de las variables. Fuente: Elaboración propia, cálculo efectuado a través del SPSS 19

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados del análisis factorial revelan que las tres variables propuestas para integrar la escala de medición original, dan las cargas factoriales satisfactorias para ser incluidas como integrantes del instrumento; por tanto, el modelo quedó integrado por tres variables (personal, instalaciones y producto) distribuidas en 19 ítems que explican alrededor del 63% de la varianza total.

La alta consistencia interna detectada, mediante el Alfa de Cronbach, para las subescalas del instrumento de medición desarrollado es un indicador suficientemente de su alta fiabilidad; esto es, existe una alta homogeneidad y equivalencias en las respuestas. El alfa de Cronbach global para este estudio fue 0.932, muy cercano al reportado por Varela et al. (2006) para un instrumento similar utilizado para medir la calidad de los servicios de hostelería.

Mediante esta investigación, se constató que instrumento desarrollado posee características psicométricas adecuadas, por lo cual unido a su brevedad y fácil aplicación, puede servir como base para la realización de estudios empíricos y convertirse en una herramienta importante para asegurar la calidad del servicio de las cafeterías y evaluar el desempeño de los concesionarios de dichos establecimientos.

Finalmente, debe considerarse que la muestra estudiada es no probabilística por lo tanto los resultados de esta investigación deberán tomarse con reserva porque no existe la seguridad de que cada unidad muestral integre a la población total en el proceso de selección de la muestra, por lo cual no es factible hacer inferencias sobre la calidad del servicio de las cafeterías. Esta característica se convierte en una limitante; no obstante, la información obtenida resulta útil para el establecimiento de un marco de referencia para investigaciones posteriores, en este sentido, sería recomendable ampliar el diseño muestral para lograr una representatividad más importante.

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EVALUACIÓN DEL NIVEL TECNOLÓGICO DE LAS PEQUEÑAS Y MEDIANAS EMPRESAS (PYMES) DEL SECTOR SERVICIO EN MEXICALI, BAJA CALIFORNIA

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Sin lugar a dudas, las PYMES se encuentran actualmente ante una oportunidad histórica por lo que respecta al aumento de su competitividad mediante el uso inteligente de las nuevas tecnologías. El primer requerimiento tecnológico es poseer un procesamiento de datos funcional y eficiente. Por eso es necesaria una automatización y una integración de los principales procesos internos y externos de la empresa. Partiendo de esta premisa es importante conocer la situación que guardan dichas empresas en cuanto a equipo de cómputo el uso que a este se le da, el software que posee y en el caso de aquellas que aún no han integrado tecnología, conocer la razón de ello. De acuerdo a datos proporcionados por SIEM Sistema Empresarial Mexicano en Mexicali se localizan un total de 4,098 empresas registradas, de las cuales 1432 son de servicios. Basado en lo anterior se pretende conocer el estado que guarda la infraestructura tecnológica en las PYMES en Mexicali. Buscando áreas de oportunidad para empresas que se dedican al giro de tecnología al mismo tiempo acercar a las empresas a apoyos de gobierno y crear padrón de organizaciones susceptibles de capacitación en este giro.

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LA EDUCACIÓN CONTINÚA COMO MEDIO PARA APOYAR LA COMPETITIVIDAD DE LAS PYMES Y LA VINCULACIÓN EMPRESARIAL CON LAS INSTITUCIONES DE EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR

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RESUMEN

La competitividad de los egresados de las Instituciones de Educación Superior es cada vez mayor en un mundo globalizado, por lo que no deben de permanecer ajenos a la problemática social y económica de las organizaciones que requieren sus servicios. Las necesidades de las pequeñas y medianas empresas (PYMES), son cambiantes y específicas de acuerdo al sector que se desenvuelven y a su entorno económico. Por ello las instituciones de Educación Superior tienen la misión de formar no sólo a los profesionistas, si no de dar continuidad a sus requerimientos de formación de manera permanente. Es apremiante contar con esquemas de vinculación efectivos, donde se presenten casos de éxitos que demuestren el apoyo a la PYMES y se extienda a las demás organizaciones la consultoría empresarial, misma que fortalece la capacitación a profesores y estudiantes avanzados, así como la creación de programas de servicio social asociados a créditos donde se observe una mejoría sustancial tanto del aprovechamiento del estudiante como de los indicadores de desempeño de las PYMES. En el caso que se presenta, se evidenciará el éxito de la colaboración sinergizada de profesores, estudiantes y de la empresa a la que se brindó consultoría.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Educación continua, Vinculación empresarial, PYMES, Consultoría, Cuadro de mando Integral.

JUSTIFICACIÓN.

En un entorno cada vez más competitivo, donde las reglas que han regido la economía están en entre dicho, las organizaciones necesitan tener más claro cuál es su razón de ser en el mercado o misión, y a donde quieren llegar cuándo, cómo y con qué recursos o lo que conocemos como visión. Si se clasifica el rumbo, se presenta el crecimiento y los resultados mejoran sustancialmente. Pero si las empresas con menos recursos como las pequeñas y las medianas empresas (PYMES) desconocen su mercado, su cliente, su competencia, sus fortalezas y debilidades, tanto como las amenazas del entorno, es muy posible que también dejen de ver sus oportunidades.

Cuando por primera vez Kaplan y Norton (2007) señalaron que los resultados de la eficiencia operativa de las empresas no solamente estaban en función de sus utilidades o su salud financiera, varios analistas y estudios de la administración leyeron primero su incredulidad, luego con asombro y admiración los resultados de sus estudios con las quinientas empresas más exitosas del mundo. Al argumentar con evidencias exitosas, que su secreto de su éxito residía precisamente en la medición de sus dimensiones financieras así como operativas, incluyeron adicionalmente otros parámetros como el conocimiento de las

necesidades del cliente, ya abordada por Crosby (1987) y la revisión continua de sus indicadores de desempeño operativo en el estudio de la calidad, (Juran 1964).

El incluir la estrategia corporativa al capital intelectual como uno de los indicadores claves y la innovación como el pulmón que impulsa al crecimiento, el mundo de los negocios dejó entrever su secreto para compartirlo con las pequeñas y medianas empresas (PYMES) y de esta forma, apoyarlas en su búsqueda por el mejoramiento de su eficacia, incremento de sus indicadores financieros y sobre todo, la satisfacción del cliente.

Frente este escenario y ante una exigencia de productos y servicios de calidad, las Instituciones de Educación Superior (IES) han adquirido el compromiso de colaborar y apoyar en la búsqueda de alternativa de solución, para que los profesionistas que se estén formando, brinden soluciones aplicables a la problemática del entorno en el que se desenvuelvan y que las mismas empresas u organizaciones sean quienes planteen su requerimiento tanto capital intelectual como la asesoría y capacitación.

De ahí que la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California, asume al reto de transformarse en una comunidad de aprendizaje e innovación, que propicia la Educación Continua y a lo largo de toda la vida de esos egresados, fomente la vida colegiada y la vinculación con las empresas y los diversos sectores a la que sirve. El presente trabajo, es una muestra de que los servicios que se ofertan a los sectores productivos y de servicios, a través de área de Educación Continua de la Facultad de Ciencias Administrativas (FCA), abordan la necesidad de colaborar en la asesoría de las PYMES, no sólo en la identificación de su problemática al impartir capacitación empresarial, sino fungiendo como un consultor que le permita detectar y prevenir problemáticas que mermen su eficiencia operativa.

METODOLOGÍA.

La propuesta que se plantea en ese estudio, es un Plan Estratégico que se diseñó partiendo de un enfoque sistemático, basado en la metodología de Robert Kaplan y David Norton, denominada Balanced Scorecard, o BSC, y que fue presentada por primera vez en 1992. Su metodología permite vislumbrar a la empresa desde cuatro aspectos: perspectiva del cliente, perspectivas interna del negocio (operaciones) y la perspectiva de innovación y aprendizaje, que involucra al capital humano.

La empresa tuvo su primer contacto con la Facultad de las Ciencias Administrativas (FCA) de la Universidad Autónoma de Baja California (UABC) a través del área de Vinculación, ya que requerían un estudio de mercado para tomar decisiones respecto a la apertura de una nueva plaza en el estado. Fue en el transcurso de varias entrevistas que los gerentes de mayoreo y menudeo de la empresa solicitaron un curso de capacitación en BSC, a sugerencia del despacho consultor que los veía asesorando por parte de la casa matriz. Luego de hacerles algunas preguntas de diagnóstico, se llegó a la conclusión de que se requerían más elementos para impartir BSC, ya que la empresa acababa de concluir un curso en Planeación Estratégica donde no obtuvieron los resultados que esperaban.

Con la colaboración de los líderes de las áreas de administración, compras, ventas, recursos humanos y operaciones, se realizó durante 6 meses la primera etapa que consistió en el proceso de diagnóstico en el que participaron en conjunto con los gerentes de mayoreo y menudeo, aplicando un análisis FODA en cada uno de sus departamentos.

Con los resultados obtenidos se procedió a analizar los parámetros establecidos por la casa matriz, misma que no contaba con toda la información para establecer comparaciones realistas y deseables para cada una de sus sucursales, por lo que se definieron de acuerdo al siguiente plan estratégico por módulos:

Planeación Estratégica: Gerencia y bandos medios definirán las estrategias de acción para las necesidades inmediatas de la empresa.

Desarrollo del Capital Humano: Gerencia y mandos medios elaboran su plan personal de desarrollo acorde a las necesidades de la empresa.

Mejoramiento de Procesos Operativos: Al término de este taller todo el personal será capaz de optimizar sus recursos, sus espacios de trabajo y desarrollar las habilidades para estimular la productividad.

Mejoramiento del Servicio al Cliente: Se adquieren conocimientos, habilidades y actitudes encaminadas a reconocer la importancia de satisfacer las necesidades y deseos de la empresa.

Mejoramiento de Procesos Financieros: El personal de las áreas administrativas adquirirán las habilidades para aplicar herramientas financieras para la toma de decisiones exitosas.

En la segunda fase, en los siguientes tres meses se establecieron los procesos críticos de la empresa, adoptando un Plan de Capacitación para aquellos que requerían ser atendidos primordialmente y que, indican en la atención al cliente.

Una vez analizados los indicadores que el mismo personal elaboró, se procedió al diseño de estrategias que subsanaran las debilidades más apremiantes y las de solución sencilla, posteriormente se eligen aquellas que requieren una estrategia conjunta, es decir, en las que se involucran de manera conjunta las demás áreas.

ANÁLISIS DE RESULTADOS.

Fue hasta la segunda etapa, cuando comenzaron a notarse cambios no solo en los indicadores de desempeño que los mismos encargados de áreas fijaron, sino entre el personal que colaboro en el monitoreo de sus propios indicadores y los de otras áreas. Con el apoyo de dos estudiantes de la Licenciatura en Informática, se diseñaron los indicadores de desempeño operacional y se monitorearon los resultados en dos meses siguientes al término de la capacitación.

El resultado más inmediato se dio en ventas. Del mes de septiembre a octubre de 2008, las ventas se incrementaron en 5% solo en un mes. Así mismo, el área de atención a clientes que antes de la aplicación del Plan Estratégico no se habían establecido mecanismos de medición tales como evaluaciones al desempeño o alguna otra herramienta como el buzón de sugerencias, se comenzó a utilizar y los trabajadores de ventas en el área de piso lograron incrementar su eficiencia en un 8 %, ya que es un área con rotación mayor a otras como mayoreo, donde los empleados cuentan con más de 10 años de servicio en comparación con el área de menudeo donde el promedio es de 3 años.

Sin embargo, en áreas como en las de mantenimiento y almacén, informados del proceso por el que atravesaba la empresa, a pesar de la recesión económica que ya comenzaba a sentirse en la tienda, los trabajadores encontraron que midiendo su desempeño de manera diaria y visualizando su resultado,

fomentaba entre ellos la creatividad y el espíritu de equipo. Sus indicadores desempeño fueron los que denotaron mayores incrementos de hasta un 50% de mejoramiento, en comparación con el mes anterior.

En el aspecto financiero, se detectó el conocimiento básico de finanzas por parte de los encargados del manejo administrativo de la empresa, por lo que se capacitó en análisis financieros para que los gerentes, comprendieran e interpretaran la información financiera con sólo observar las razones como liquidez, rentabilidad, endeudamiento, rotación de inventarios y de cuentas por cobrar y por pagar.

El mejoramiento de las operaciones ocurrió casi desde la capacitación, ya que aún contando con un manual de organización correspondientes, su falta de actualización impedía a los trabajadores su aplicación formal, creando ellos mismos procedimientos semejantes pero sin estandarización.

Con el establecimiento de procedimientos simples, documentados y monitoreados por ellos mismos, se abatió el rezago en inventarios, las mermas y pérdidas de material, una de las debilidades cuyo costo se desconocía y que al estimarlo posteriormente, se detectaron desviaciones considerables para el encargo del área.

CONCLUSIONES

Al término de esta experiencia, la FCA logró la formación de un equipo de doce profesores capacitados en consultoría e instrucción para la capacitación ante la Secretaria de Trabajo y Prevención Social. Se colocaron dos estudiantes avanzados de informática y están en proceso dos estudiantes mas para la realización de sus estancias y aprendizaje. La empresa asesorada, mejoró en su eficiencia operativa, fundada desde la perspectiva de los clientes y de la de los trabajadores, se observaron los 4 indicadores de la madurez de un equipo de trabajo y además, en su principal fortaleza: Sentido de realización personal, responsabilidad compartida, proactividad y sentido de independencia.

La actitud de sus miembros denotó gran capacidad de organización y prevención de errores o defectos en las operaciones, lo que contribuye a una mejor organización del trabajo conjunto. En opinión de los trabajadores de primera línea, esta experiencia los unió mas como equipo, detectaron sus fortalezas no sólo como empresa, sino también como el capital humano que impulsa el desarrollo de la economía ideal.

En la opinión de la propia empresa, esta experiencia les permitió confiar en las instituciones de educación superior y acudir a solicitar alternativas viables para la solución de problemas concretos. Por lo anterior, podemos afirmar que la Vinculación a través de la Educación Continua y los programas de Servicio Social así como las Estancias de Aprendizaje, son una prueba de que el trabajo en equipo con la Facultad de Ciencias Administración es posible y da resultados exitosos tangibles.

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REALIDADES Y OPORTUNIDADES DE EMPLEO EN MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

Según información y datos estadísticos referentes a reportes del Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) hablando sobre el desempleo en México, se estima que el porcentaje de este a lo que va del año en menor a lo registrado en mismas fechas de 2010. Las ofertas de trabajo están variando dependiendo a los profesionales. Se estima que el porcentaje de desempleo en México es menor al de países como Estados Unidos, España o Japón por mencionar algunos, pero no se puede comparar el salario mínimo de estos países antes mencionados con los nuestros, ya que este hace el nivel de vida de los ciudadanos de escasa calidad en comparación con ellos y por tal motivo, empujando a las personas por empleos siempre de tiempo completo. El empleo en México no está mejor que en los países que se mencionan según todas las estadísticas, por las cuestiones que se mencionan. Y por tal motivo esto comienza a realizar una cadena de malos hábitos que no termina, los padres de familia se ocupan más en su área laboral, ya que cada vez los empleos exigen más tiempo, mas actividades, presión, etc. Y poco a poco van descuidando su relación familiar, descuidando también la educación de sus hijos, están más tiempo fuera de casa y esta falta de atención se refleja cada vez más en jóvenes que dejan la escuela, adquieren malos hábitos, malas amistades y desorientados descuidan sus responsabilidades en el estudio. Cada vez hay jóvenes menos preparados, cuando la realidad para poder sobresalir y obtener un buen empleo es seguir estudiando, especializarse y como mínimo manejar dos o más idiomas.

Palabras claves: Empleo, Desempleo, salario mínimo, nivel de vida, educación y familia.

INTRODUCCIÓN

El empleo, dice Manpower, es un factor en franca recuperación en México. Se prospecta que en el primer trimestres de 2011, 20% de las empresas y otras instituciones que ofrecen empleos en México incrementen su plantilla laboral, con lo cual se crearían 200 mil fuentes de trabajo. No obstante, 72% de las empresas dijo que no tendrá cambios en su personal y 6% planea reducirlo. Esta información fue revelada durante la presentación de resultados de la Encuesta de Expectativas de Empleo, organizada por Manpower y aplicada a una muestra de 4 mil 800 empresarios en todo México.

La directora general de Manpower México y Centroamérica, Mónica Flores, dijo que los sectores que crearán más plazas de trabajo son manufactura, minería, extracción y comercio, mientras que los que menos empleos generarán serán los de agricultura y pesca. Asimismo, dijo Flores, las regiones del noroeste tendrán un mayor ritmo de contratación. En tanto que el Valle de México y occidente decaen en esta tendencia de ofertas de trabajo. Y serán los estados de Monterrey, Guadalajara, Querétaro y León los que lideren en la lista, en tanto que Puebla reporta una tendencia a la baja. En el 2010, se crearon 900 mil empleos, de los cuales se estimó 200 mil se perderían por tendencias estacionales, con lo cual se habrán creado en el año 700 mil empleos.

Los perfiles y profesionales más buscados en el 2011 son: técnicos en producción, soldadores, carpinteros, plomeros; los perfiles relacionados con la salud como enfermeras, terapeutas, médicos, especialistas y personal dedicado al cuidado de ancianos y niños; las áreas con vocación de ventas y servicios, así como ingenieros de todo tipo, y profesionistas con dominio de una segunda lengua.

En contraste, los profesionales egresados de carreras como Derecho, ciencias de la comunicación y Mercadotecnia, serán los que tendrán menor demanda en el mercado laboral, esto, refirió la directora general de Manpower México y Centroamérica, es debido a que hay una sobrepoblación de egresados en dichas áreas y pocos empleos.

Según la información provista por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI), el Desempleo México Enero 2011 fue de 5.43% del total de la población económicamente activa (PEA).

Como destacable, el porcentaje actual es menor al registrado en enero 2010, cuando la desocupación alcanzó al 5.87% de la PEA.

En base a los datos del Instituto Nacional de Geografía, según la distinción por sexo, la tasa de desempleo en los hombres cayó de 6.16% a 5.61% y la de las mujeres cayó de 5.41% a 5.11% de enero de 2010 a enero 2011.

Cabe mencionar que, un 28.8% de los desocupados no completó los estudios de secundaria, pero los de mayor nivel de instrucción representaron al 71.2%. En cuanto a los datos acerca de subocupación son de 44.6% y de 55.4%, respectivamente para ambos sexos.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

Según reporte de la OCDE (2011), México está viviendo una sólida recuperación luego de la profunda recesión que experimentó como consecuencia de la fuerte desaceleración global, lo que se demuestra en un crecimiento del PIB de 5.5% en 2010 y un estimado de 4.4 % para 2011.

Aunque se espera observar una desaceleración del crecimiento de las exportaciones después del repunte excepcional de 2010, la fortaleza de la demanda doméstica mantendrá la recuperación en marcha. Varios indicadores del mercado laboral han mejorado, si bien el desempleo está disminuyendo de manera lenta. México empezó ya a retirar el estímulo fiscal vigente desde 2009 y se aumentaron los impuestos para tranquilizar las inquietudes del mercado acerca de las tendencias fiscales. Si la recuperación evoluciona como se espera, el gobierno podrá poner en marcha sus planes para reducir el déficit presupuestario aún más por medio del control del gasto. Puesto que la inflación ha disminuido, la política monetaria está en posibilidades de apoyar la recuperación manteniendo las tasas bajas en el corto plazo.

Cyrille Schweltnus, economista de estudios económicos de México de la organización para la Cooperación y el Desarrollo Económico (OCDE), expuso que en el año 2011, la tasa de desempleo en el país será de 6%, más elevada que antes de la crisis. "Un problema es que el desempleo va creciendo y continuará haciéndolo de acuerdo con nuestro pronóstico hacia mediados de 2011, y esto evidentemente será un lastre para el consumo privado y la demanda interna", dijo en la presentación del "Panorama Económico Mundial 2009".

Los clásicos de la economía. Adam Smith (1723-1790) definía que el empleo o el pleno empleo estaba determinado por la variación de los salarios, tratando de decir: que cuando los salarios eran altos se genera desempleo, y cuando existían variaciones del salario (bajos) se estaría llegando aún pleno empleo, porque se aumenta la población en ocupación. En pocas palabras el empleo estaba determinado por la variación de los salarios. David Ricardo (1772-1823) tenía la convicción de que al presentarse un aumento en la maquinaria, aumentaría inercialmente la demanda laboral, y con ello llegaría el aumento de la producción, bajo este esquema también se presentaría el pleno empleo, este tema está más ligado al factor de producción, como medio generador de empleo.

Para Carlos Marx (1818–1883) el desempleo se genera por la producción y reproducción de capital y a su vez a la acumulación del capital, esto genera en la población desempleos crónicos, flotantes e intermitentes, pues esta producción, reproducción y acumulación del capital genera ejércitos industriales de reserva, que son la mano de obra disponible para el proceso de producción capitalista. La solución según Marx, el Estado debe regular y distribuir los recursos, con participación del proletariado o de los obreros para realizar una producción planificada.

El empleo está determinado en gran parte por la demanda real que genera la sociedad y esta a su vez, tiene que estar determinada por sus salarios reales para así conllevar al aumento de la producción, de la reproducción de fábricas que serían las que reciben la nueva mano de obra laboral y que incorpora la población económicamente activa, vistas desde un punto de vista capitalista. La otra posibilidad es, que se puede generar dentro de una economía planificada e intervención estatal, como lo propone Marx el pleno empleo. Desde mi perspectiva y más desde lo humanista, que economista, cualquiera que sea la forma de generar empleo, de estos dos sistemas mencionadas, lo importante es que los seres humanos con obligaciones sociales y familiares, tengan unos ingresos para suplir sus necesidades. De lo contrario aparecerá el concepto de desempleo.

CONCLUSIÓN

El desempleo en nuestro país ya es un aspecto delicado, considero que no se le da una real importancia y que está directamente relacionado con la cultura y la calidad de la educación que se imparten en nuestras Universidades. Es necesario, además, modificar las leyes actuales relacionadas con el aspecto laboral, fiscal y la forma de manejar el sindicalismo de la educación en nuestro sistema mexicano. Si bien es cierto que estamos por debajo de muchos países con respecto al porcentaje del desempleo, pero también es importante señalar que el salario (capacidad adquisitiva) es mejor y nunca comparable con el nuestro. El principal problema radica en que actualmente, las personas que tienen empleo, no les es suficiente y se ven en la necesidad de tener dos trabajos diferentes, descuidando de esta manera la integración familiar, teniendo como consecuencia cada vez más jóvenes menos preparados para hacer frente a los nuevos retos internacionales.

La empresa líder en Recursos Humanos Manpower, a nivel internacional es un buen referente respecto a las declaraciones que hace recientemente, respecto a que el nivel de empleo se ha ido incrementando. Sin embargo, sería interesante, señalar, las condiciones laborales en las cuales se desarrollan la mayoría del personal operativo en las organizaciones del sector maquilador principalmente.

Otro aspecto a considerar es el reporte de la OCDE (2011), donde hace referencia a que México está viviendo una sólida recuperación luego de la profunda recesión que experimentó como consecuencia de

la fuerte desaceleración global, lo que se demuestra en un crecimiento del PIB de 5.5% en 2010 y un estimado de 4.4 % para 2011.

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CENTRO ECO-TURÍSTICO EXCAMÉ

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RESUMEN

Una interconexión entre la naturaleza y el ser humano es el ecoturismo, el cual intenta que las relaciones sean lo más ecológica posibles, es por eso que se ha planteado el centro eco-turístico Excamé ubicado en los límites de la presa Miguel Alemán, en la comunidad de Excamé perteneciente al municipio de Tepechitlán Zacatecas, tratando de obtener un desarrollo sostenible en el área contemplando lo social, ecológico y económico ofreciendo una gama amplia de actividades eco-turísticas factibles, tales como son; el senderismo, observación de flora y fauna, cabalgatas, camping, ciclismo, entre otras, dentro de las cuales se tendrá personal capacitado con dos fines; uno de informar a los turistas correctamente y la otra tener una conservación ecológica adecuada del área natural. El centro eco-turístico Excamé está pensando en aquellas personas que buscan disfrutar de la naturaleza, del descanso, esparcimiento y recreación en un ambiente natural, contemplando desde infantes hasta adultos mayores.

Palabras claves: ecoturismo, convivencia, conservación, naturaleza, desarrollo.

COACHING PARA EL DESARROLLO DEL ALTO DESEMPEÑO PARA EMPRESAS PUBLICITARIAS: CASO ISA CORPORATIVO S.A. DE C.V.

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En los proceso de globalización en la cual se encuentran las organizaciones en este momento, debido a los altos niveles de competitividad para permanecer en los mercados, es por ello que se establecen nuevas herramientas para evaluar el desempeño de su Capital Humano (CH), con el propósito de lograr una mejor productividad y competitividad en el cumplimiento de sus actividades y lograr mejor posicionamiento en los mismos, es por ello que la empresa ISA Corporativo S.A. de C.V. está aplicando y fomentando entre su CH la aplicación de la herramienta coaching con la necesidad de su desarrollo y que se vea reflejado en su desempeño.

Es por lo tanto, que el coaching como campo nuevo y emocionante enfocado al enriquecimiento y en la obtención del poder personal, que está diseñado para movilizar los recursos del cliente hacia los resultados convenidos. Esto quiere decir, que el coaching consiste por completo en despertar los potenciales poco explorado y desarrollado del CH, para poder llevar las habilidades y experiencia a un nuevo nivel de desempeño. Por lo que, trabaja jugando con las fortalezas personales y eliminando aquellas cosas que están en el camino y sabotean la excelencia. Esto hace al coaching un generador de soluciones. Asimismo, se establecen tres dominios del coaching que son el de desempeño, de desarrollo y de transformación,

PALABRAS CLAVES: Coaching, Desempeño laboral, Comunicación, Publicidad.

LA CRISIS FINANCIERA, EL RACIONAMIENTO DE CRÉDITO Y LA RELACIÓN BANCARIA DE LAS PYME EN ESPAÑA

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RESUMEN

En el actual entorno definido por la crisis financiera las PYME han sido las principales víctimas de la escasez de crédito, esto es, han sido las más afectadas por el racionamiento de crédito. Las PYME, además, sufren una fuerte dependencia con respecto a la financiación bancaria, debido a que el sistema financiero español se caracteriza, entre otros, por el importante peso del sistema crediticio y por el acceso prácticamente vedado para las PYME a los mercados de capitales. Son diversos los estudios sobre el racionamiento de crédito y la relación bancaria, sin embargo su análisis en el marco del actual entorno definido por la crisis financiera es escaso. Es precisamente en este marco donde se centra este trabajo, analizando si con la actual crisis las características de la relación bancaria y el racionamiento de crédito han sufrido cambios significativos. Los resultados indican que después de la crisis, por un lado, el racionamiento de crédito, en todas sus vertientes, aumenta significativamente; y, por otro, en cuanto a la relación bancaria: el número de relaciones bancarias aumenta significativamente, el número de servicios financieros contratados con la entidad bancaria principal no muestra cambios significativos y el nivel de confianza, en cambio, disminuye significativamente.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Crisis financiera, racionamiento de crédito, relación bancaria, PYME.

THE FINANCIAL CRISIS, THE CREDIT RATIONING AND THE BANKING RELATIONSHIP OF THE SME IN SPAIN

ABSTRACT

In the current environment characterized by the financial crisis, SME have been the main victims of the credit shortage in the Spanish economy, that is, they've been the most deeply affected by the credit rationing. Furthermore, SME suffer from a strong dependence on the bank financing, because of the feature of the Spanish financial system, which, among others, it is characterized by a considerable weight of the credit system and the practically forbidden access to the capital market for SME. There are various studies of credit rationing and banking relationships, but its analysis under the current environment defined by the financial crisis is limited. It is precisely in this context that this paper focuses, analyzing the current crisis if the characteristics of the banking relationship and credit rationing have undergone significant changes. Results show that, in one hand, the credit rationing, in all of the types, increase significantly; and, in the other, respecting the banking relationship; the number of relationships increase significantly, the number of financial services with the main financial institutions doesn't show significant changes and the truth decrease significantly.

KEY WORDS: Financial crisis, credit rationing, banking relationship, SME.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Uno de los mayores problemas de las pequeñas y medianas empresas (PYME) es el acceso a la financiación externa (Lehman y Neuberger, 2001), a pesar de que juegan un papel relevante en la creación de riqueza y empleo en cualquier economía (Banco Mundial, 1994 y 2004; Beck *et al.*, 2003; Wagenvoort, 2003), siendo la financiación bancaria su principal fuente de financiación (Berger y Udell, 1998; Selva y Giner, 1999; Montoriol, 2006). En este entorno se enmarca el concepto de “racionamiento de crédito”, el cual corresponde con una situación en la que la empresa no obtiene los fondos deseados o bien los obtiene en condiciones (tipo de interés o garantías) peores a los que cabría esperar. La mayoría de las PYME sufre racionamiento de crédito (Beck y Maksimovis, 2002; Comisión Europea, 2002; Beck *et al.*, 2004; Matías, 2009). Esta situación puede explicar el hecho de que la literatura sobre la relación bancaria considere el mismo como uno de los principales problemas de las PYME, entre cuyos orígenes se encuentra la existencia de información asimétrica entre los participantes de la relación (Stiglitz y Weiss, 1981). En este sentido, según Selva y Giner (1999), la consolidación de la relación bancaria entre la PYME y la entidad bancaria aparece como un vehículo idóneo para que ambas partes incrementen la información mutua.

Son diversos los estudios sobre el racionamiento de crédito y la relación bancaria (Angelini, *et al.*, 1998; Berger y Udell, 1992 y 1995; Petersen y Rajan, 1994, 1995 y 2002; Cole, 1998; Harhoff y Körting, 1998a; Lehmann y Neuberger, 2001; Hernández y Martínez, 2010), sin embargo su análisis en el marco del actual entorno definido por la crisis financiera es escaso. Es precisamente en este marco donde se centra este trabajo, analizando si con la actual crisis las características de la relación bancaria y el racionamiento de crédito han sufrido cambios significativos. Con ello se pretende aportar un granito de arena a la ampliación de la literatura sobre la relación bancaria y el racionamiento de crédito en el marco de la crisis financiera.

RACIONAMIENTO DE CRÉDITO Y RELACIÓN BANCARIA EN EL MARCO DE LA CRISIS FINANCIERA

Si antes de la crisis financiera la realidad que se observaba era que “las PYME, debido a su opacidad y elevada concentración de riesgos, se ven sometidas a un mayor racionamiento del crédito” (Cardone *et al.*, 2005, p. 21), con la crisis financiera se intuye que esta realidad ha ido a más. Y es esta realidad la que se pretende analizar en este trabajo, mediante el análisis de la variación sufrida durante la crisis financiera del racionamiento de crédito, en todas sus vertientes, esto es: el racionamiento de crédito, en sentido estricto, cuando no se obtiene el volumen de financiación demandado; el racionamiento en precio o tipo de interés, cuando el coste del mismo es superior al del mercado; y, el racionamiento en garantías, cuando el nivel de garantías exigido es superior a lo que cabría esperar (Martínez y Fernández-Jardón, 1997; Cardone *et al.*, 2005; Casasola y Cardone, 2009). Inicialmente, las hipótesis a contrastar se basan en la evolución del racionamiento de crédito de las PYME en el marco de la crisis financiera, esto es, se supone que el racionamiento de crédito propiamente dicho, el de tipo de interés y en garantía, están positivamente relacionados con la crisis financiera.

Además, en este entorno definido por la contracción de crédito y la fuerte dependencia de las PYME con respecto a la financiación bancaria, se prevé que la crisis financiera haya podido influir en las características de la relación bancaria. En este sentido, los indicadores de las características de la misma son los siguientes (Berger y Udell, 1992 y 1995; Petersen y Rajan, 1994, 1995 y 2002; Harhoff y Körting, 1998a; Lehmann y Neuberger, 2001): el número de entidades bancarias con las que trabaja la PYME, esto es, el número de relaciones bancarias; el número de servicios financieros recibidos de una única

entidad bancaria, esto es, la amplitud; y el nivel de confianza con las entidades bancarias. En concreto, se intuye que la crisis financiera podría estar, por un lado, positivamente relacionada con el número de relaciones bancarias, siendo una posible razón de ello el que, en general, al disminuir las alternativas de financiación intenten buscar soluciones dentro del sistema crediticio, pero en otras entidades bancarias; y, por otro, negativamente relacionada con la amplitud de la relación bancaria, debido a que como consecuencia de la crisis las PYME tienden a retraerse en su actividad general disminuyendo el número de servicios solicitados, incluyendo los servicios financieros; y el nivel de confianza de la relación bancaria, como consecuencia de la desconfianza surgida desde las entidades bancarias a las PYME.

STUDIO EMPÍRICO Y RESULTADOS

Población y Método de Recogida de Información

Partiendo de la información de empresas de la base de datos del Sistema de Análisis de Balances Ibéricos (SABI), para la obtención de la muestra inicial se lleva a cabo un muestreo aleatorio estratificado. En la siguiente Tabla 1 se expone la ficha técnica del estudio.

Tabla 1: Ficha Técnica Del Estudio

Universo	PYME de España de más de 10 empleados
Tamaño de la muestra	700 encuestas
Muestreo	Muestreo aleatorio estratificado, por sector de actividad y tamaño empresarial
Grupo objetivo	Responsables directos de la relación bancaria en la PYME (Director financiero y, en su defecto, Director-gerente)
Técnica	Entrevista telefónica
Fecha de realización	Abril-junio 2011
Margen de error	$E_m = \pm 3,7\%$ con un nivel de confianza del 95%, $p=q=0,5$

Análisis Estadístico y resultados

Para analizar la evolución de las variables contempladas en las hipótesis se han determinado dos momentos: el año 2011 como año posterior a la crisis, debido a que es el momento en el que se realiza el trabajo de campo, más concretamente primavera de 2011; y el año 2007 como año anterior a la crisis. La técnica estadística aplicada es el Contraste de Igualdad de Medias, recogiendo los resultados en la Tabla 2.

Tabla 2: Contraste de Igualdad de Medias de la muestra global

	Media	Diferencias relacionadas Desviación típ.	Error típ. de la media	t	Sig. (bilateral)
N - N07	,125	1,105	,042	2,982	,003
AMP - AMP07	-,013	1,020	,040	-,311	,756
CONF - CONF07	-,170	,668	,026	-6,62	,000
RACR - RACR07	,967	1,156	,045	21,6	,000
RATI - RATI07	1,384	1,675	,076	18,19	,000
RAGA - RAGA07	,230	,911	,037	6,219	,000

Las estimaciones del estadístico conducen a la misma conclusión en todas las variables, exceptuando en la amplitud de la relación bancaria, esto es, el nivel crítico (significación = 0,003 en el número de relaciones bancarias y significación = 0,000 en el resto) indica que la distribución de los datos rechaza la hipótesis de igualdad de medias de las variables en 2011 y 2007, concluyendo que el valor de las variables en la actualidad es significativamente distinta que en 2007, situación previa a la crisis. En el caso concreto de la amplitud de la relación bancaria, se acepta la hipótesis nula de igualdad de medias y se concluye que la amplitud en la actualidad y previamente a la crisis no difiere de forma significativa.

Además de analizar la significatividad de estas variaciones para el conjunto de la muestra, se ha decidido segmentar la misma en función del número de empleados, debido a que se intuye que es un colectivo heterogéneo en cuanto al objeto de análisis de este estudio, distinguiendo: pequeñas empresas (T1), entre 10 y 49 empleados, ambos inclusive; medianas-pequeñas empresas (T2), entre 50 y 149 empleados; y, medianas-grandes empresas (T3), entre 150 y 249 empleados (Iturralde *et al.*, 2007). La ponderación de cada estrato es, aproximadamente, 40%, 50% y 10% respectivamente. Así, en la Tabla 3 se recogen los resultados.

Tabla 3: Contraste de Igualdad de Medias por segmentos

		Media	Desviación típ.	Error típ. de la media	t	Sig. (bilateral)
T1	N - N07	,071	1,032	,061	1,152	,250
	AMP - AMP07	-,120	,991	,062	-1,94	,053
	CONF - CONF07	-,196	,773	,047	-4,17	,000
	RACR - RACR07	,897	1,172	,071	12,59	,000
	RATI - RATI07	1,177	1,741	,124	9,513	,000
T2	RAGA - RAGA07	,206	,942	,060	3,443	,001
	N - N07	,177	1,241	,067	2,645	,009
	AMP - AMP07	,077	1,110	,063	1,226	,221
	CONF - CONF07	-,151	,581	,032	-4,78	,000
	RACR - RACR07	1,040	1,138	,063	16,57	,000
T3	RATI - RATI07	1,479	1,590	,103	14,35	,000
	RAGA - RAGA07	,245	,886	,051	4,77	,000
	N - N07	,087	,507	,061	1,42	,159
	AMP - AMP07	-,015	,545	,068	-,228	,821
	CONF - CONF07	-,159	,633	,076	-2,09	,040
	RACR - RACR07	,899	1,178	,142	6,34	,000
	RATI - RATI07	1,771	1,729	,250	7,10	,000
	RAGA - RAGA07	,246	,919	,114	2,16	,035

Los resultados no varían en el caso de la mayoría de las variables, concretamente todas exceptuando el número de relaciones bancarias.

Con respecto a la relación entre el racionamiento de crédito y la crisis financiera se observa que los resultados, tanto en la muestra global como en los segmentos considerados, confirman las hipótesis primera, segunda y tercera, esto es, se confirma la relación positiva del racionamiento de crédito, en todas sus vertientes, con la crisis financiera.

En cuanto a la relación entre las características de la relación bancaria (el número de relaciones bancarias, la amplitud y el nivel de confianza de la relación bancaria) y la crisis financiera los resultados y, por tanto, las conclusiones difieren de unos a otros. Así, en el caso de la hipótesis sobre la relación positiva del número de relaciones bancarias con la crisis financiera, en la muestra global se observa un aumento significativo del 2,94% con respecto a la situación previa a la crisis, confirmándose la hipótesis cuatro. Pero, si la muestra global se segmenta en función del tamaño de la PYME, únicamente en el segmento de las medianas-pequeñas empresas se aprecia un aumento significativo, mientras que en los segmentos de las pequeñas empresas y las medianas-grandes empresas esta variación no resulta significativa. Con respecto a la hipótesis que se ha planteado sobre la relación negativa de la amplitud de la relación bancaria con la crisis financiera, tanto en la muestra global como en el análisis por segmentos, no se observan medias significativamente distintas después y antes de la crisis, por lo que se rechaza la hipótesis cinco. Por último, la hipótesis que establecía una relación negativa entre el nivel de confianza de la relación bancaria con la crisis financiera los resultados coinciden con la misma, confirmándose la sexta hipótesis.

CONCLUSIONES

Los resultados de la muestra global indican que después de la crisis, por un lado, el racionamiento de crédito, en todas sus vertientes, aumenta significativamente. Como consecuencia de ello, las PYME deberán buscar otras alternativas a la financiación bancaria, lo cual no es fácil en un entorno definido por la actual crisis que ha derivado en un mayor nivel de desconfianza entre los participantes, tanto de los mercados financieros como de la economía real. Por tanto, se prevé un aumento de fuentes de financiación alternativas al crédito bancario. Todo ello se traduce en que las PYME tendrán que llevar a cabo un trabajo más arduo de búsqueda de financiación alternativa. Además, el aumento significativo del racionamiento de tipo de interés y en garantías complica las cuentas financieras de las PYME, que deberán agudizar el ingenio en la gestión financiera, adquiriendo una mayor importancia, si cabe, para su supervivencia.

Por otro, en cuanto a la relación bancaria, y más concretamente el número de relaciones bancarias, se aprecia un aumento significativo, aunque este comportamiento difiere si la muestra se segmenta por tamaño empresarial. Al comparar los resultados, por un lado, se observa que el resultado de la muestra global y el segmento de las medianas-grandes empresas coinciden, siendo una posible explicación el hecho de que el mencionado segmento representa, aproximadamente, la mitad de la muestra global, y, por tanto, las relaciones observadas en las mismas marcan el comportamiento general de la muestra global. Por otro, este comportamiento dispar en los segmentos de las pequeñas empresas y las medianas-grandes empresas, con respecto al segmento de las medianas-pequeñas empresas, requiere una mayor profundización de las posibles causas, entre las que se podría incluir el que, por un lado, las pequeñas empresas pueden y suelen recurrir con mayor facilidad que el resto de PYME a las aportaciones de capital familiar o de socios para suplir el racionamiento de crédito; mientras que, por otro, en el caso de las medianas-grandes empresas, que se caracterizan por un menor peso de la financiación bancaria en el pasivo, esto es, una menor dependencia de la financiación bancaria, el racionamiento de crédito bancario incide en menor medida debido a que el peso de los recursos propios y otras fuentes de financiación es mayor. En ambos casos, debido a la menor dependencia de financiación bancaria de estas empresas, el número de relaciones bancarias no varía significativamente. En el caso del número de servicios financieros contratados con la entidad bancaria principal no muestra cambios significativos. Una posible razón de ello es el hecho de que las PYME mantienen los servicios financieros que consideran necesarios para el funcionamiento de la misma, las cuales eran las que poseían antes de la crisis financiera. En cuanto al nivel de confianza se observa una disminución significativa como consecuencia de la crisis. Esta menor confianza entre las entidades bancarias y las PYME, basada en el aumento de la morosidad y una mayor asimetría de la información, entre otras razones, perjudica el buen funcionamiento del sistema financiero, contrayendo aún más el crédito y provocando, a su vez, una mayor crisis de la economía real, en la que se incluyen las PYME.

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PERCEPCIÓN DE LA CALIDAD DEL SERVICIO DE LA EDUCACIÓN UNIVERSITARIA DE ALUMNOS Y PROFESORES

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RESUMEN

El propósito de esta investigación es analizar las dimensiones subyacentes que en mayor medida se relacionan con el éxito en la percepción de alumnos y profesores de la calidad del servicio educativo universitario. De la revisión las diferentes partes del estudio y de la evidencia empírica obtenida se obtienen conclusiones relevantes que contribuyan a diseñar e implementar líneas de mejora en las actuales estrategias de calidad en el nivel de educación universitaria. Se ajustarán los conocimientos previos como la adaptación de la escala SERVQUAL y SERVQUALing. Se utilizó el método estadístico multivariable: regresión múltiple y reducción factorial, complementado con pruebas de validez y fiabilidad, apoyado en el software SPSS. Una de las aportaciones más importantes de esta investigación es el análisis de las dimensiones subyacentes de alumnos y profesores para apoyar a la planeación estratégica institucional

PALABRAS CLAVE: educación superior, satisfacción del cliente, calidad de servicio.

LA PERSPECTIVA CUALITATIVA DE LA MATERIALIDAD EN AUDITORÍA: EVIDENCIA EMPÍRICA EN MÉXICO Y COLOMBIA

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RESUMEN

Nuestra contribución analiza el proceso de convergencia con las Normas Internacionales de Auditoría (NIA's), particularmente aquellas que regulan el concepto de materialidad, en México y Colombia. Entre otros resultados, a través de una encuesta, se demuestra por qué el uso efectivo de los factores que emergen de su vertiente cualitativa puede favorecer la calidad de la información financiera que publican las empresas auditadas, la utilidad y la comprensibilidad del informe de opinión. En general, la fiabilidad, transparencia y relevancia de los estados financieros se verá potencialmente favorecida con la aplicación estricta de estos mayores y mejores instrumentos normativos.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Perspectiva cualitativa, materialidad, auditoría de estados financieros

QUALITATIVE PERSPECTIVE OF AUDIT MATERIALITY. EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE IN MEXICO AND COLOMBIA

ABSTRACT

Our contribution analyzes the process of convergence with the International Standards of Audit (ISAs), particularly those that regulate the concept of materiality, in Mexico and Colombia. Between other results, across a survey, it is demonstrated why the effective use of the factors that emerge of his qualitative slope can favor the quality of the financial information that publish the audited companies, the usefulness and the comprehensibility of the report of opinion. In general, the reliability, transparency and relevancy of the financial statements will meet potentially favored with the strict application of these major and better normative instruments.

JEL: M42, M48, M21, M16

KEY WORDS: Qualitative perspective, materiality, financial statements audit

INTRODUCCIÓN

El nuevo orden económico mundial hace necesaria la existencia de un lenguaje universal para certificar la fiabilidad, comparabilidad y transparencia de los informes mediante los cuales se comunican los resultados obtenidos y la eficacia en la gestión de los recursos aportados por los inversionistas a las organizaciones empresariales (Brickley et al, 2003).

En este sentido, la International Federation of Accountants (IFAC), en los primeros años del siglo actual puso en marcha los programas de *revisión* y *claridad* mediante los cuales fueron actualizadas las Normas Internacionales de Auditoría (NIAs). La aplicación estricta de estos nuevos instrumentos normativos ha

sido respaldada por los más importantes bloques económicos mundiales, convirtiéndolas en la única metodología aceptada a nivel mundial para garantizar la razonabilidad de la información que las empresas comunican mediante los estados financieros. (IOSCO, 2009; ONU, 2008:13).

De entre ese movimiento mundial que promueve la aplicación generalizada de las NIAs, destaca la prioridad que ha tenido la adopción de la NIA 450: La evaluación de las incidencias detectadas durante la auditoría (IFAC, 2010; 368-379), pues sin duda este controvertido concepto se erige como un referente para la planificación, ejecución y culminación de los trabajos de revisión que realizan los auditores (Martínez et al, 2008, 2010)

IMPORTANCIA DE LA MATERIALIDAD EN AUDITORÍA

Además de ser un concepto que los auditores utilizan durante las tres etapas en las que fraccionan su trabajo, la materialidad constituye una característica cualitativa de la información financiera y un elemento con presencia en los marcos normativos de la contabilidad y auditoría en todo el mundo (García Delgado, 1994).

Dichas circunstancias provocaron que su reforma haya sido uno de los primeros pasos en la ruta seguida para tratar de reforzar el marco que regula la función de auditoría, y así anticiparse, entre otras cosas, a la presencia de escándalos financieros (Cadbury Committee, 1992; García Benau y Humphrey, 1993; Brody et al, 2003).

La materialidad en auditoría se concibe tanto desde una histórica perspectiva cuantitativa, para cuya determinación generalmente se aplica un 5% sobre las utilidades empresariales, como desde una recientemente reforzada vertiente cualitativa, que promueve la consideración – en un mismo nivel de importancia que la vertiente numérica – de la naturaleza y circunstancias que rodean a cada error detectado durante la auditoría (Ng, 2007).

Precisamente, la reforma que sobre este concepto impulsó la IFAC, se centró en normalizar e incluir en la NIA 450 la consideración expresa de tales circunstancias, plasmándolo de manera contundente a través de los siguientes 11 *factores cualitativos* (FC-450) que los auditores deberán considerar para determinar en qué medida – los errores detectados y no corregidos – impactarán en su informe u opinión final.

La nueva metodología, establece que aquellos errores que no sean cuantitativamente significativos, podrán dar lugar a salvedades en los informes de auditoría, si estos:

1. Afectan el cumplimiento de requisitos regulatorios;
2. Afectan el cumplimiento con convenios de deudas u otros requerimientos contractuales;
3. Se relacionan con la selección incorrecta o el uso de una política contable que tiene un efecto inmaterial sobre los estados financieros del periodo actual, pero probablemente tiene un efecto material sobre los estados financieros de los futuros ejercicios;
4. Muestran un cambio de utilidades u otras tendencias, especialmente en el contexto general económico y condiciones de la industria;
5. Afectan indicadores utilizados para evaluar la situación financiera de la entidad, los resultados de operaciones o los flujos de efectivo;

6. Afectan la información de un segmento presentada en los estados financieros (por ejemplo, la importancia de un asunto para un segmento u otra parte del negocio de la entidad, que ha sido identificado que juega un papel importante en las operaciones de la entidad o en la rentabilidad);
7. Tienen un efecto de incremento en las compensaciones pagadas a la Administración, por ejemplo por asegurar que los requisitos para un bono u otros incentivos son satisfactorias;
8. Son significativos tomando en cuenta el entendimiento del auditor de comunicaciones previamente conocidas de usuarios, por ejemplo, en relación con el presupuesto de utilidades;
9. Se relacionan con asuntos que implican partes particulares (por ejemplo, si partes externas a la transacción son relacionadas con los miembros de la Administración de la entidad);
10. Constituyen una omisión de información no expresamente requerida por las normas de información financiera aplicables, pero que en el juicio del auditor es importante para el entendimiento de los usuarios sobre la situación financiera, los resultados de la operación o los flujos de efectivo de la entidad;
11. Afectan otra información que será comunicada en otros documentos que contiene los estados financieros auditados (por ejemplo, la información para ser incluida en una “Carta de sugerencias para la Administración” o una “Revisión financiera y operativa”), que razonablemente pueda esperar influir en las decisiones económicas de los estados financieros.

Convergencia Mundial Con Las NIAs

El intercambio de informes contables que ha provocado la globalización de las actividades comerciales, ha promovido la adopción total o parcial de las NIAs en todo el mundo. Así, se observa que por ejemplo la Unión Europea (UE) las adopta a partir del 2010 con las adecuaciones que cada país miembro considere pertinente y México las adopta íntegramente a partir del 2012.

De ahí que, con la intención de analizar en qué medida los profesionistas colombianos con facultades para firmar informes de auditoría (CPCO) están de acuerdo con la utilización efectiva de los FC-450, se realizó un estudio empírico que permitiera obtener evidencia de tal circunstancia.

Convergencia Colombiana Con Las NIAs

De cara a la realidad de la función auditora a nivel mundial, en Colombia se ha expedido la Ley 1314 de 2009 como marco normativo a través del cual se emprende un decidido proceso de convergencia con la acción del Estado. En este contexto, el Gobierno Nacional tiene la función y la responsabilidad de expedir las normas de información financiera, las normas de aseguramiento y otras normas de información que se aplicarán en el país, mediante la acción conjunta del Ministerio de Hacienda y Crédito Público y el Ministerio de Comercio Industria y Turismo, con base en las propuestas que presente el Consejo Técnico de la Contaduría Pública, como órgano de normalización, en el ámbito de sus competencias. (Consejo Técnico de la Contaduría Pública, 2011, p.11).

Teniendo en cuenta lo anterior, dentro de las citadas normas de aseguramiento se encuentran las normas de auditoría financiera histórica (Ley 1314 de 2009; Art 5), cuyo proceso de convergencia se llevará a cabo tomando como referente los estándares de auditoría y aseguramiento de la información que emite la Junta de Estándares Internacionales de Auditoría y Aseguramiento (IAASB por sus siglas en inglés) en razón a que cumplen con las tres condiciones señaladas en la Ley para ser aceptados en Colombia: (1) que sean de aceptación mundial; (2) elaboradas con las mejores prácticas y (3) en correspondencia con la rápida evolución de los negocios. (Consejo Técnico de la Contaduría Pública, 2011, p.5).

Esta normatividad será aplicada de manera diferencial a tres grupos de usuarios, así: grupo 1: emisores de valores y entidades de interés público; grupo 2: empresas de tamaño grande y mediano, que no sean emisores de valores ni entidades de interés público, según la clasificación legal colombiana de las empresas (al respecto puede verse la Ley 590 de 2000, Ley 905 de 2004, Ley 1151 de 2007, Ley 1429 de 2010 y Ley 1450 de 2011); y grupo 3: pequeña y micro empresa según la clasificación legal colombiana de empresas (Consejo Técnico de la Contaduría Pública, 2011, p. 7).

Para el caso de las normas de auditoría financiera su observancia será de obligatorio cumplimiento por parte de los grupos 1 y 2 y respecto al grupo 3, el Gobierno autorizará un aseguramiento de la información en un nivel moderado.

Respecto al plazo estipulado el CTCP ha presentado a 30 de junio de 2010 un plan de trabajo el cual según el artículo 13 de la Ley 1314 deberá ejecutarse en 24 meses (30 de junio de 2012), término durante el cual el Consejo presentará a consideración de los Ministerios respectivos, los proyectos a que haya lugar. Las normas expedidas entrarán en vigencia el 1 de enero del segundo año gravable siguiente al de su promulgación (Ley 1314 de 2009; Art 14).

Cabe señalar en este proceso de convergencia nacional hacia las NIAs como la institución de la Revisoría Fiscal “es una forma de aseguramiento distinta de los estándares internacionales, puesto que la cobertura exigida contempla adicionalmente funciones de fiscalización en defensa del interés público” (Consejo Técnico de la Contaduría Pública, 2008). No obstante, de acuerdo al artículo 5 de la ley 1314 de 2009, el revisor fiscal en el desarrollo de la auditoría integral deberá desarrollar la auditoría financiera con base en las NIAs.

Ahora bien, es preciso rescatar la importancia de adoptar las NIAs en Colombia, dado que las Normas de Auditoría Generalmente Aceptadas (NAGA) contempladas en el artículo séptimo (7) de la Ley 43 de 1990, carecen de los elementos que avalen la calidad del trabajo del auditor.

Convergencia Mexicana con las NIAs

Como señala Ramírez et al 2011, en este país el proceso de convergencia con las NIAs se consumará el 1 de enero de 2012, cuando de acuerdo al pronunciamiento del Instituto Mexicano de Contadores Públicos AC (IMCP, 2009), se abroguen las Normas de Auditoría Generalmente Aceptadas y se sustituyan por el contenido integro de las Normas Internacionales de Auditoría emitidas por la IFAC.

METODOLOGÍA, HIPÓTESIS Y OBJETIVOS

El objetivo perseguido (Tabla 1), fue analizar en qué medida el uso efectivo de los FC-450, que los auditores deben utilizar para evaluar la naturaleza y circunstancias que rodean a cada error detectado en la auditoría de estados financieros - a pesar de que éstos no sean numéricamente importantes, de acuerdo a la nueva NIA 450, deberán documentarse, informarse, corregirse y, bajo ciertas circunstancias, revelarse como una salvedad en el informe de auditoría y en los estados financieros auditados - afecta favorable o desfavorablemente a la calidad de la información financiera que las empresas auditadas publican.

Para contrastar las hipótesis, en primer lugar se utilizó el estadístico de Kolmogorov-Smirnov para analizar el supuesto de normalidad en las variables, confirmando que en todos los casos existía una distribución asimétrica. Por lo tanto, las pruebas utilizadas fueron, en un principio, de tipo no paramétrico.

Sin embargo, al considerar que en muestras mayores a 30 observaciones se pueden aplicar pruebas paramétricas, aunque la distribución de la variable se desvíe de la normalidad, se utilizó la prueba T (paramétrica) para comprobar la significación de una diferencia de medias con un valor inicial asumido igual a 3.

Tabla 1: Objetivos específicos e hipótesis del estudio empírico

Objetivo e Hipótesis	
Comparar el grado de acuerdo existente entre los auditores de Colombia (CPCO) respecto a la utilización efectiva de los FC-450	
H_0	H_1
“Los ACo presentan un distinto grado de acuerdo respecto al uso efectivo de los FC-450”	“Los ACo presentan un mismo grado de acuerdo respecto al uso efectivo de los FC-450”

Hipótesis perseguidas por la investigación, se centra en comparar si el grado de acuerdo entre los auditores de Colombia es igual respecto al uso efectivo de los factores cualitativos de la materialidad.

De forma complementaria, los datos fueron analizados mediante herramientas de estadística descriptiva, con tablas de contingencia, con un análisis de frecuencias y con el estadístico inferencial U de Mann-Whitney (prueba no paramétrica).

Como instrumento para la recolección de información se utilizó el modelo que Montoya del Corte utilizó para España (2008) y la adaptación que para México realizó Ramírez Cacho (2009). Consistió en un cuestionario con tres Bloques de preguntas diseñado para ser contestado como una encuesta de respuesta anónima.

El primer Bloque contenía una serie de cuestiones enfocadas a conocer ciertos atributos de los sujetos encuestados que permitieran caracterizarlos estadísticamente.

El segundo Bloque incluía 12 preguntas, y recopilaba información que no es relevante para el análisis que se presenta.

El tercer Bloque incluía 23 preguntas, cada una de ellas relacionada con distintas consecuencias que podrían derivarse – por la aplicación estricta de los FC450- sobre ciertos ámbitos de la función auditora.

Para clasificar y ponderar las respuestas de los Bloques II y III se utilizó una escala Likert, que consideraba un desacuerdo total con el número 1, desacuerdo parcial con el 2, indiferencia con el 3, un acuerdo parcial con el 4 y con el 5 una posición de acuerdo total con las cuestiones planteadas.

Mediante el índice alfa de Cronbach (1951), se determinó que las respuestas de los sujetos a las preguntas de los Bloques II y III cumplieran con la requerida fiabilidad, obteniendo, de acuerdo con Hair *et al* (2004:394) excelentes resultados y, por tanto, evidenciando que el cuestionario tenía una gran consistencia interna. La muestra analizada estuvo constituida por aquellos sujetos que potencialmente tenían la facultad de emitir dictámenes de auditoría, pues son los que en última instancia deciden el contenido y, por tanto, las salvedades a introducir en los mismos. En la ficha técnica que recoge la Tabla 2, se muestran estos y otros aspectos de la investigación

RESULTADOS

Una vez descrita la metodología aplicada, a continuación se exponen los principales resultados alcanzados, que por cuestiones de espacio se circunscriben exclusivamente a Colombia.

Los datos arrojados por la encuesta de opinión aplicada a una muestra de auditores financieros y/o revisores fiscales que ejercen en la ciudad de Santafé de Bogotá DC, fueron analizados mediante técnicas de estadística descriptiva e inferencial. Para obtener una descripción de las características personales y profesionales de los auditores encuestados, se utilizó el análisis de frecuencias sobre la información obtenida en el Bloque I de la encuesta. Los resultados alcanzados demostraron que:

Características personales

La distribución de los encuestados en cuanto a la variable género se concentra en un 62% en hombres, así la mayoría de los auditores financieros o revisores fiscales tienen una edad entre 46 y 55 años (38%), le siguen con un porcentaje del 22% los auditores ubicados en el rango de 26-35 años y de 36 - 45 años.

Características profesionales

Respecto a la formación académica de los auditores que conforman la muestra el 100% son profesionales de la Contaduría Pública, de los cuales un 84% posee una experiencia de 6 - 10 años y el 48% cuenta con postgrado en áreas económicas.

En cuanto a la experiencia profesional en auditoría el 41% se ubica en el rango de 5 a 10 años, mientras que el 27% presenta una experiencia en este campo, de más de 20 años. Con relación a la forma de ejercicio de la auditoría, el 56% trabaja como contador independiente y el 26% ejerce como socio de una firma de auditores. Relativo al nivel de facturación el 30% de los auditores independientes devenga entre \$26.640.000 y \$66.660.000 frente al 22% el cual obtiene ingresos superiores a los \$66.660.000. Mientras que el 46% de las sociedades registran ingresos que exceden la suma de \$666.660.000. Tomando en consideración el número de empresas auditadas en el último año, el 16% señala haber evaluado más de 20 empresas. El 16% de profesionales desarrolla su trabajo en instituciones que cotizan en bolsa, el 4% en instituciones de crédito y el 80% en los demás sectores de la economía.

Tabla 2: Ficha técnica de la encuesta

Ámbito geográfico y	COLOMBIA	MÉXICO
Universe de sujetos	1600 Revisores Oficiales de Cuentas radicados en Santa Fe de Bogotá adscritos a la Superintendencia Financiera de Colombia	6250 Auditores adscritos al IMCP
Método para obtener la información y selección de la muestra	Aplicación aleatoria online	Aplicación masiva online
Periodo	Diciembre 2010 – marzo 2011	Octubre 2008-Marzo 2009
Tamaño de la muestra y error	100 encuestas válidas	101 encuestas validas
Nivel de Confianza	95% ($z = 1,96$) para el caso más desfavorable $p = q = 0,5$	
Tratamiento de los datos	SPSS v.17.0 o posteriores.	

Se especifica la procedencia del universo y muestra de auditores colombianos encuestados en México y en Colombia, así como los periodos de aplicación y las encuestas válidas obtenidas.

Fuente: elaboración propia a partir de Ramírez Cacho (2009)

Posición de los auditores colombianos frente a los factores cualitativos de la materialidad

En cuanto al grado de acuerdo existente entre los auditores de Colombia (CPCO) respecto a la utilización efectiva de los factores cualitativos contemplados en la NIAR 450, tenemos que:

En la tabla 3 se recoge la escala obtenida a partir de la evaluación por parte de los auditores financieros y/o revisores fiscales a cada uno de los factores cualitativos y su respectiva desviación típica.

Tabla 3: La predisposición de los auditores colombianos hacia el uso de los FC-450

Escala de valores medios para los factores cualitativos: La evaluación se ha realizado con base en la *escala*

Factores cualitativos de la materialidad en auditoría (NIAR 450)		
	Valor medio	Desviación Típica
1. Afecta el cumplimiento con requisitos regulatorios;	3.92	0.944
2. Afecta el cumplimiento con convenios de deudas u otros requerimientos contractuales;	4.10	0.647
3. Se relaciona con la selección incorrecta o el uso de una política contable que tiene un efecto inmaterial sobre los estados financieros del periodo actual, pero probablemente tiene un efecto material sobre los estados financieros de los futuros ejercicios;	3.56	0.97
4. Muestra un cambio de utilidades u otras tendencias, especialmente en el contexto general económico y condiciones de la industria;	3.86	0.88
5. Afecta indicadores utilizados para evaluar la situación financiera de la entidad, los resultados de operaciones o flujos de efectivo;	3.74	1.08
6. Afecta la información de segmento presentada en los estados financieros (por ejemplo, la importancia de un asunto para un segmento u otra parte del negocio de la entidad, que ha sido identificado que juega un papel importante en las operaciones de la entidad o en la rentabilidad);	3.74	0.89
7. Tiene un efecto de incremento en la compensación de la Administración, por ejemplo por asegurar que los requisitos para un bono u otros incentivos son satisfactorias;	3.72	1.06
8. Es significativo tomando en cuenta el entendimiento del auditor, respecto a comunicaciones previamente conocidas de usuarios, por ejemplo, en relación con el presupuesto de utilidades;	3.72	0.73
9. Se relaciona con asuntos que implican intereses particulares (por ejemplo; si partes externas a la transacción son relacionadas con los miembros de la Administración de la entidad);	4.10	0.86
10. Es una omisión de información no expresamente requerida por las normas de información financiera aplicables, pero que en el juicio del auditor es importante para el entendimiento de los usuarios sobre la situación financiera, los resultados de la operación o los flujos de efectivo de la entidad;	3.74	1.02
11. Afecta otra información que será comunicada en otros documentos que contiene los estados financieros auditados (por ejemplo, la información para ser incluida en una “Carta de sugerencias para la Administración” o una “Revisión financiera y operativa” que razonablemente pueda esperar influir en las decisiones económicas de los estados financieros.	3.80	0.99
Valor promedio de los once factores cualitativos	3.82	

Likert de 5 puntos, así: 1= Totalmente en desacuerdo, 2= En desacuerdo, 3= Indiferente, 4= De acuerdo, y 5= Totalmente de acuerdo.

Con base en el promedio de los valores medios obtenidos (3.82), se puede concluir que los auditores colombianos encuestados revelaron estar de acuerdo en revelar, como una salvedad en el informe de auditoría y en los estados financieros auditados, las incidencias detectadas en la auditoría (relacionados con los once factores contemplados en la NIAR 450). Es de resaltar la posición de acuerdo generalizada para la totalidad de los factores compartida por los encuestados. Dado que la valoración de los factores es diferente, la Tabla 4 presenta la escala de importancia de cada uno.

Atendiendo la hipótesis planteada de igual manera la Tabla 4 corrobora el grado de acuerdo de los contadores con la aplicación de los factores, mostrando cómo el factor 2 y 9 obtienen el mayor porcentaje de importancia. El mismo análisis demuestra un nivel de menor relevancia para los factores 5,8 y 3. Por último, al aplicar el procedimiento de la Prueba T con un valor neutral igual a 3 (indiferencia), se confirma la validez de la hipótesis “los CPCO presentan un distinto grado de acuerdo respecto al uso efectivo de los FC-450”. Ver tabla 5.

Tabla 4: Posición de los auditores frente a los factores cualitativos

Factores cualitativos de la materialidad en auditoría (NIAR 450)				
	En Desacuerdo (1-2) %	Indiferente (3) %	De acuerdo (4-5) %	Puntaje %
1. Afecta el cumplimiento con requisitos regulatorios;	12	12	76	100
2. Afecta el cumplimiento con convenios de deudas u otros requerimientos contractuales;	2	10	88	100
3. Se relaciona con la selección incorrecta o el uso de una política contable que tiene un efecto inmaterial sobre los estados financieros del periodo actual, pero probablemente tiene un efecto material sobre los estados financieros de los futuros ejercicios;	22	12	66	100
4. Muestra un cambio de utilidades u otras tendencias, especialmente en el contexto general económico y condiciones de la industria;	12	10	78	100
5. Afecta indicadores utilizados para evaluar la situación financiera de la entidad, los resultados de operaciones o flujos de efectivo;	18	20	62	100
6. Afecta la información de segmento presentada en los estados financieros (por ejemplo, la importancia de un asunto para un segmento u otra parte del negocio de la entidad, que ha sido identificado que juega un papel importante en las operaciones de la entidad o en la rentabilidad);	2	10	74	100
7. Tiene un efecto de incremento en la compensación de la Administración, por ejemplo por asegurar que los requisitos para un bono u otros incentivos son satisfactorias;	4	14	74	100
8. Es significativo tomando en cuenta el entendimiento del auditor, respecto a comunicaciones previamente conocidas de usuarios, por ejemplo, en relación con el presupuesto de utilidades;	4	32	64	100
9. Se relaciona con asuntos que implican intereses particulares (por ejemplo; si partes externas a la transacción son relacionadas con los miembros de la Administración de la entidad);	10	2	88	100
10. Es una omisión de información no expresamente requerida por las normas de información financiera aplicables, pero que en el juicio del auditor es importante para el entendimiento de los usuarios sobre la situación financiera, los resultados de la operación o los flujos de efectivo de la entidad;	18	14	68	100
11. Afecta otra información que será comunicada en otros documentos que contiene los estados financieros auditados (por ejemplo, la información para ser incluida en una "Carta de sugerencias para la Administración" o una "Revisión financiera y operativa" que razonablemente pueda esperar influir en las decisiones económicas de los estados financieros.	12	12	76	100
Porcentaje general	11	14	75	100

La evaluación se ha realizado con base en la escala Likert de 5 puntos, así: 1= Totalmente en desacuerdo, 2= En desacuerdo, 3= Indiferente, 4= De acuerdo, y 5= Totalmente de acuerdo.

CONCLUSIONES

El estudio realizado demuestra la importancia que los auditores financieros y /o revisores fiscales en Colombia otorgan a la vertiente cualitativa de la materialidad. Situación que denota la necesidad apremiante de acercamiento hacia las NIAs, dado que las Normas de Auditoría Generalmente Aceptadas de Colombia (NAGA) no constituyen un referente suficiente para el desarrollo de la función auditora en el país.

Asimismo, la investigación presenta el grado de acuerdo existente entre los auditores financieros y/o revisores fiscales en Colombia (CPCO), respecto a la utilización efectiva de los factores cualitativos de la materialidad contemplados en la Norma Internacional de Auditoría (NIAR 450).

Lo anterior, con base en la opinión dada por los profesionales encuestados, respecto a la necesidad de revelar como una salvedad en el informe de auditoría y en los estados financieros auditados las incidencias detectadas relacionadas con los factores cualitativos de cuantía reducida.

Tabla 5: Nivel de significancia de los factores cualitativos- Prueba T (T- test)

Factores cualitativos de la materialidad en auditoria (NIAR 450)		t	Sig. (bilateral)	Diferencia de medias
1. Afecta el cumplimiento con requisitos regulatorios;		6.890	.000	.920
2. Afecta el cumplimiento con convenios de deudas u otros requerimientos contractuales;		12.025	.000	1.100
3. Se relaciona con la selección incorrecta o el uso de una política contable que tiene un efecto inmaterial sobre los estados financieros del periodo actual, pero probablemente tiene un efecto material sobre los estados financieros de los futuros ejercicios;		4.073	.000	.56000
4. Muestra un cambio de utilidades u otras tendencias, especialmente en el contexto general económico y condiciones de la industria;		6.904	.000	.86000
5. Afecta indicadores utilizados para evaluar la situación financiera de la entidad, los resultados de operaciones o flujos de efectivo;		4.825	.000	.74000
6. Afecta la información de segmento presentada en los estados financieros (por ejemplo, la importancia de un asunto para un segmento u otra parte del negocio de la entidad, que ha sido identificado que juega un papel importante en las operaciones de la entidad o en la rentabilidad);		5.819	.000	.74000
7. Tiene un efecto de incremento en la compensación de la Administración, por ejemplo por asegurar que los requisitos para un bono u otros incentivos son satisfactorias;		4.759	.000	.72000
8. Es significativo tomando en cuenta el entendimiento del auditor, respecto a comunicaciones previamente conocidas de usuarios, por ejemplo, en relación con el presupuesto de utilidades;		6.978	.000	.72000
9. Se relaciona con asuntos que implican intereses particulares (por ejemplo; si partes externas a la transacción son relacionadas con los miembros de la Administración de la entidad);		9.012	.000	1.10000
10. Es una omisión de información no expresamente requerida por las normas de información financiera aplicables, pero que en el juicio del auditor es importante para el entendimiento de los usuarios sobre la situación financiera, los resultados de la operación o los flujos de efectivo de la entidad;		5.098	.000	.74000
11. Afecta otra información que será comunicada en otros documentos que contiene los estados financieros auditados (por ejemplo, la información para ser incluida en una "Carta de sugerencias para la Administración" o una "Revisión financiera y operativa" que razonablemente pueda esperar influir en las decisiones económicas de los estados financieros.		5.715	.000	.80000

Considerando un grado de Sig (bilateral) significativo al 5%, en esta tabla se presentan los valores medios alcanzados por las respuestas de los auditores colombianos encuestados

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EL EMPLEO Y SALARIO QUE SE PAGA EN BAJA CALIFORNIA, ¿CONTRIBUYEN AL BIENESTAR SOCIAL DEL SER HUMANO?

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RESUMEN

El presente trabajo exhibe y analiza la información de diferentes organismos que realizan funciones de análisis y captación de indicadores económicos que contribuyen al crecimiento, sostenimiento y competencia de México, uno de estos indicadores que conforman la base y tema de este trabajo lo es el empleo, indicador que se liga al desarrollo que ha tenido el estado de Baja California a través de la Industria Maquiladora; México, en la búsqueda de captar inversión extranjera mediante la inserción de empresas que demanden mano de obra, otorga una apertura franca en el estado de Baja California en la instalación de empresas extranjeras a nivel maquilador, quienes responde a la obligación que como gobierno estatal representa el generar empleo y mantener a la población ocupada en la región, sin embargo, la correspondencia del pago de salarios mínimos establecidos en la Ley Federal de Trabajo que establecen como zona geográfica "A" al noroeste del país, no se refleja en satisfactores que subsanen las necesidades del trabajador y de sus familias.

PALABRAS CLAVE: empleo, ocupación, salarios, bienestar social.

EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES TO BE PAID IN BAJA CALIFORNIA, WELFARE DOES IT CONTRIBUTE TO THE HUMAN BEING?

ABSTRACT

This paper exhibits and analyzes information from various agencies that perform analysis and collection of economic indicators that contribute to growth, sustainability and competition from Mexico, one of these indicators form the basis and theme of this work is employment, indicator is linked to the development that has taken the state of Baja California through the maquiladora industry, Mexico, seeking to attract foreign investment through the inclusion of firms that labor demand, provides a frank openness in the state of Baja California in the installation of foreign companies at the maquiladora, who meets the requirement that state government accounts as creating jobs and keeping the population in the region, however, the correspondence of minimum wages established by the Federal working as a geographical area established "A" in the northwest, is not reflected in satisfiers to remedy the needs of workers and their families.

KEY WORDS: employment, occupation, wages, welfare.

INTRODUCCIÓN

Para constatar el crecimiento económico, las Naciones utilizan indicadores económicos entre los que se destacan la generación de empleo, la paridad de la moneda y el salario entre muchos otros, México no es

la excepción en el análisis específico de estos indicadores por lo cual se apoya en instituciones de investigación generadoras de información confiable, un ejemplo de ello lo es el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) mismo que realiza censos periódicos en la búsqueda de datos económicos entre los que se destaca el empleo. Otra fuente de información confiable lo es la Clasificación Mexicana de Ocupaciones (CMO) que otorga datos relacionados a la ocupación nacional, la cual distingue entre los tipos de trabajos, edades y educación de la población Mexicana.

Los trabajadores factor importante en la determinación de la riqueza obtenida por la Industria Maquiladora potencialmente exportadora (IME), quien busca generar empleos con sueldos bajos fundamentándose en la normatividad salarial Mexicana, el gobierno por su parte ha asumido que la generación de empleo significa cumplir con el desarrollo económico del país.

La zona norte de México, frontera con Estados Unidos de Norteamérica fomenta e impulsan el crecimiento del empleo, en caso particular el Estado de Baja California por su cercanía con la economía más fuerte del mundo proporciona a la industria maquiladora oportunidades legales para obtener beneficios económicos en sus operaciones, un ejemplo de ello lo es el pago de salarios bajos, siendo esta condición un de los beneficios que el gobierno promueve para incentivar la instalación en nuestro país de este tipo de empresas, condición que les resulta verdaderamente atractiva para pensar el instalar sus naves industriales en nuestro país.

Esta zona es considerada económicamente fuerte por la captación de empresas extranjeras, las cuales se posicionan para realizar procesos de manufactura y después ejecutar exportaciones a su país de origen. Las empresas de la región generan un impacto en las exportaciones de productos así como en el pago de salarios a los obreros. Esto refleja condiciones económicas específicas tanto para México como para el Estado de Baja California.

REVISION LITERARIA

Es importante realizar una definición clara del concepto de empleo, en la mayoría de los casos se confunde con ocupación o asalariado, en este sentido, Rafael de Pina (1965) define al empleo como: "...la acción y efecto de emplear; el empleo es destino, al igual que ocupación, oficio u profesión"

Lo que significa que es considerado como un igual por este autor los conceptos de ocupación y empleo, sin embargo en México se ha publicado por el Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (INEGI) los resultados estadísticos en apartados diferentes.

El empleo según el artículo 20 la Ley Federal de Trabajo en el capítulo I de Disposiciones Generales del título II de las relaciones individuales de trabajo, literalmente afirma que se entiende por relación de trabajo, "cualquiera que sea el acto que le de origen, la prestación de un trabajo personal subordinado a una persona, mediante el pago de un salario". Al mismo tiempo establece que el contrato individual de trabajo, cualquiera que sea su forma o denominación, es aquel por virtud del cual una persona se obliga a prestar a otra un trabajo personal subordinado, mediante el pago de un salario.

Situación que encuadra ambas figuras tanto a la contratación como a la ausencia de firma de un contrato legal, se debe tener especial cuidado en la palabra "contratación", porque aunque se utilice de manera verbal, el patrón estaría involucrado en el mismo compromiso laboral, reconocido por la Ley Federal de

Trabajo (LFT) vigente para 2011 como empleo. Por lo tanto es una persona ocupada y considerada para las estadísticas de INEGI.

La legislación laboral mexicana establece literalmente el derecho de trabajo de todo ciudadano mexicano sin embargo en el artículo 22 del capítulo I, del título II es muy clara al expresar que queda prohibida la utilización del trabajo de los menores de catorce años de edad y menores de dieciséis que no hayan terminado su educación obligatoria, salvo los casos de excepción que apruebe la autoridad correspondiente en que a su juicio haya compatibilidad entre sus estudios y el trabajo.

Claro está que los mismos deban cumplir con la aprobación del tutor y su consentimiento, de esta manera se define la población económicamente activa que se encuadra a partir de los 14 años en adelante.

Neffa, establece los conceptos y definiciones básicos de las categorías ocupacionales que se construyen a partir de dos dimensiones: 1) el ejercicio efectivo de alguna actividad laboral, expresada en la tenencia de alguna ocupación; y 2) la voluntad de buscar alguna actividad laboral, expresada en la búsqueda activa de una ocupación remunerada.

Según la Clasificación Mexicana de Ocupaciones (CMO) 2009, en México las ocupaciones para nuestro país se clasifican en profesionistas, técnicos, trabajadores de la educación, supervisores y otros trabajadores de control en la fabricación artesanal e industrial, trabajadores fabriles en la industria de la transformación, y trabajadores en actividades de reparación y mantenimiento, operadores de maquinaria fija y de movimiento continuo y equipos en el proceso de fabricación industrial, en actividades de reparación y mantenimiento, coordinadores y supervisores en actividades administrativas y de servicios, trabajadores en apoyo en actividades administrativas, comerciantes, y por ultimo otros trabajadores con ocupaciones no específicas, por mencionar algunos, definición establecida en ENOE. Clasificación Mexicana de Ocupaciones (CMO). Volumen II.

La Población Económicamente Activa (PEA) se puede identificar como población ocupada considerada con una hora remunerada de trabajo o quince o más sin remuneración. Se considerara entonces que la remuneración que recibe el trabajador por el pago de su jornada es conocida con el nombre de salario.

Samuelson (2010) afirma que "...el ingreso personal es igual al ingreso de mercado más los pagos de transferencias. La mayor parte del ingreso de mercado proviene de sueldos y salarios; una pequeña minoría rica deriva su ingreso de mercado de sus ganancias en la propiedad..."

Esto significa que una persona ocupada o empleada debe percibir un importe por su trabajo denominado sueldo o salario.

Reyes (2002) asume que "...Salario en *un sentido lato*, aplicable tanto a sueldo o salario, puede definirse como: toda retribución que percibe el hombre a cambio de un servicio que ha prestado por su trabajo" más concisamente "la remuneración por una actividad productiva" es decir, se considera como tal toda cantidad recibida en dinero o en especie.

Este salario deberá satisfacer las necesidades del trabajador en todos los aspectos sociales, culturales, de supervivencia y de recreación indispensables para el bienestar social de una población. Según lo mencionado por Samuelson (2010) y Reyes (2002), se confirma que el trabajador a través de su empleo crece económicamente en lo personal, satisfaciendo sus necesidades.

De tal manera que el sueldo o salario debe reflejar un bienestar en los empleados y la IME, esto puede ser un punto de referencia para analizar si el crecimiento económico de un país al otorgar empleo a sus gobernados sin importar el importe salarial si refleja un bienestar social directo a la población empleada. En nuestro país la industria manufacturera es generadora de empleos, dando oportunidad a la clase media baja y baja de obtener un salario a través de la prestación de sus servicios durante una jornada de trabajo previamente establecida.

El autor López (2008:75-77) sostiene en su obra lo siguiente: “En el contexto nacional se analiza un comportamiento cíclico del empleo en la demanda de empleo de la IME (Industria Maquiladora de Exportación en México), es particularmente importante debido a las diferentes etapas de desarrollo por las que ha pasado. En las décadas de los 80’s y 90’s se experimentó un proceso de crecimiento extraordinario, a excepción de las ligeras caídas que sufrió a mediados de 1981 y 1990. Durante la última década (2000-2005), su desempeño se ha caracterizado por una profunda caída y una lenta recuperación, situación similar por la que ha pasado la economía estadounidense.

Los esfuerzos gubernamentales por mejorar la responsabilidad de generar empleo en el estado nos ha llevado a establecer compromisos con las IME’s incorporadas a la economía estatal. Las recesiones económicas mundiales impactan a la industria maquiladora de manera contundente, sin embargo queda demostrado que la capacidad de permanencia de estas empresas resulta en la reducción de empleo en épocas de crisis y en su ampliación laboral en los ciclos de bonanza.

López (2008:78-81) durante su periodo de estudio especifica que, “la demanda de empleo de la IME se caracterizó por una alta volatilidad y un crecimiento económico muy alto, mientras que la producción industrial de Estados Unidos presenta baja volatilidad y bajo crecimiento económico...una de las características generales más importantes de este punto es el hecho de que no existe una sincronización entre las fluctuaciones cíclicas del tipo de cambio y la demanda de empleo de la IME”.

Si bien, los esfuerzos por mantener la inversión extranjera en nuestro país, cuenta con el sentido de apoyar un nivel de tasa de desempleo menor, otorgando oportunidades a la población de una oferta digna de empleo, aunque existen factores que no podemos controlar como lo es la paridad del tipo de cambio respecto de la procedencia de la IME al considerar el cambio de la moneda para destinar el pago de salarios en donde se instala la empresa; de tal manera que logre ser competitiva en el mercado laboral y de esta forma captar el recurso humano siempre que los salarios sean acordes al bienestar social del empleado-empresa, los cuales reflejarán una afectación económica al realizar desembolso por el pago de salario y estos a su vez deben reflejar una competencia significativa acorde a la política salarial del país sede.

López (2008) refiere a Calderón y Mendoza (2001), Hanson 2003, Orrenius y Berman (2004) y Shatz y López-Calva (2004), quienes destacan, “.....en sus investigaciones, que un conjunto de variables como principales determinantes del comportamiento de la demanda de empleo de la IME a nivel regional, a saber: las fluctuaciones de la demanda agregada de los Estados Unidos, se vuelve importante analizar los ciclos económicos de esa nación y el efecto en sus distintas etapas en la demanda de empleo de la IME; los salarios de la industria maquiladora al convertirse en un gran incentivo para la industria el contar con salarios competitivos; y el tipo de cambio, que juega un papel trascendental al reflejar el resultado de la política económica y salarial del país”.

Al interpretar la lectura, se destaca que Estados Unidos considera a los salarios como un inhibidor o detonador del crecimiento económico de una empresa, el hecho de que esta nación visualice a México y

en especial a su frontera norte como un captador de maquiladoras lo es precisamente por el pago de salarios bajos en comparación de sus estándares legales; Baja California por su parte establece facilidades para formalizar empresas que apoyen a la generación de empleo, mediante el programa para sostener e impulsar el crecimiento económico del Estado.

El Gobernador, José Guadalupe Osuna Millán (2008) manifiesta en su informe que “un buen número de las empresas instaladas en Baja California son maquiladoras de exportación, fuertemente vinculadas al afectado mercado norteamericano por la recesión económica...por ello se fortalecerá el programa de retención de inversiones y al centro PYME exporta, esto permitirá apoyar el empleo y así retener, ampliar y atraer nuevas empresas nacionales y extranjeras”.

Algunas empresas buscan tan solo elevar las estadísticas de ocupación en el estado, descuidando la vía legal en cuestión de pago de salarios acordes a elevar el bienestar social y calidad de vida del trabajador de los bajacalifornianos.

Carlos María Abascal Carranza ex funcionario de la Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión Social (STPS), en su función de Secretario enmarcó según un comunicado en el Diario Oficial de la Federación (DOF) (2002) que “...una de las estrategias del Plan de Desarrollo Nacional (PND) es, el desarrollo humano y el crecimiento con calidad promoviendo una cultura hacia el trabajo para la plena realización de las personas y así mismo elevar su nivel de vida y el de sus familias, la que debe otorgarse mediante una nueva cultura empresarial para lograr recursos humanos capacitados e impulsar así una reforma laboral para la ampliación de las oportunidades de empleo”.

En el logro de este propósito el PND deberá apoyarse en la STPS con una correcta coordinación y apego a las diferentes Entidades Federativas; Donde estas se obligaran a dar cuenta de los logros obtenidos en este rubro. El bienestar social no es responsabilidad unísona del gobierno o de las empresas, este se debe lograr mediante el trabajo conjunto y con apego a las reglas de operación del sistema de capacitación para el empleo; el cual establece como objetivo ayudar a la población que cuente con empleo para atender las necesidades específicas de capacitación que las empresas deban implementar para mejorar las habilidades y destrezas de su planta laboral.

El Plan Nacional de Desarrollo 2007-2012. En el apartado 2.51 menciona que “una economía competitiva se caracteriza por altas tasas de crecimiento económico y de creación de empleos bien remunerados. (...) Entre los principales factores que determinan la competitividad se encuentran la productividad de la mano de obra, que depende en buena medida de la tecnología empleada, la eficiencia de los mercados, del marco regulatorio, así como de la disponibilidad de una infraestructura moderna”.

La dependencia que los mercados generan en relación a la tecnología y competitividad, envuelven fuertemente al papel que juegan las IME's, nuestra Entidad deberá pues poner suma atención al rubro de los empleadores ya que estos no deben solo buscar el rendimiento de sus operación si no que también deben apostar al bienestar económico, y cultural de sus empleados mediante el pago de salarios justos que reflejen efectivamente el esfuerzo realizado en su trabajo.

DESARROLLO

El Estado de Baja California, México, en la actualidad es considerado como generador e impulsador de empleos según lo enmarca el Programa para sostener e impulsar el crecimiento económico del Estado de Baja California; siendo una frontera potencialmente exportadora e importadora de bienes y servicios

debido a su posición geográfica estratégica y sede de diversas ramas de la industria maquiladora, cuenta con mano de obra especializada.

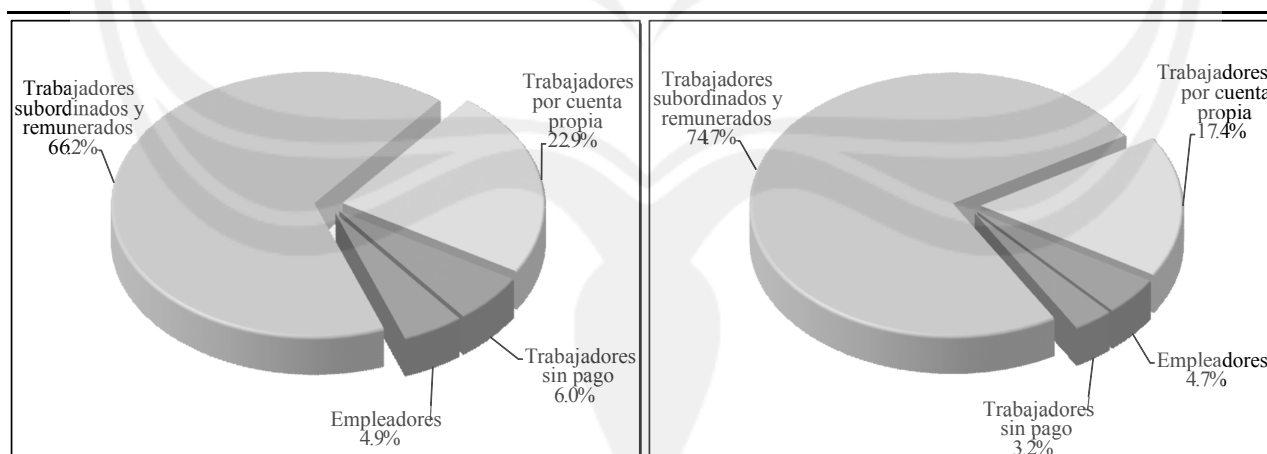
Natanael Ramírez Angulo Subsecretario de Atención a las Micro, Pequeñas y Medianas Empresas (MPYMES) publica en la página de gobierno el 07 de junio de 2011 que “Mexicali, B.C. establece que la política de desarrollo económico atiende como líneas estratégicas la inversión, el empleo y la competitividad con programas anticíclicos para atender los efectos de la caída de la economía y con una visión social orientada al bienestar de los bajacalifornianos; Adicionalmente expresó que se promueven los beneficios de la Ley de Fomento a la Competitividad y Desarrollo Económico que han llegado a más empresas a las que se les otorgan incentivos fiscales y no fiscales de acuerdo a la cantidad y nivel salarial de los empleos generados.”

Cabe destacar que la población de la Entidad de Baja California está representada por 3'220,206 habitantes, de los cuales 1'604,475 son hombres y 1'615,731 mujeres según datos del INEGI en abril del 2011, entre los cuales la población ocupada es de 1'325,960 y de estos 823,761 son hombres y 502,199 mujeres, siendo un indicador de la actividad económica el sector de industria manufacturera la cual se compone de un total de 243,197 empleos.

Lo que significa que aproximadamente el 20% de la población económicamente activa de nuestro estado se encuentra para el 2011 ubicada en el sector manufacturero.

Para abril del 2011 “El INEGI informa sobre los principales resultados de la Encuesta Nacional de Ocupación y Empleo (ENOE) y establece que el 57.9% de la población de 14 años y más en el país se encontraba disponible para producir bienes o servicios considerada como población económicamente activa (PEA); el restante 42.1% se ubicó en la población no económicamente activa.

Figura 1. Agregado Urbano de 32 ciudades a nivel nacional, Población Ocupada



Esta Figura Muestra; Población ocupada según su posición durante abril de 2011, Fuente: INEGI.

El estado aunque es un generados importante según lo afirma la Secretaria de Economía (ver figuras 2 y 3) en cuestión económica existe la desventaja que en materia de exportaciones e importaciones no es una entidad meramente independiente para establecer y controlar el precio de mano de obra a los obreros. Sin

embargo la industria manufacturera del extranjero mira al Baja California como un factor determinante en el logro de su ventaja competitiva.

Porter (2007) establece que la ventaja competitiva toma acciones ofensivas o defensivas para crear una posición defendible en una industria, con la finalidad de hacer frente, con éxito, a las fuerzas competitivas y generar un retorno sobre la inversión; según el autor la base del desempeño sobre el promedio dentro de una industria es la ventaja competitiva sostenida, la cual incluye dos conceptos, el primero liderazgo en costos a través de la mano de obra especializada y el segundo la diferenciación de sus productos; por lo tanto el pagar salarios mucho más baratos que el lugar de origen de las maquiladoras representa una causa determinante en la selección del país donde establecerá sus operaciones de transformación.

Una acción considerada como efectiva para mejorar la creación de empleo lo fue el Tratado de Libre Comercio (TLCAN): en los últimos años, México se ha convertido en la octava potencia comercial mundial y la primera en América Latina, con una participación del 44% de las exportaciones y 49% en las importaciones totales de la región. En solo diez años México ha triplicado sus exportaciones de 51.9 mil millones de dólares a 164 mil millones de dólares entre 1993 y 2003; e incrementado sus importaciones en 161% de 65.4 a 170.6 mil millones de dólares entre 1993 y 2003”.

Figura 2. Tratado de libre comercio respecto al comercio en el norte de México.

Tratado de Libre Comercio de América del Norte (TLCAN)

- El TLCAN entró en vigor el 1 de enero de 1994.

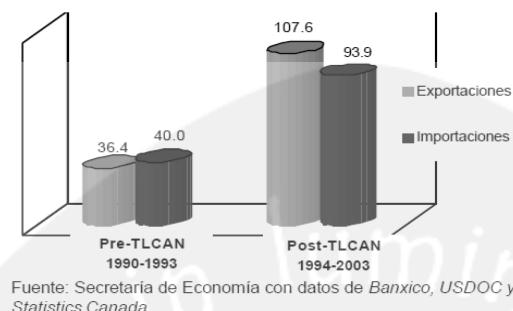
A) Comercio

Comercio México– EE.UU. y Canadá (TLCAN) (miles de millones de dólares)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	2000	2001	2002	2003	Var 03/93
Exportaciones												
EE.UU.	30.2	31.2	35.2	39.9	49.5	61.7	73.0	135.9	131.4	134.7	138.1	246%
Canadá	1.5	2.3	2.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.4	8.1	7.8	8.1	8.7	203%
TOTAL	31.7	33.4	37.5	42.8	52.8	65.6	77.4	144.0	139.2	142.8	146.8	243%
Importaciones												
EE.UU.	29.3	36.5	45.6	45.3	54.8	53.8	67.5	127.5	113.8	106.6	105.7	133%
Canadá	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.4	1.7	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.1	251%
TOTAL	29.7	37.3	46.7	46.5	56.4	55.2	69.3	131.6	118.0	111.0	109.8	136%

Esta Figura Muestra; Cifras del País Importadores de 1990 a 2003, Fuente: Secretaría de Economía, Banxico, USDOC y Statistics Canadá.

Figura 3. Promedio del comercio de México en el TLCAN



- Durante 2003, 90.5% del valor total de las exportaciones mexicanas fueron dirigidas a EE.UU. y Canadá.
- Asimismo, las compras mexicanas de productos provenientes de EE.UU. y Canadá representaron 64.2% del valor total de las importaciones de México.
- De esta forma, EE.UU. y Canadá participaron con 77.1% del comercio total de México durante 2003.

Esta Figura Muestra; el promedio de comercio en México después de Tratado de Libre Comercio, Fuente; Secretaría de Economía

Otra desventaja que se obtiene al incrementar las importaciones y exportaciones es la paridad de tipo de cambio frente al peso, debido a las conversiones que reflejan la diferencia del poder adquisitivo de un tipo de moneda frente a otro y todas sus variaciones o fluctuaciones cambiarias.

Clayton (Pag.155) manifiesta la importancia del dólar de la siguiente forma: “los grandes cambios en el valor internacional del dólar tiene un enorme impacto en las exportaciones e importaciones de la nación, por lo tanto impacta en el empleo de estas industrias. Cuando el poder adquisitivo del dólar es alto como a mediados de los 80’s, un gran número de productos importados llevaron al crecimiento del empleo en las industrias que realizan estas importaciones.

Esta fuerza se invierte cuando el valor del dólar cae, como sucedió en la década de los 90’s, provocando una situación de carencia u oportunidad para otros países, debido a que pierde su fuerza mientras que retoma su posición, como lo fue el caso de México.

Las IME’s se apegan a las legislaciones laborales de pago de salario del país donde establecen su operatividad, que en la mayoría de los casos apunta al beneficio de su propia empresa, para lograr su permanencia en el mercado, sostenimiento, competitividad y crecimiento empresarial buscan minimizar sus costos, que en la mayoría de los casos impacta en el salario de los trabajadores, lo que reflejan el bajo interés de las IME’s en otorgar bienestar social a sus empleados.

Las empresas de manufactura se apegan al cumplimiento de las normas fijadas por la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público (SHCP) para su operatividad respecto a la fijación de los salarios en las diferentes zonas geográficas del país; el cuál debiera ser el pago justo por conceptos de salarios según la jornada de trabajo que sea estipulada. De antemano conocemos que la zona norte del país conocida como área geográfica “A” cuenta con un salario de \$59.82 pesos, situaciones en la que encuadra todo ciudadano baja californiano, por lo tanto nos hacemos merecedores de un salario mínimo “alto” que según la

Comisión Nacional de Salarios Mínimos es superior al de la zona “B” y la zona “C” siendo \$58.13 pesos para el primero y \$56.70 pesos para el segundo.

A pesar de contar con un Salario mínimo superior al del resto del país, las condiciones de mercado y adquisición de bienes de consumo duradero y de sustento para las familias Bajacalifornianas, este salario no corresponde a la satisfacción de las necesidades que debiera proporcionar el trabajador a su familia, lo que significa que la calidad de vida basada en la percepción de este salario no refleja un bienestar social. Según los principios que rigen los actos en la Dirección Estatal de Empleo, a través de la generación de empleo digno se establece que: “Uno de los principales derechos de la persona en sociedad, es el derecho a un empleo digno y socialmente útil, mismo que le permite al individuo consolidar un patrimonio propio, lograr seguridad emocional y familiar, así como generar condiciones que posibiliten su acceso a mejores estados de vida abriéndole posibilidades para lograr su desarrollo humano integral.

De este derecho se derivan los principios que rigen los actos de la Dirección Estatal de Empleo en Baja California, brindando seguridad al ciudadano y estableciendo las bases del proceso económico del Estado. Ésa es la importancia de nuestra tarea y nuestra apuesta por la complementariedad entre la persona, la sociedad y el Gobierno, pues unos y otros, tenemos deberes propios y obligaciones recíprocas que nos hacen inseparables en la búsqueda de una mejor calidad de vida”.

El Gobierno del Estado de Baja California debe tener visión en la conjugación de esfuerzos tanto de la empresa, empleado y pago de salarios que reflejen la correcta realización del individuo en un largo término. El Estado debe satisfacer estas necesidades de manera oportuna. Tarea que es de gran responsabilidad y trascendencia social, que si efectivamente se logra satisfacer, el Estado se vería como paternalista al cubrir estas necesidades básicas.

A pesar de que Baja California ha implementado varias estrategias de captación de empresas manufactureras para generar empleo en el Estado, este no ha sido suficiente para que en el ejercicio del trabajo digno los empleados encuentren un salario que corresponda a la satisfacción de sus necesidades, debido a que las leyes a nivel laboral se encuentran muy por debajo de los estándares de calidad de vida deseados en esta frontera.

REFLEXION FINAL

El empleo debe ser remunerado acorde al servicio prestado, debe ser recíproco en trato digno, el empleador debe estar obligado moralmente ante la sociedad respecto a dar oportunidad al empleado de que a través de su salario devengado constituya un patrimonio lo suficientemente benefactor para recrear todas sus actividades, es decir que el individuo pueda realizarse plenamente, debe adicionalmente integrar necesidades del empleado y su familia, teniendo pleno compromiso con la superación del desarrollo en lo individual del trabajador, en el ámbito social, cultural, deportivo y en todas las áreas que son necesarias para crear mejores estados de vida. El otorgar empleo es crecimiento para el País, Estado y por ende a la economía nacional y estatal.

El salario que recibe el trabajador a cambio de su fuerza de trabajo debe de ser justo debido a que, lo que percibe por ese trueque es la sustentación del obrero y su familia sin embargo el salario mínimo establecido para la zona geográfica A, en donde se encuentra el Estado de Baja California considero no es acorde a la necesidad del trabajador ni a la de su familia, el estar en jornadas excesivas de trabajo o bien invirtiendo su tiempo libre como trabajo extra en la empresa no compensa el daño recibido con el salario

mínimo que recibe, aunque la misma Ley laboral establezca que es justo y mantiene la capacidad de satisfacer las necesidades del trabajador en el orden material, social, cultural e inclusive para la educación obligatoria de sus hijos; en lo particular considero que se ven dañados en todas las áreas anteriores por los patrones quienes a su beneficio utilizan la legislación a su favor al otorgar salarios bajas pero en apego a la legislación mexicana, entonces la responsabilidad total recae sobre el Estado; en donde no se ve reflejado el cumplimiento de los principios que establece la Dirección Estatal de Empleo. Las empresas de la región considero se ven amparadas ante esta situación y se escudan en la opción de pagar el mínimo vigente. A tal efecto, convendría primeramente inspirarse en los tipos de salarios pagados para trabajos similares en las industrias en que los trabajadores se encuentran suficientemente organizados, y han llegado a concretar contratos colectivos eficaces, y de no tener este término en comparación. Reflexionemos entonces en el grado de responsabilidad que acoge el Estado en el sentido de brindar “empleo digno”, socialmente útil”, “estabilidad emocional en lo individual y en lo familiar”, todo ello encaminado a lograr un mejor desarrollo humano el cual no se refleja en la clase obrera.

Ahora bien, cabría hacernos la siguiente pregunta: ¿El Estado sigue los principios que según la Dirección Estatal de Empleo deben ir encaminados a lograr una mejor calidad de vida en el trabajador?, veamos simplemente a nuestro alrededor y comprendamos que no se ven estos principios, un salario destinado al obrero no es lo suficientemente indispensable para satisfacer sus necesidades culturales, recreativas, deportivas y sobre todo de educación.

Esto es un problema que acoge nuestra Nación lo suficientemente grave como para reflexionar y reconsiderar en ¿Cuáles son las acciones que persigue y cumple realmente nuestro gobierno a favor de los bajacalifornianos?.

Creo la fijación de los salarios mínimos no solo protege al trabajador sino que también protege al patrón honesto que realmente respeta y ayuda a la generación de la riqueza del ser humano, brindando un “salario bien remunerado y competitivo”, que alienta al mismo crecimiento de la organización y provoca una empatía con el cumplimiento de sus obligaciones en materia laboral entre empresa-trabajador.

La industria maquiladora en Baja California, se le conoce particularmente por sus salarios bajos, aunque brindan prestaciones, incentivos, bonos, y otros diversos conceptos que tratan y remarco “tratan” de elevar el bienestar del trabajador y sus familias, a lo cual considero es una forma de evadir la atención hacia el salario real que otorga a su personal.

Aquí es donde realmente debería existir conciencia de parte del Gobierno al crear fuentes de empleo permitiendo el establecimiento de las a empresas extranjeras que únicamente están manteniendo ocupada a la población, pero al darse cuenta el trabajador que es engañado, en cuanto a la competencia y suficiencia de su salario, se siente frustrado, motivo por el cual causa apatía a seguir generando riqueza solo y exclusivamente al patrón y por ende al Gobierno y este a su vez es parte de un indicador más en fuente generadora de empleo denominado como “digno” lo cual deja mucho que desear; satisfaciendo solo las estadísticas para las cuales trabajan las instituciones como INEGI y demostrar que el Estado es rico en empleo y a su vez rico en desarrollo económico regional.

CONCLUSIÓN

- 1) El Estado de Baja California se apega a las reglas de operación de sus gobernados, otorga facilidades a nuevas fuentes de inversión en la región. La Instituciones como Instituto Nacional de Estadística y

Geografía (INEGI), Clasificación Mexicana de Ocupaciones (CMO), la Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión Social (STPS), la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público (SHCP), así como la Comisión Nacional de Salarios Mínimos (CNSM), interactúan en diversos aspectos en la regulación hacia la captación de inversión extranjera y evalúan el comportamiento de la empresa misma, su compatibilidad en la conjugación de esfuerzos en la operatividad del recurso humano calificado para operar en sus plantas productivas. El esfuerzo colateral de todas las instancias de Gobierno en el cumplimiento a la Dirección General de Empleo (DGE) no es claro, respecto a que no hay cumplimiento en el pleno desarrollo de la calidad de vida del obrero. Estos órganos regulan, ejecutan, actúan y operan acciones plenamente arbitrarias y dejan de lado el aspecto en el sentido de estabilidad de empleo la calidad de vida del trabajador así como el salario “digno” que recibe.

- 2) El empleo como la ocupación según algunos autores manifiestan son términos iguales mas no todos coinciden con esto; por consiguiente el presente trabajo habla de empleo y ocupación y coincide con la opinión de Neffa en donde uno y otro son aspectos distintos, al mismo tiempo que Instituciones como INEGI muestra sus estadísticas en población ocupada y con empleo.
- 3) El empleo surge entonces en la contratación que se le da al empleado, cualquiera que se le de origen al acto a esta situación. Según art. 22 LFT. Por consecuencia es necesario que se realice una estricta clasificación de las diversas actividades laborales que hay en nuestro país. Y así ubicar al trabajador según su capacidad laboral, educación, destrezas y habilidades.
- 4) Ahora bien el ingreso que se recibe a cambio de su labor debe ser constituido en efectivo o en bienes (u ambos), con apego a la legislación laboral vigente y siguiendo la normatividad de la Comisión de Salarios Mínimos (CNSM) en apoyo de la Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión Social (STPS), siempre y cuando sea un salario digno y socialmente útil, permitiendo la calidad de vida del trabajador y su familia.
- 5) La razón por la cual el gobierno trabaja a cuenta de nosotros es para generar empleo digno, justamente remunerado, para ello debe captar inversión extranjera, permitiendo su instalación, permanencia en el mercado, y estas a su vez ofertar empleo. A lo cual concluyo con la falta de negociación en cuanto al pago justo y digno que del salario se hace. No contribuyendo al bienestar social del trabajador y su familia.
- 6) Así mismo la Secretaría de Trabajo y Previsión Social (STPS) en cumplimiento al Plan de Desarrollo Nacional (PND), donde este último establece que generar empleo debe ser en la estricta función al desarrollo humano del trabajador y a su realización plena como individuo. Al cual concluyo que no se da cumplimiento a estos dos motivos, lo cual es un problema no solo de la entidad sino del país.
- 7) El Gobierno de Baja California debe en otros de los problemas que posee que no depende por sí solo, es decir, no fija un salario justo por apegarse al salario mínimo que se fija en la zona A de nuestro país, mismo que no es económicamente alto para cubrir sustento, educación, deporte y recreación.

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COMPRADORES MIGRANTES Y NO MIGRANTES DEL SUPERMERCADO A LA TIENDA DE BARRIO EN CARTAGENA DE INDIAS – COLOMBIA

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RESUMEN

En Colombia como en cualquier economía en desarrollo, siempre ha existido la denominada tienda de barrio (También se denomina tienda en otros países o colmado en las Antillas, bodega en Venezuela, almacén de barrio en Argentina y Chile, pulpería en Costa Rica y tienda de ultramarinos en España), de gran aceptación especialmente en los estratos socioeconómicos bajos de la población. A diferencia de otros países este tipo de negocios lejos de desaparecer se ha incrementado, convirtiéndose en el principal competidor de las grandes superficies. Dentro de los impulsores de dicho crecimiento se encuentra el aumento de la demanda por los productos en ella ofertados, el que a su vez se encuentra determinado, principalmente por la migración de muchas familias (compradoras en supermercados), hacia la tienda de barrio por una parte, y por otra, el ensanchamiento de la base de la pirámide social de la población como consecuencia del crecimiento natural de la misma en el marco de disminuidas condiciones económicas. Los resultados encontrados indican la existencia de tres aspectos principales: sociocultural (relaciones de amistad con el tendero, trato respetuoso y apoyo de éste en los momentos difíciles) económica (ingresos/desempleo) y comercial (variedad y tamaño de productos, crédito, horario, cercanía).

Palabras clave: migración, tienda de barrio, supermercado, comercio minorista

INTRODUCCION

El comercio en Colombia ocupa un lugar fundamental en su economía tanto por su participación en el PIB como en la generación de empleo. Dentro de éste es relevante el comercio detallista, en especial el referente a productos de consumo masivo que se encuentra polarizado en tiendas de barrio y gran comercio, los cuales crecen y se desarrollan simultáneamente.

Detrás del crecimiento de las tiendas de barrio, se encuentran como impulsores aspectos sociales, culturales, comerciales y económicos; los económicos han conducido al achatamiento de la pirámide social, lo que ha llevado a muchas familias de regreso a la *tienda*, es decir migrar del supermercado a la tradicional tienda de barrio.

La migración en cuestión se presenta tanto total como parcialmente, dependiendo de las condiciones sociales y económicas del consumidor, bajo la premisa de que la *tienda* es la única que ofrece, entre otros, los productos en las presentaciones que el comprador necesita, dentro de su limitación en cuanto al monto total a pagar se refiere.

REVISION LITERARIA

La evolución del comercio al detalle ha sido explicada por diferentes teóricos y académicos lo que ha conducido a la formulación de teorías y modelos de la venta al detalle. La presente investigación se fundamenta en la rueda en espiral (Agergaard, et., alia, 1970), que integra las teorías cíclicas, del conflicto y las medioambientales por una parte, y por la otra el principio de la polaridad de la venta al detalle (Brown, 1987, Dressman y Schary, 1960 y Kirby, 1976), toda vez que el comercio minorista de productos de gran consumo en Colombia se encuentra polarizado entre las tiendas de barrio y las grandes superficies.

La *rueda en espiral* plantea que una institución de venta al por menor regresará a un nivel más alto del que se encontraba en su posición original, a diferencia de la *teoría de la rueda de de venta al por menor* que propone que una institución de venta al detalle se desarrollará, dará vueltas y terminará en su puesto original. Son ejemplo de ello las tiendas de conveniencia que han evolucionado a partir de tiendas de la esquina convencionales; las tiendas de comida (igualmente de descuento) que corresponden a un tipo de institución de venta al por menor avanzado de supermercados tempranos, y los centros comerciales que se refieren a un tipo de institución de venta al por menor más complicado de complejos comerciales del centro de pueblo.

El modelo CREM (Evolución del modelo de combinación minorista), o Rueda en Espiral, se basa en las tres teorías de evolución de venta al por menor más comúnmente usadas: la teoría cíclica (ciclo de precio: mínimo – alto – bajo (McNair, 1958); ciclo de surtido: general –específico – general (Hollander, 1966), la teoría de conflicto (síntesis empresa inicial)– antítesis (empresa competidora) – tesis (nueva empresa con características de las dos anteriores (Gist, 1968; Oren, 1989) y la teoría del entorno o medioambiental (variables del entorno, afectan la evolución de las instituciones detallistas: demográficas, socioeconómicas, legales, geográficas de competencia y tecnológicas (Brown, 1987; Gist, 1968; Oren, 1989).

Los tres principios teóricos en los que se fundamenta la Rueda en espiral son:

- a. Estructuras rítmicas del cambio en espiral (figura 1., primera parte del esquema)
- b. Efectos del conflicto o cambios en la competencia (figura 1., primera parte del esquema)
- c. Influencia del ambientes de venta al por menor

Por otra parte, las preferencias de los consumidores por los atributos de la tienda o por los de los productos cambian; estas preferencias a su vez, están influenciados por la orientación de las comprar y ésta por los factores sociodemográficos (Monroe y Guiltinan, 1975; Sheth 1983; Shim y Kotsiopulos 1992).

Como se aprecia, Agergaard, et., alia (1970), separan al consumidor del grupo de factores medioambientales; esto se debe a que ellos consideran al consumidor como el mayor influenciador e interactuante en la venta al por menor. Algunos investigadores como McNair (1958) y Gist (1968) no señalan el papel del consumidor en el proceso de cambio de la venta minorista, otros como Blizzard (1976) ni siquiera lo mencionan Kim (2003). Igualmente investigadores como Monroe & Guiltinan (1975) y Arnold, Handelman & Tigert (1998), si presentan la capacidad del consumidor para actuar directamente y ejercer influencia en la evolución de la venta al por menor.

De acuerdo con MacNair y May (1978) y Sheth (1983), las necesidades de un consumidor por un cierto tipo de tienda minorista están influenciadas por aspectos económicos, tecnológicos y la estructura social. En razón a esta explicación, la preferencia de los consumidores por los atributos de la tienda y/o los

productos y las influencias ambientales asociadas son propuestas en la Rueda en Espiral para tener una relación causa efecto.

Planteamiento Problema ¿Cuáles son los factores socio – culturales, económicos y a nivel del mercadeo que permiten la tipificación de los compradores migrantes y no migrantes del supermercado a la tienda de barrio en la ciudad de Cartagena?

Objetivo General: Tipificar a los compradores migrantes y no migrantes del supermercado a la tienda de barrio con base en los factores socio – culturales, económicos y a nivel del mercado, que los lleva a elegirla como proveedor de productos de gran consumo, en la ciudad de Cartagena.

METODOLOGIA

La población objeto de estudio se encuentra referida por con las familias compradoras en las tiendas de barrio y que se encuentran ubicadas en el área de influencia de los supermercados (22 zonas entre barrios y urbanizaciones).

Se tomó una muestra 247 hogares resultado de la aplicación de la fórmula de proporciones para población infinita, con un margen de error del 5% y un nivel de confianza del 95% y tomando p como la proporción de personas que han regresado parcial o totalmente a comprar en la tienda (80%) y q , como la proporción de personas que mayoritariamente continúan comprando todos los productos en el supermercado (20%).

Para el procesamiento de la información y validez del instrumento de recolección de información se recurrió al software DYANE, *versión 4, Diseño y análisis de encuestas en investigación social y de mercados*, el cual permite la utilización amigable de diversas técnicas estadísticas para analizar los datos. La elección de la técnica específica en cada caso se efectuó en función de los objetivos específicos de la investigación.

Para la tipificación de los encuestados fueron utilizadas variables categóricas y mixtas; para esas últimas se utilizó una escala de Likert con valoración de cinco puntos para medir grados de acuerdo/desacuerdo; dicha escala se valió con el coeficiente Alfa de Cronbach, dando una alta consistencia interna (0,83), muy superior al nivel de 0.7 (Peterson, 1994). Debido a que al aplicar las pruebas χ^2 y F de Snedecor, para establecer diferencias significativas entre grupos, en algunas variables los resultados no eran coincidentes se procedió a realizar un AFC (análisis factorial de correspondencias) por su facilidad en la asociación de diferentes variables; finalmente para la tipificación de grupos se hizo un *Cluster análisis* (análisis de grupos); por tratarse de una muestra grande, se utilizó el algoritmo de Howard-Harris.

ANALISIS DE RESULTADOS

La aplicación de una encuesta a 247 personas (1 por familia) ha permitido conocer cuáles son los motivos que han llevado a las familias a continuar comprando en la tienda de barrio o a regresar a ella e incrementar sus volúmenes de compra. Un 36% de los consumidores lleva 10 y más años comprando en la tienda, mientras que el 55 % lo hace desde hace cinco.

Las características de antigüedad como comprador en la tienda de barrio y la cantidad de productos que el consumidor adquiere en la tienda se constituyen en un indicativo principal del incremento de la demanda por la tienda de barrio. En la tabla 1 puede observarse que si bien solamente el 3,14% de las

personas compra en la tienda todos los productos de la canasta familiar y un 26,7% adquiere la mayoría de ellos, al mirar estas cifras teniendo en cuenta el tiempo que ellas llevan comprando en dichos establecimientos, la situación es muy diferente: el 100% de las personas compran en la tienda desde hace diez años bien sea mayoría de los productos (73,5%) o todos (26,5%); en cuanto a los que compran desde hace cinco años además de mostrar una situación parecida, se destaca una tercera parte que ya compra algunos de los productos.

Motivos principales por los cuales las personas compran o han regresado a comprar en la tienda de barrio.

Los motivos por los cuales las personas que han comprado o compran en la tienda de barrio, se encuentran asociados con diversos aspectos de orden económico, comercial y cultural. Cada grupo de variables presenta un peso diferente en la decisión de compra del consumidor; en su orden se encuentran: comerciales, socioculturales y económicas.

Tabla 1. Cantidad de productos comprados en función de la antigüedad como comprador en tienda de barrio

CANTIDAD CANASTA FAMILIAR	PRODUCTOS	ANTIGÜEDAD		
		TOTAL MUESTRA %	DESDE SIEMPRE %	DESDE HACE 10 AÑOS %
1. Algunos de ellos		70,16	88,4	0,00
2. La mayoría de ellos		26,70	8,70	73,50
3. Todos		3,14	2,90	26,50
TOTAL		100%	100%	100%

La tabla muestra la cantidad de productos comprados en función del tiempo que la persona lleva comprando en la tienda

Al ordenar los mencionados motivos de mayor a menor (tabla 2), puede observarse que de ellos el de mayor peso es la *cercanía de la tienda* (29,65%), como lo afirma el 88,48% de las personas; seguidamente se encuentran la *oferta de productos en pequeñas presentaciones y el fraccionamiento de productos* (Estas dos variables se encuentran estrechamente relacionadas ya que la oferta de productos en pequeñas presentaciones corresponde a la evolución del fraccionamiento que tradicionalmente ha hecho el tendero de los productos y que se conoce como *menudeo*. Hoy el fabricante produce y empaqueta productos en tamaños acordes con las necesidades del cliente de la tienda); posteriormente y en su orden (con muy pequeñas diferencias porcentuales) se encuentran el *trato amistoso y respetuoso del tendero*, la *disminución de los ingresos familiares*, el *número de tiendas cercanas a la vivienda* y la *oferta de crédito*. Si engloba al trato y respetuoso del tendero el *apoyo en los momentos difíciles* (5,26), emerge la relación tendero/cliente como el segundo motivo más importante.

Las otras variables referidas a la tienda como sitio de *socialización y no rigurosidad en la presentación personal para ir a comprar*, si bien son motivos importante no tienen la fuerza suficiente en el marco de la migración del supermercado a la tienda.

Un comportamiento similar se encuentra en la calificación dada a las siguientes afirmaciones: *Si en el supermercado encontrara los productos en las presentaciones que ofrecen en las tiendas aumentaría el monto de mis compras en ese sitio; y He vuelto a comprar en la tienda porque no encuentro diferencia significativa en la relación cantidad precio de los productos que en ella encuentro frente a los que me ofrece el supermercado*; los que siempre han comprado en tiendas se encuentran en total desacuerdo con estas afirmaciones (18.18% y 27.27% respectivamente), el restante porcentaje expresa estar en total y

medianamente acuerdo, se mantienen en la misma proporción. El orden prioritario de los motivos de la migración de los supermercados a las tiendas de barrio se demuestra también mediante el análisis de los valores medios ordenados de mayor a menor. De un total de 13 motivos, tomados sobre la base de una calificación superior a 3,5, siete pertenecen a la categoría comercial, cuatro a la categoría cultural y dos a la económica (tabla 2). A nivel comercial son mejor calificados los factores referentes al número de tiendas cercanas a la vivienda (4,5), su ubicación (4,4) y la devolución de productos (4,03). Tabla 3A.

Tabla 2. Motivos de traslado y/o aumento de compras en la tienda de barrio

MOTIVOS	FREC.	TOTAL (%)	MUESTRA (%)
1. Cercanía de la tienda	169	29,65	88,48
2. Oferta de productos en pequeñas presentaciones	56	9,82	29,32
3. Fraccionamiento de los productos	54	9,47	28,27
4. Trato amistoso y respetuoso del tendero	53	9,30	27,75
5. Disminución ingresos familiares	50	8,77	26,18
6. Número de tiendas cercanas a la vivienda	47	8,25	24,61
7. Oferta de crédito	41	7,19	21,47
8. Sitio para socializar con amigos y vecinos	35	6,14	18,32
9. No rigurosidad en la presentación personal	31	5,44	16,23
10. Apoyo del tendero en momentos difíciles	30	5,26	15,71
11. Disminución tamaño de la familia	4	0,70	2,09
Total frecuencias	570	100,00	298,43

La tabla muestra la distribución porcentual de los motivos de compra como y el total de personas que elige cada uno de ellos,

En los culturales se privilegia la amplitud del horario ya que el comerciante abre en promedio a las 6 a.m y cierra alrededor de las 10 de la noche. Tabla 3 B. Dentro de los motivos económicos, los encuestados resaltan el tipo de crédito que le otorga el tendero (3,8), los costos de tiempo y transporte para ir al supermercado (3,5). Tabla 3 C.

Tabla 3 . Motivos de traslado del supermercado a la tienda de barrio (Tabulación de valores medios)

VAR	AFIRMACIÓN	MEDIA ARITMÉTICA	DESVIACIÓN ESTANDAR
A. Motivos comerciales			
15	Cerca de mi vivienda dispongo de tres o más tiendas para hacer mis compras	4,4555	0,8230
17	Considero que una de las grandes ventajas que ofrece la tienda es su ubicación	4,4398	0,6673
25	Las devoluciones que aceptan en la tienda no las aceptan en los supermercados	4,0366	0,9728
8	En el supermercado compro principalmente los productos que me significan una buena	3,8796	1,1537
24	En el supermercado recibo la amabilidad del empleado para cualquier cliente	3,7539	1,1149
5	Compro en la tienda porque me adaptan las cantidades y precios del producto que	3,6754	1,0923
16	Me gustan las condiciones higiénicas de la tienda donde hago mis compras	3,6440	1,1929
B. Motivos socioculturales			
12	La tienda es un lugar al que puedo acceder a tempranas horas del día o tarde de la	4,4555	0,7567
14	Prefiero comprar en la tienda porque está muy cerca de mi vivienda.	3,8429	1,2766
22	En la tienda recibo el trato personalizado y amistoso que no me dan en el	3,6335	1,2115
23	Me gusta ir a comprar a la tienda porque no me exige rigurosidad en cuanto a la	3,5916	1,0389
C. Motivos económicos			
18	Los costos de tiempo y transporte para ir al supermercado, me llevan a preferir	3,8168	1,1680
19	El tipo de crédito que me otorga el tendero no me lo ofrece el supermercado	3,5602	1,2555

En esta tabla se muestra los principales motivos por los cuales las personas han migrado o continúan comprando en la tienda de barrio con base en una escala de Likert con valoración de 5 puntos para medir grados de acuerdo/desacuerdo.

Tabla 4 . Motivos de traslado del supermercado a la tienda de barrio según el tiempo que se lleva comprando en ella (Tabulación de valores medios)

	VARIABLES	TOTAL MUESTRA	ANTIGÜEDAD – COMPRAS EN TIENDA DE BARRIO			F DE SNEDECOR
			DESDE SIEMPRE	HACE 10 AÑOS	HACE 5 AÑOS	
5	Adaptación de cantidades y precios	Med= 3,6754 N= 257	3,4058 22	5,0000 89	3,7565 136	F(2,188) = 8,0883 (p = 0,0004)
6	Más compra en tiendas y menos en supermercados	Med= 2,9895 N= 257	2,4783 22	4,0000 89	3,2348 136	F(2,188) = 9,4332 (p = 0,0001)
7	Regreso al supermercado si ofrecen tamaños pequeños	Med= 3,3194 N= 257	3,1304 69	1,7143 89	3,5304 136	F(2,188) = 9,9558 (p = 0,0001)
8	Compra promociones en los supermercados	Med= 3,8796 N= 257	3,6232 22	4,7143 89	3,9826 136	F(2,188) = 4,1034 (p = 0,0180)
9	Más productos con menos dinero	Med= 2,9581 N= 257	2,5507 22	4,2857 89	3,1217 136	F(2,188) = 5,6275 (p = 0,0042)
10	Tienda/supermerc. similar relación calidad/precio	Med= 2,6754 N= 257	2,4783 22	4,0000 89	2,7130 1365	F(2,188) = 6,8115 (p = 0,0014)
11	Menos personas en el hogar	Med= 2,1623 N= 257	2,0000 22	2,8571 89	2,2174 136	F(2,188) = 2,1330 (p = 0,1213)
12	Horario favorable de la tienda	Med= 4,4555 N= 257	4,3333 22	5,0000 89	4,4957 136	F(2,188) = 2,9158 (p = 0,0566)
13	La tienda es un buen sitio para socializar	Med= 3,4660 N= 257	3,2754 22	3,2857 89	3,5913 136	F(2,188) = 1,4181 (p = 0,2447)
14	Cercanía de la tienda a la vivienda	Med= 3,8429 N= 257	3,8841 22	4,7143 89	3,7652 136	F(2,188) = 1,8870 (p = 0,1544)
15	Cantidad de tiendas cercanas a la vivienda	Med= 4,4555 N= 257	4,4493 22	5,0000 89	4,4261 136	F(2,188) = 1,6093 (p = 0,2028)
16	Ambiente y condiciones higiénicas de la tienda	Med= 3,6440 N= 257	3,3768 22	3,7143 89	3,8000 136	F(2,188) = 2,7624 (p = 0,0657)
17	Ubicación favorable de la tienda	Med= 4,4398 N= 257	4,4493 22	5,0000 89	4,4000 136	F(2,188) = 2,7119 (p = 0,0690)
18	Reducción de costos en transporte y tiempo	Med= 3,8168 N= 257	3,7536 22	4,2857 89	3,8261 136	F(2,188) = 0,6628 (p = 0,5166)
19	Facilidad de crédito	Med= 3,5602 N= 257	3,2174 22	4,2857 89	3,7217 136	F(2,188) = 4,8580 (p = 0,0088)
20	Reducción de ingresos personales	Med= 2,8534 N= 257	2,2754 22	4,2857 89	3,1130 136	F(2,188) = 15,9182 (p = 0,0000)
21	Reducción de ingresos familiares	Med= 2,6911 N= 257	2,2464 22	4,2857 89	2,8609 136	F(2,188) = 11,6691 (p = 0,0000)
22	Trato personalizado y respetuoso del tendero	Med= 3,6335 N= 257	3,2029 22	4,2857 89	3,8522 136	F(2,188) = 7,7176 (p = 0,0006)
23	No rigurosidad en la presentación personal	Med= 3,5916 N= 257	3,4058 22	4,7143 89	3,6348 136	F(2,188) = 5,5125 (p = 0,0047)
24	Trato impersonal en el supermercado	Med= 3,7539 N= 257	3,3768 22	5,0000 89	3,9043 136	F(2,188) = 10,2203 (p = 0,0001)
25	El tendero acepta todas las devoluciones	Med= 4,0366 N= 257	3,6812 22	5,0000 80	4,1913 136	F(2,188) = 0,3753 (p = 0,0001)

En esta tabla se muestra la tabulación de valores medios en función del tiempo que los compradores llevan adquiriendo sus productos en la tienda de barrio con la aplicación de la prueba F de Snedecor para encontrar diferencias significativas entre grupos.

No obstante lo anterior, si se mira la opinión de los encuestados en función del tiempo que llevan comprando en la tienda de barrio (tabla 4), puede observarse que en 13 de las 24 afirmaciones presentadas existen diferencias significativas entre los grupos como lo muestra el nivel de significancia al aplicar la prueba F de Snedecor el cual se encuentra entre $p=0,0000$ y $p=0,0042$.

Las diferencia anotadas se encuentran marcadas principalmente por aquellas personas que llevan 10 años y más comprando en esos pequeños establecimientos; ellas privilegian al tendero como su proveedor de productos de gran consumo tanto por los beneficios comerciales que éste les entrega como por el trato respetuoso, de colaboración y personalizado. En las otras afirmaciones como las referidas al horario flexible de la tienda, la cercanía de esta al sitio de la vivienda, el número de puntos de venta igualmente cercanos a la vivienda, la ubicación favorable de la misma y la reducción de costos en transporte y tiempo, este segmento de personas da la valoración más alta.

TIPIFICACIÓN DE LOS COMPRADORES EN TIENDA DE BARRIO A TRAVÉS DE UN ANÁLISIS DE CLUSTER

Con el propósito de identificar los distintos grupos de consumidores en función de los motivos que los lleva a comprar en la tienda de barrio, se ha utilizado la técnica estadística denominada genéricamente análisis de grupo (*cluster analysis*) y dentro de ella el modelo descendente (*breaking down*), basado en el algoritmo de Howard - Harris. Para la realización de comparaciones homogéneas y poder garantizar un tamaño suficientemente grande, se han retenido cuatro grupos en todos los análisis. Esto permite identificar al menos dos grupos extremos uno con valoraciones muy de acuerdo (positivo) y otro con valoraciones de acuerdos muy bajos (negativo), los demás tienen opiniones específicamente intermedias.

Motivos comerciales

Los motivos comerciales seleccionados, son los mismos que se han tomado para el análisis factorial de correspondencias: *Adaptación de cantidades y precios, regreso al supermercado si éste vende en pequeñas cantidades, compra en supermercados sólo si la promoción es buena, no diferencia en la relación cantidad/precio, tienda/supermercado, varias tiendas cerca de a la vivienda, condiciones higiénicas de la tienda, trato impersonal en el supermercado, devolución de pequeñas cantidades.*

De las particiones realizadas, se tomó la tercera división (con una suma de cuadrados explicada por dicha partición de 54,45%), la cual permite la obtención de cuatro grupos de los cuales; con base en las valoraciones medias, se ha identificado como grupos extremos al 1 y 2, y como grupos intermedios 3 y 4. Los grupos que se ubican en los extremos poseen el mayor número de valoraciones medias positivas más alto y negativo más bajos. Estos grupos se pueden caracterizar de la siguiente manera:

Grupo 1. Integrado por 83 personas, presenta mayor número de variables positivas, a éste grupo se ha denominado “Buscadores de servicio – Cómodos.”: Compran en las tiendas porque allí les adaptan las cantidades y los precios a sus ingresos, encuentran las presentaciones adecuadas a sus necesidades (fraccionamiento de productos) (El fraccionamiento de los productos es una práctica inherente a las tiendas de barrio. Las acciones de fraccionamiento son realizadas por el tendero previamente (re-empaque) o al momento de ser requerido por el cliente y a precios bastante asequibles para éste: \$200 de salchichón, \$500 de queso, \$100 de tomate, etc.), no encuentran diferencia significativa en la variedad y precios entre la tienda y el supermercado, la tienda esta cerca de su vivienda, y además le acepta devoluciones. Estos compradores de tienda, solo van a los supermercados a comprar los productos que están en promociones especiales.

Grupo 2. Integrado por 80 personas, presenta la mayor cantidad de variables negativas, a éste grupo se les denominó los “Buscadores de Respeto - Exigentes” coinciden en las exigencias de la higiene de la tienda y la amabilidad del empleado del supermercado.

Grupo 3. Integrado por 32 personas. Es el grupo más pequeño y puede llamarse el de los “Repondedores de despensa”, el número de tiendas cercanas a su vivienda es poco, compra en la tienda lo que se le va agotando de la compra realizada en el supermercado, en donde ya es conocido.

Grupo 4. Integrado por 52 personas, se ha denominado el de los “Esporádicos o irregulares”, poco le gusta ir a la tienda pues considera que las condiciones higiénicas no son las adecuadas; compra cuando se agotan los productos en la despensa y no puede ir al supermercado.

Motivos socioculturales

Los motivos socioculturales seleccionados, se han tomado de las siguientes afirmaciones: *he vuelto a comprar en la tienda de barrio porque el tamaño de mi familia se ha reducido y no necesito comprar productos en presentaciones grandes, la tienda es un lugar al que puedo acceder a tempranas horas del día o tarde de la noche (amplitud de horario), la tienda puede considerarse como un lugar de encuentro, diversión y socialización, prefiero comprar en la tienda porque está muy cerca de mi vivienda, en la tienda recibo el trato personalizado y amistoso que no me dan en el supermercado, me gusta ir a comprar a la tienda porque no me exige rigurosidad en cuanto a la presentación personal.*

Se llevó a cabo un total de tres divisiones para la obtención de cuatro grupos homogéneos con una suma de cuadrados explicada por dicha partición del 53,71%. En los extremos se ubicaron los grupos 1 y 2; intermedios los grupos 3 y 4.

Grupo 1. Conformado por 42 personas, se presenta como dominante con el mayor número de valores medios más altos: de 6 coinciden en 5. Este grupo se denominó “Los sociables” Son personas con familias de tamaño reducido, que disfrutan la cercanía de la tienda a sus viviendas, aprecian el trato personalizado y amistoso del tendero y la no rigurosidad en cuanto a la presentación personal y ven la tienda como un lugar de encuentro, esparcimiento y socialización.

Grupo 2. Conformado por 52 personas se caracteriza por el mayor número de valores medios negativos más bajos. Este grupo se denominó “Egocéntrico y muy ocupado”; las personas pertenecientes a este grupo, no muestra interés por socializar, lo que más les gusta y sobre lo cual coinciden es la facilidad de acceso a la tienda a tempranas horas del día o tarde de la noche. (El horario de atención al público en promedio de las tiendas de barrio, va desde las 6:00 a.m. a 10:00 p.m. es decir, el tendero brinda a sus clientes 17 y hasta 18 (los fines de semana) horas continuas de servicio; la amplitud de este horario permite la facilidad de acceso al momento de comprar en cualquier hora del día, inclusive en horas picos o de almuerzo y cena. Al establecer rangos de atención se observa que el 37% se ubica exactamente en el horario anteriormente mencionado, un 27% ofrece una hora adicional de servicio y 22% reduce el tiempo de atención en una hora jornada nocturna, solo un 14% trabaja en horario de 7:00a.m. a 11 p.m. (Hernandez y Cabrera, 2007)).

Grupo 3. Es el más grande de todos ya que se encuentra integrado por 91 personas; se le ha denominado “Los considerados”; lo que menos le exigen a la tienda son los horarios adicionales y esperan encontrar en la tienda el servicio y el trato que se da en cualquier negocio.

Grupo 4. Este grupo se encuentra compuesto por 62 personas que trabajan en horarios no flexibles por lo cual pueden comprar muy temprano en la mañana o muy tarde en la noche; la variación de su ciclo de vida familiar no es determinante para comprar en la tienda.

Motivos económicos

Los motivos económicos seleccionados, se han tomado de las siguientes afirmaciones: *en los últimos cinco años he aumentado las compras en la tienda y disminuido en el supermercado, con la misma suma de dinero adquiero mayor variedad de productos en la tienda que en el supermercado por el tamaño de las presentaciones que ella me ofrece, los costos de tiempo y transporte para ir al supermercado, me llevan a preferir comprar en la tienda, el tipo de crédito que me otorga el tendero no me lo ofrece el supermercado, el descenso de mis ingresos me ha llevado a incrementar la frecuencia de compra y disminuir el volumen de la misma, la disminución de los ingresos familiares me han llevado a disminuir la compra en el supermercado e incrementar la compra en la tienda*

Al igual que con los anteriores motivos, se hicieron tres divisiones con una suma de cuadrados explicada por las particiones de 55,08%. De los cuatro grupos resultantes también se colocan en los extremos los grupos 1 y 2, siendo el uno el que posee las variables con una media positiva más alta, y el dos con variables cuya media negativa es más baja.

Grupo 1. Integrado por 89 personas es el más grande de todos; se le ha denominado el “Migrante económico racional”. Las personas de este grupo han incrementado la compra en la tienda en los últimos cinco años, se han visto afectadas por la disminución de sus ingresos y compran en la tienda porque con la misma suma de dinero, pueden obtener mayor variedad de productos allí que en el supermercado, debido al tamaño de las presentaciones propias y preestablecida ofertadas por el tendero.

Grupo 2. Compuesto por 47 personas, se caracteriza porque para definir la compra en la tienda, tiene como prioridad el ahorro del tiempo y del dinero en el transporte para trasladarse hasta el supermercado. Este grupo se ha denominado los “Dependientes” ya que corresponde al segmento para el que la tienda es su primera opción.

Grupo 3. Integrado por 74 personas. Se le ha denominado “Estable y fiel” ya que gusta de hacer el *diario* (Para muchos consumidores la compra diaria en la tienda significa: adquirir productos más frescos, mejor aprovechamiento del espacio en el hogar al no tener que almacenar productos y un mayor control de la despesa). en la tienda sin importar el crédito y/o precios de los productos o los costos de transporte y tiempo.

Grupo 4. Es el más pequeño; se encuentra compuesto por 37 personas cuyas características relevantes hacen referencia en primera instancia a la ventaja del tipo de crédito ofertado por la tienda y que no encuentran en el supermercado; en segunda instancia el descenso de sus ingresos lo lleva a una frecuencia alta de compra en pequeñas cantidades, que es la compra típica de un consumidor de tienda de barrio. Se ha denominado “Económico adaptable”.

CONCLUSIONES

En Cartagena de Indias, una de las principales ciudades capitales de Colombia, la tienda de barrio es hoy uno de los principales proveedores de productos de gran consumo para unos y para otros el principal, por su capacidad de adaptación inmediata a las necesidades de su cliente en el marco de una favorable relación *tendero/cliente*.

De otra parte como lo plantean MacNair y May (1978) y Sheth (1983), las necesidades de un consumidor por un cierto tipo de tienda minorista están influenciadas por aspectos económicos, tecnológicos y la estructura social. Estas necesidades miradas como motivos por los cuales los consumidores compran, incrementan sus compras y migran del supermercado a la tienda de barrio en su orden se encuentran los comerciales, los socioculturales y finalmente los económicos.

Aunque los factores económicos aparentemente se muestren como los de menos peso, éstos se encuentran detrás de los motivos comerciales, principalmente en lo referente al tamaño y fraccionamiento de los productos buscados y al crédito ofertado por el tendero. La identificación de los diferentes grupos de compradores, sienta las bases para la derivación de líneas de investigación que permitan establecer relaciones causa/efecto de los aspectos económicos y las necesidades de los consumidores por la tienda de barrio y la adaptación tanto de las tiendas de barrio como de sus proveedores a esas necesidades.

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SISTEMA DE GESTIÓN INTEGRAL DE PROVEEDORES DE LA CORPORACIÓN DE CIENCIA Y TECNOLOGÍA PARA EL DESARROLLO DE LA INDUSTRIA NAVAL, MARÍTIMA Y FUVIAL EN COLOMBIA

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RESUMEN.

El siguiente artículo presenta los resultados de investigación que tiene como objetivo principal, exponer un modelo que abarca los procesos para el manejo integral de proveedores de bienes y servicios de la Corporación de Investigación y desarrollo-COTECMAR. La metodología utilizada estuvo apoyada en la matriz de aprovisionamiento diseñada por Peter Kraljic y fundamentado en sistemas de gestión de proveedores de empresas Colombianas como Ecopetrol y Bavaria. Los resultados revelan que dada la naturaleza y complejidad de una Corporación como COTECMAR, es necesario establecer e implementar los procesos de clasificación, evaluación, desarrollo y certificación de proveedores, como una herramienta que permita una mayor integración de la Corporación con sus proveedores y a su vez la definición de estrategias de abastecimiento, que ayuden a dinamizar la cadena de suministros e incrementar la capacidad de gestión y el nivel de competitividad de la organización.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Modelo de Gestión, procesos, proveedores, abastecimiento, competitividad, logística.

ABSTRACT

The following article presents the results of research that has as main objective to expose a model that includes processes for the integrated management of suppliers of goods and services of Research and Development Corporation-Cotecmar. The methodology used was supported by the provisioning matrix designed by Peter Kraljic and based on vendor management systems of Colombian companies such as Ecopetrol and Bavaria. The results show that given the nature of a corporation as Cotecmar is necessary to establish and implement the classification, evaluation, development and certification of providers, as a tool to further integration of the Corporation with its suppliers and in turn the definition of sourcing strategies that help streamline the supply chain and increase management capacity and the competitiveness of the organization.

JEL: M1, M10

KEY WORDS: Management Model, processes, suppliers, supply, competitiveness

INTRODUCCIÓN.

En este mundo competitivo es imposible asegurar la conservación de una empresa, si esta actúa de manera aislada a su entorno, es decir, no reacciona frente a la competencia, no conoce las necesidades de sus clientes o no mantiene una relación de mutuo beneficio con sus proveedores de bienes y servicios. Actualmente las tendencias logísticas como el Supply Chain Management (administración de la cadena de abastecimiento), exigen que las empresas se integren de tal manera con sus proveedores y clientes,

principalmente, para competir entre redes y no de forma independiente; por lo tanto, es necesario que las organizaciones tengan en cuenta las necesidades de sus proveedores y clientes para trabajar conjuntamente en el cumplimiento de los objetivos estratégicos.

A partir del surgimiento de la logística integral, la gestión de proveedores se convirtió en una de las estrategias fundamentales de la gerencia moderna para la generación de valor agregado, pues al ser el primer eslabón de la cadena de suministro permite dinamizarla, situación que se refleja en mejoras en competitividad, lo que se traduce en incremento de la capacidad de gestión y, precisamente, la generación de valor agregado en las empresas.

Con el propósito de construir valor, es necesario considerar a los proveedores como aliados estratégicos y estrechar las relaciones con los mismos, con el fin de elevar los niveles de confianza entre las partes y así poder dar a conocer con anticipación el plan de compras a los proveedores para que ellos se encarguen de ejecutarlo de acuerdo con las condiciones establecidas de calidad, costo, plazo y servicio postventa; por lo que su participación será activa y por lo tanto las partes obtendrán beneficios mutuos; pero para llegar a estos niveles de confianza, es necesario pasar por una serie de procesos, evaluaciones, diagnósticos, identificación de fortalezas y debilidades, con el fin último de generar un plan de acción de acuerdo a las necesidades detectadas y poder fortalecer la integración en todos los eslabones de la cadena de valor, con esta fortalecida, se pueden obtener beneficios en costos, tiempos de entrega, calidad y por ende una mejora en competitividad, vía reducción de costos.

De acuerdo a las anteriores consideraciones, la investigación muestra cómo se diseñaron los nuevos procesos para mejorar la gestión de los proveedores de la Corporación de ciencia y tecnología para el desarrollo de la industria Naval, Marítima y fluvial (COTECMAR). Para ello, se presenta el modelo de gestión utilizado en el marco teórico, luego expone la metodología empleada con la cual se logró alcanzar el objetivo del proyecto. Finalmente, se pone a consideración los resultados del estudio que se detallan en la definición de los procesos, para la gestión integral de proveedores y las estrategias definidas en la Corporación para implementación y mejorar el proceso de abastecimiento.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA

La presión competitiva en la que se ven involucradas las organizaciones ha generado la necesidad de transitar hacia el perfeccionamiento e integración de los procesos claves, en aras de lograr mejores desempeños en función de los denominados deseos universales de los clientes: precio, calidad, velocidad y servicio (Schonberger, 1996). En este sentido, y de acuerdo con Houlihan (1988), en la práctica empresarial ha tomado fuerza el concepto de *logística integral* (Ballou, 1999), (Romero y Gutiérrez, 1996), el cual promueve la buena integración de la organización en una cadena de suministro, “...como si fuera una red de agua, buscando al mismo tiempo reducir la longitud de la tubería y aumentar la velocidad del flujo a través de ella” (Christopher, 1994).

Para lograrlo, las empresas deben involucrar en su estrategia, el tránsito por un camino de tres etapas: la integración funcional de cada área de la organización, la integración interna entre las áreas funcionales formando una cadena de suministro interna y la integración externa entre los proveedores, la cadena de suministro interna y los clientes (Krajewski y Ritzman, 2000).

Para el análisis de proveedores, éste se dinamiza desde, la gestión integral de proveedores, que define el proceso mediante el cual la organización se asegura de contar con una base con los mejores proveedores,

comprometidos y dispuestos a contribuir en la generación de valor agregado, para lograr que ambas partes obtengan beneficios.

Una de las tendencias actuales que se debe considerar en la gestión de proveedores es que estos forman parte integral de la cadena de valor de la empresa; es por esto que de conformidad con este planteamiento Vijay (2006) Jae-Eun y Brenda (2008) afirman que las empresas no compiten solas, pues hacen parte de una red dentro de la cual debe competir mientras mejora su calidad, entrega y rendimiento y simultáneamente reduce sus costos, esto se debe a una tendencia mundial en la que no se compite entre empresas sino entre redes de abastecimiento(Castrilló, Sarache, et al ; 2008).

Por lo anterior, se debe obtener un modelo de abastecimiento equilibrado para la empresa, en el que se cubran aspectos relacionados con el manejo integral y relaciones con los proveedores, este debe plantear componentes que vayan desde las políticas y criterios que garanticen una selección adecuada, además de una evaluación objetiva que le permita a la organización, tomar decisiones ante la satisfacción de necesidades y requerimientos especificados, hasta las políticas y procedimientos, para mejorar el desempeño y realizar reconocimientos a los proveedores que presenten mejor desempeño en la organización.

En concordancia con lo anterior, Zutshi y Creed (2009) plantean que la construcción y la gestión de relaciones cliente-proveedor se reconocen hoy como uno de los pilares fundamentales para la creación de ventajas competitivas sostenibles.

Es así como, la gestión de relaciones con los proveedores (SRM, Supplier Relationship Management) hace referencia, al uso de tecnologías por parte de las empresas para mejorar los mecanismos de suministro y comunicación con los proveedores.

METODOLOGÍA

Para el diseño del modelo de gestión integral de proveedores, inicialmente se realizó un diagnóstico de la situación de los procesos de inscripción y evaluación de proveedores de bienes y servicios de Cotecmar, los cuales eran los únicos implementados en la Corporación. Para ello, se realizaron un total de veinte (20) entrevistas al personal del área de compras, gestión logística, almacén y gerencia de proyectos, quienes influyen directamente en la gestión de proveedores y contratistas de la organización, además se analizaron los resultados de las evaluaciones del cliente interno que se realizan semestralmente al proceso de abastecimiento de la empresa, y se realizó observación a los actores de los procesos de apoyo, con lo cual se lograron detectar fortalezas y debilidades más representativas en la gestión de proveedores de Cotecmar.

Para clasificar los bienes y servicios adquiridos en la Corporación, dentro de las categorías establecidas por la Matriz de Kraljic, se requirió la consolidación de órdenes de compra y contratos con proveedores, con lo cual se identificaron los bienes y servicios que se compraban frecuentemente y el costo de los mismos en el desarrollo de los proyectos; Así mismo, realizó análisis y filtración de la base de datos de proveedores y el cual permitió examinar qué tipo de bienes y servicios requerían mayor atención y tratamiento.

Dada la necesidad de contar con indicadores que permitieran darle valor a cada una de las dimensiones de la matriz, se determinó que en el caso del riesgo en el aprovisionamiento de los bienes y servicios de COTECMAR, se utilizaría el Principio de Pareto (Carot; 1998), a través del cual los elementos, artículos,

servicios estratégicos y de apalancamiento, usualmente representan el 80% de las compras anuales y los no críticos y cuellos de botella representan usualmente el 20% de las compras, utilizando el 80% de los recursos.

Para la medición del impacto de los bienes y servicios de la Corporación se analizaron las variables, cumplimiento de especificaciones, tiempos de entrega, cantidad de proveedores y ubicación del proveedor y, para realizar el análisis de los temas que se debían implementar en los procesos de desarrollo y certificación, se realizó una encuesta a cincuenta (50) de los proveedores y contratistas estratégicos de la Corporación con el fin de medir su percepción en cuanto conocimiento, falencias y disposición, frente a la implementación de programas que permitan alcanzar la certificación y el mejoramiento de los procesos productivos y administrativos de sus organizaciones.

RESULTADOS.

Culminada las fases de revisión de procesos, recolección y análisis de información de los proveedores de la organización, por medio de las cuales se obtuvieron distintas apreciaciones de los procesos que generan la gestión de los proveedores, corresponde entonces mostrar diversas acciones enmarcadas dentro el nuevo sistema, que permitirá mejorar la gestión adelantada por la Corporación y conservar una herramienta de mejora continua, ofreciendo además, resultados satisfactorios que podrían ser asimilados por diferentes áreas de la empresa. A continuación se muestra en la figura 3, los procesos del modelo para la gestión integral de proveedores de COTECMAR.

Figura 3: Sistema para la Gestión Integral de Proveedores de COTECMAR.



Fuente: Diseño de los autores

CONCLUSIONES

El sistema de gestión de proveedores se presenta como una estrategia de apoyo a la Corporación para afianzar las relaciones de la División de Gestión Logística con el resto de actores en la Corporación que requieren de información relevante de los proveedores, para disminuir la generación de reprocesos y contribuir a la toma de decisiones, con el fin de que se maneje una información integral, que dinamice y maximice los beneficios, no solo para los integrantes de la cadena de abastecimiento, sino para la Corporación en general.

La matriz de aprovisionamiento, se desarrolla como parte de los objetivos logísticos de COTECMAR, de ahí el hecho de contar con una clasificación, categorización y codificación de bienes y servicios que permita lograr una mejor gestión de la cadena de suministro, a través de la identificación de los bienes y servicios estratégicos de la Corporación.

El proceso de clasificación de proveedores permitirá a la Gestión Logística mejorar los tiempos de respuesta a sus clientes internos y a los proveedores, además de establecer estrategias de negociación y contratación con los proveedores con lo que se podrán disminuir reprocesos y cuellos de botella en las diferentes áreas que apoyan este proceso.

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ASPECTOS ÉTICOS EN LA FORMA DE EJERCER LOS INGRESOS PÚBLICOS EN MÉXICO

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RESUMEN

En este documento se hace una reflexión sobre la forma en que el gobierno mexicano asigna el ingreso público, con información obtenida a través de una investigación documental. Específicamente, se hace un análisis sobre la asignación de recursos en el rubro de gastos administrativos versus los ingresos destinados al rubro de gasto social. En el entendido de que este último, permite una redistribución del ingreso y por ende, una política fiscal redistributiva que mejore las condiciones económicas y sociales de los sectores más vulnerables de México. Para lo anterior, se presenta una sección donde se contextualiza el problema y se presentan algunos antecedentes. En la segunda sección de este documento, se presenta información cuantitativa al respecto, que muestra algunos aspectos increíbles e incoherentes en la forma de asignarse dichos recursos y que permiten realizar una serie de afirmaciones a modo de conclusión.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Administración pública y Gasto social.

JEL: H30

INTRODUCCIÓN

A continuación se pone a discusión la eficacia del gobierno como institución en su función de redistribuir el ingreso público a partir de la forma en que se asigna el gasto público, a través de un análisis del rubro de Gastos Administrativos versus Gasto en Rubros de Educación y Transferencias, Apoyos y Subsidios.

Desde la implementación del concepto de tributación, los contribuyentes formales y la sociedad en general, han contribuido de forma directa o indirecta a la recaudación de ingresos del gobierno en el entendido de que esta contribución implica una redistribución de dichos ingresos a toda la sociedad.

En la práctica la distribución del Gasto público en el rubro “Gastos Administrativos”, deja entre dicho la función del Estado respecto a la justa distribución del ingreso, que permita la libertad y dignidad de los individuos, grupos y clases sociales. Ya que al contrastar los porcentajes destinados a los gastos corrientes para la operación del sector gubernamental, como son los gastos administrativos, donde se contemplan sueldos, salarios, compras en bienes y servicios, entre otros gastos corrientes del Estado, los recursos destinados sobrepasan en mucho a las cantidades que se destinan (porcentualmente) a otros rubros o ramos (como educación y salud) que se pensaría son determinantes de un futuro crecimiento económico.

No obstante en la sección de “Comportamiento Detallado del Caso” se buscará analizar esta afirmación, ya que en primera instancia se puede pensar que el porcentaje asignado a nómina comúnmente es mayor que de las asignaciones, por lo que el análisis abordará principalmente la eficacia del mismo en el rubro de transferencias y subsidios. Más aún, en el caso de México se puede revisar la situación especial que

actualmente esta generando los gastos militares, que se están destinando a combatir (de acuerdo a los mensajes presidenciales) a la delincuencia organizada.

Para lo anterior, se debe recordar que los principios rectores del gasto público serán la eficiencia, la eficacia, la honestidad, la transparencia, y la rendición de cuentas, pero sobre todo, el bien colectivo cómo único destino de los recursos públicos.

Otra situación ética dentro de este mismo tema, radica en la inconsistencia en que se presentan los datos. A partir de 1998, la forma de presentar la información destinada al gasto público cambio, dificultando la interpretación de los mismos y desapareciendo rubros como “Educación” que son temas claves para el desarrollo económico de un país.

Al revisar todos los rubros que contemplan el gasto público del Estado, no aparece ninguno que deje entre ver de forma clara, el recurso económico destinado a elementos tan importantes como educación o salud. Muy a pesar de que autores de la materia, han manejado que desde la década de los 70's, “el presupuesto del gasto se ha distribuido favoreciendo al sector de la educación” (Higuera, 1982:126).

Lo anterior se considera es un aspecto que se puede analizar desde el punto de vista ético, por ello, la pregunta a analizar como caso de ética fiscal, es:

¿Es ética la forma en que el Estado distribuye el Gasto Público? Considerando la función primordial del Estado en la Redistribución del Ingreso Público y Bienestar Económico.

REVISIÓN LITERARIA Y CONTEXTO DEL CASO

En esta sección se pretende contextualizar el caso expuesto hasta ahora, a partir de señalar los argumentos planteados por autores o expertos en la materia.

El proceso Transparencia y Rendición de Cuentas, cada vez ejerce una mayor la presión al igual que los mercados financieros, para que los Estados como institución gubernamental, “controlen el gasto público e impongan una política de saneamiento y estabilidad de sus finanza públicas” (Zapico Eduardo, 2005: 167).

La falta de rendición de cuentas por parte de los gobernantes no permitía que en México los contribuyentes supieran en qué estaban siendo utilizados sus recursos (Hernández Fausto, 2009: 48).

Hemos visto que el crecimiento excepcional de la escolaridad en México en las últimas cuatro décadas ha sido también excepcionalmente inequitativo y esto se ha traducido, en el contexto de rendimientos crecientes a la educación, en un incremento en la desigualdad económica (Andretta, 2002:10).

La educación es uno de los principales vehículos de movilidad social y por ende es el gasto público en educación, el instrumento gubernamental con mayor potencial redistributivo permanente.

A nivel agregado, se sugieren una serie de instituciones y normas de disciplina que pretenden reforzar el papel de un actor presupuestario con mayor visión global y comprensiva sobre las consecuencias colectivas de las propuestas del gasto, para que pueda ejercer un papel dominante en las negociaciones presupuestarias (Zapico Eduardo, 2005:171).

La finalidad tributaria redistributiva es necesario tenerla muy presente en cualquier decisión que se proyecte (Higuera, 1982:129), en el caso de México; La distribución del ingreso ha sido un tema muy comentado, debido a la marcada distribución inequitativa, principalmente entre las diferentes regiones o entidades federativas del país.

La sustentabilidad de los programas distributivos o de apoyo para disminuir pobreza deberá ser de largo plazo o con objetivos congruentes y permanentes, para que algún día veamos efectos positivos en este tema.

No obstante, pareciera que dicha distribución carece de eficacia, ya que a lo largo de los años, “no se ha visto sustentabilidad en la política fiscal o estabilidad en los objetivos que se proponen a largo plazo” (Santaella, 2001:1).

Por otro lado, la forma en que se recauda y el objeto de este tributo, también es un tema complicado, ya que en México prevalecen los impuestos directos, pero en contraparte la falta de claridad y carencia de reformas fiscales, han permitido la existencia de elusión fiscal.

COMPORTAMIENTO DETALLADO DEL CASO Y RESULTADOS

Para analizar el comportamiento de la distribución del gasto público, es necesario tener claro, que a nivel Federal los rubros presupuestados para gastar el ingreso público, difieren a nivel Estatal, ya que en las entidades cuentan con recursos propios, entre otros criterios.

Los principales rubros que conforman los Gastos Administrativos del Gobierno Federal (En el entendido que estos gastos corresponden a los pagos de sueldos, salarios, servicios y compra de inmuebles, necesarios para la operación y funcionamiento del aparato gubernamental), se dividen en Servicios Personales, Materiales y Suministros, Servicios Generales y; Adquisición de Bienes e Inmuebles, los cuales representan el 30% del total de gastos generados por el sector público, como se puede apreciar en la Tabla No. 1, que se presenta continuación.

Tabla No. 1: Comparativo de Gastos Administrativos vs Transferencias en el Gasto Público Federal de 2004

Total	\$ 616,367,067.00	100%
Servicios personales	\$ 154,670,033.00	25.1%
Materiales y Suministros	\$ 6,709,206.00	1.1%
Servicios Generales	\$ 16,292,042.00	2.6%
Adquisición de Bienes e Inmuebles	\$ 2,623,422.00	0.4%
Total de Gastos Admón.	\$ 180,294,703.00	29.3%
Subsidios, transferencias y ayudas	\$ 244,119,773.00	39.6%
Obras Públicas y acciones sociales	\$ 44,735,513.00	7.3%

Construcción con información presentada en la publicación de INEGI; Ingreso y Gasto Público en México 2004.

No obstante, si hacemos la misma relación para el caso del Estado de Sonora, antes de aplicar los cambios en la forma de presentar los gastos administrativos (1997), dichos gastos administrativos representan el

90% más de recursos, que los destinados a “Salubridad Pública” o 50% más, que al Gasto en “Educación”. A pesar de que la nuestra Constitución plantea que el Estado buscará una optimización de los recursos y los encaminará al desarrollo del País.

Anteriormente existía en las publicaciones oficiales presentadas por INEGI (El Ingreso y el Gasto Público en México, 2001), la siguiente distribución en el rubro de “Gastos Administrativos”: Administración Pública, Seguridad Pública, Salubridad Pública, Educación Pública, Actividades Culturales, Previsión Social, Registro Público, y Diversos.

De acuerdo a esta forma de presentar la información, podemos analizar de cierta forma, la eficacia del gasto en cuanto a redistribución del mismo, no obstante en la actualidad la forma de presentar este tipo de cifras, se modificó reduciendo el número de rubros, de la siguiente manera: Servicios Personales, Materiales y Suministros; y Servicios Generales (INEGI, 2004), como se presentó en la Tabla No. 1.

Para que se alcance la vigilancia social de nuestros recursos, es necesario que el gobierno sea mucho más transparente en el uso de los recursos. A pesar de la existencia del Instituto Federal de Acceso a la información (IFAI), todavía existen muchas vertientes por donde las dependencias públicas esconden información al contribuyente, que incluso ocasionan la intervención de la Suprema Corte de Justicia (Hernández Fausto, 2009: 48).

Tabla No. 2: Relación de Gastos de acuerdo a diferentes Programas o Rubros

Monto destinado en 2010 (Miles de Millones de Pesos)	Concepto
80	Ahorro en el gasto de Administración, operación y de servicios personales en dependencias
81	Programa de Desarrollo Humano Oportunidades y de Apoyo Alimentario
44*	Gasto en Obra Pública y acciones sociales
7.5	Ramo 11: Educación Pública 2010

* Corresponde al Gasto Público de 2004

* Corresponde al Gasto Público de 2004

De acuerdo a los datos presentados en la Tabla No. 2 se puede apreciar que existen ciertas erogaciones realizadas por el sector gubernamental que comparadas con el monto propuesto como ahorro de gastos de operación, rebasa por mucho lo que los trabajadores de este sector son capaces de ahorrar, de acuerdo a la propuesta de gasto del año 2010. Lo que permite cuestionarnos, si en un año previó el gasto administrativo fue desmesurado y por lo menos pudo haber sido de 80 mil millones menos; ¿Porqué no se destinaron a programas de educación o ciencia y tecnología?

Por otro lado, es bien conocido que los gastos destinados al pago de salarios y sueldos de los diputados y senadores (que determinan y asignan los incrementos al salario del resto de los mexicanos), es exagerado y vergonzoso considerando el nivel de pobreza y desigualdad social que existe en nuestro país. A continuación se puede observar algunos de los datos referentes a este tipo de gasto y como si se relaciona con el ingreso público destinado a otros programas, deja mucho que desear.

Tabla No. 3: Relación de Datos respecto a Sueldos de Diputados y Senadores

Monto / Porcentaje	Concepto
\$ 2,312.00	Gasto Anual en Salarios de Diputados y Senadores 2010 (Millones de Pesos)
\$ 115.30	Programa Federal de Comunidades Saludables (Millones de Pesos)
4.85%	Incremento Porcentual del Salario Mínimo (2010)
8.80%	Incremento Porcentual del Salario de Diputados (2010)
\$ 59.80	Salario Mínimo Zona A (pesos al 2010)
\$ 4,400.00	Salario Diario aproximado de un Diputado (Pesos, sin incluir prestaciones al 2010)

Construcción en base a datos presentados por INEGI, Diario Oficial y Centro de Investigaciones de la Cámara de Diputados.

Por todo lo anteriormente expuesto, es necesario reflexionar si el actuar de los Gobiernos en turno y la clase política de nuestro País, esta actuando éticamente.

CONCLUSIÓN

De entrada, los recursos siempre son limitados, por ello, es tan importante y un compromiso ético, el buen uso u optimización de estos; Y más aún si estos recursos son propiedad de la nación.

Es necesario que la clase política de nuestro País, adquiera conciencia de la importancia que tienen sus decisiones; que en sus manos esta mediar alternativas de desarrollo humano y el bienestar de toda una economía; Que exista un compromiso real hacia el bien común y que retribuyan a la sociedad que los puso en el lugar en el que están actualmente.

Para actuar éticamente de acuerdo a las premisas planteadas en la Constitución, el gasto público se deberá asignar cada vez, con una mejor orientación, pensando en los beneficios sociales de largo plazo y no de corto plazo. Generar un verdadero desarrollo empresarial y tecnológico que garantice desarrollo económico y social; Y por ende, disminuya las diferencias sociales y mejore las condiciones de igualdad.

Se deberá invertir en rubros con efectos de largo plazo, como son la educación, la ciencia y la tecnología, ya que solamente estas variables permitirán realmente, mejorar las condiciones de vida de los mexicanos.

A la par deberá existir una política de racionalidad que permita que los recursos destinados a gastos administrativos sean menores proporcionalmente hablando y más productivos, para ello, deberán medir su nivel de eficacia y permitir ser evaluados desde esta perspectiva.

Finalmente se debe rendir cuentas claras (con acceso al público en general), que permita una participación social; Que se involucre a los principales beneficiarios de este recurso nacional, permitiendo la retroalimentación respecto a la efectividad del mismo.

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LOS RETOS DE LA INDUSTRIA DEL SECTOR METALMECÁNICO EN EL DESARROLLO ECONÓMICO DE BAJA CALIFORNIA

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RESUMEN

Una de las industrias básicas más importantes para la economía Mexicana es la Industria Metalmeccánica, la cual provee de maquinaria e insumos a la mayoría de las actividades económicas para su reproducción, quien por sus características muestra potencial para ser motor del desarrollo regional, en este trabajo se analizan los retos que se presentan para este sector en un espacio en el que confluyen actores de las municipalidades bajacalifornianas y la forma en que se deben plantear estrategias y retos para contribuir en el llamado triángulo intermunicipal y de desarrollo económico para Baja California como esquema de concentración para las actividades económicas y sociales que constituyen un potencial en el desarrollo regional.

LAS PRÁCTICAS DE ALTO RENDIMIENTO INFLUENCIA DE LA AUTORIDAD NO FORMAL EN LA ADMINISTRACION DEL TALENTO HUMANO Y SU IMPACTO EN LOS RESULTADOS EMPRESARIALES

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RESUMEN

El objetivo de este trabajo es analizar el concepto de autoridad formal en las organizaciones, mediante una discusión teórica de sus elementos componentes, su transversalidad en el proceso administrativo, y su efecto en el desarrollo proactivo de los objetos empresariales; pretendiendo determinar si esta variable es proactiva o no, en el desarrollo de prácticas de alto rendimiento en la Administración del Talento Humano, y si es o no una restricción, para que las personas se conviertan en su base estratégica y/o competitiva. También se intenta, a partir de un estudio de caso, determinar el efecto que tiene la expresión autoridad en los diseños no jerárquicos, los efectos de la posición estructural en las organizaciones, el efecto del liderazgo, la relación de las estructuras y los cargos con relación a los éxitos y alcances de la organización, el efecto sobre las relaciones y la comunicación intraorganizacional, la imposición, el autoritarismo, la no concertación con la falta de coherencia con los propósitos individuales, misionales y visionales, el continuum de las malas decisiones, la relación con la dirección y el control, y por último relacionar todos estos elementos con los individuos organizacionales actuales, inmersos en una sociedad del conocimiento.

PALABRAS CLAVES: Jerarquía, autoridad, poder, estructura piramidal, subordinación, competitividad, desempeño laboral, gestión centrada en resultados, autosuficientes, autocríticos, autogestión, autocontrol, autoevaluación, autocompromiso, autores, flexibilidad y adaptabilidad.

INFLUENCE OF FORMAL AUTHORITY IN HIGH- PERFORMANCE PRACTICES IN HUMAN RESOURCES AND ITS IMPACT ON BUSINESS RESULTS

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to analyze the concept of formal authority in organizations, using a theoretical discussion of its components, their mainstreaming in the administrative process, and its effect on the proactive development of business objects, pretending to determine if this variable is proactive or not, in the development of high performance practices in Human Resource Management, and whether or not a restriction, for people to become their strategic base and / or competitive.

We also try, from a case study, to determine the effect of expression no authority in hierarchical designs, the effects of structural position in organizations, the effect of leadership, the relationship of structures and the charges regarding the successes and achievements of the organization, the effect on intra-

relationships and communication, imposing, authoritarian, non-cooperation with the lack of consistency with individual purposes, mission and provisionally, the continuum of bad decisions, relationship with management and control, and finally connect all these elements with the current organizational individuals immersed in a knowledge society

KEYWORDS: Hierarchy, authority, power, pyramid structure, subordination, competitiveness, job performance, managing for results, self-sufficient, self-critical, self, self, self, self-commitment, authors, flexibility and adaptability.

INTRODUCCIÓN

La disciplina de gestión de recursos humanos ha sido muy criticada por no disponer de marcos teóricos que sirvieran de fundamento tanto para la realización de investigaciones científicas como para la elaboración de una doctrina común. Esto ha sido modificado gracias a investigaciones recientes que han hecho un gran esfuerzo en modelar conceptualmente los diferentes trabajos desarrollados a través de distintas teorías de la organización (Wright y Mac Mahan, 1992; Jackson y Schuler, 1995; Delery y Doty, 1996).

Estos modelos tratan de analizar la relación existente entre la estrategia empresarial, la gestión de recursos humanos y los resultados empresariales y se pueden establecer tres enfoques diferentes:

- Enfoque contingente, según el cual existe una relación entre gestión de recursos humanos y estrategia que influye en los resultados (Delery y Doty, 1996). Dependiendo de cual sea la variable independiente y cual la variable moderadora estaremos frente a la teoría basada en los recursos y capacidades (Barney, 1991; Wernefelt, 1984) o frente a la economía industrial (Porter, 1980, 1985).
- Enfoque universalista, que defiende la existencia de ciertas prácticas que contribuyen siempre a una mejora de los resultados empresariales, independientemente de la opción estratégica elegida (Ferris et al, 1999; Yound et al, 1996).
- Enfoque configurativo, se trata de una postura intermedia en la que no se diferencia entre variable independiente y moderadora, sino que ambas son igualmente importantes. En este enfoque se acentúa la importancia de la relación entre los elementos que componen la organización (enfoque holístico) (Delery y Doty, 1996).

El problema que se plantea es que no existen estudios concluyentes. Sino que por el contrario, encontramos dificultades para conseguir resultados claros y unánimes que ayuden a construir un único marco en materia de gestión de recursos humanos. Encontramos diferencias entre las prácticas que son definidas como de alto compromiso o de alto rendimiento, al igual que ocurre con la operativización de la estrategia competitiva, lo cual provoca que el ajuste entre estrategia y gestión de por compromiso sea impreciso. Además la mayoría de estos estudios se han centrado en analizar solamente las prácticas y técnicas operativas de gestión de recursos humanos por lo que su nivel de estudio ha sido excesivamente superficial, dejando a un lado la verdadera política y principios de gestión de los recursos humanos (Delery, 1998). También encontramos resultados contradictorios cuando se analiza la congruencia entre estrategia y gestión empresarial (Delery y Doty, 1996; Lee y Miller, 1999; Legnick Hall y Legnick Hall, 1998, Schuler y Jackson, 1987, Valle et al, 2000). Además, existe poca evidencia empírica de que tal ajuste sea necesario o incluso beneficioso (Delery, 1998 y Roche, 1999) ya que los resultados no son concluyentes (Delery y Doty, 1996 y Huselid, 1995).

Por todo ello, el presente trabajo representa un primer acercamiento para el estudio de tres elementos como son: los principios que influyen en el sistema de dirección acordes con la opción estratégica, las prácticas de alto rendimiento en la gestión de recursos humanos y los resultados empresariales. Centrándonos en el enfoque configurativo y tomando como estudio una determinada empresa, pretendemos analizar la repercusión que tiene la disminución del uso de la autoridad formal (como principio empresarial) en la elección de prácticas y técnicas de alto rendimiento en la gestión de recursos humanos y su impacto en los resultados empresariales. De esta manera se pretenden integrar los enfoques contingente y universalista, analizando su literatura y determinar la posible existencia de una relación directa entre ambos elementos.

REVISIÓN DE LITERATURA

La autoridad formal como restricción en los sistemas de dirección

El ejercicio de la autoridad formal, promulgado por el taylorismo como método único de coordinación, atraviesa un momento de seria dificultad en las organizaciones modernas. El incremento del nivel educativo, que confiere un mayor criterio e induce a pedir más protagonismo en las decisiones; el incremento del nivel de vida en los países desarrollados, que reduce la dependencia económica del sujeto y que, consiguientemente, le confiere más poder frente a las organizaciones; la creciente complejidad del funcionamiento de las empresas, que exige una estrecha coordinación de esfuerzos entre profesionales; el desarrollo de una más clara conciencia de la dignidad humana, que lleva a pedir más participación; el desarrollo o cambio de las estructuras de las organizaciones, que ha pasado a ser más compleja y con mayor autonomía; han provocado que el concepto de subordinado se haya modificado por el de colaborador o compañero de equipo y ha favorecido que se reconozca que la inflexibilidad perjudica el propio desempeño de la organización.

Por este motivo, las responsabilidades de los sujetos no son solamente las que están descritas en los manuales de funciones, sino que son aquellas que se establecen de acuerdo a las capacidades de los trabajadores, simplificando de esta forma los niveles de jerarquía organizativa y dando lugar a organigramas más planos. También se puede observar cómo se comienza a implantar nuevas formas de trabajo como el teletrabajo, el empleo descentralizado, el trabajo por colectivo y otras dinámicas que sustentan la movilidad del factor trabajo.

Se pasa así de un desarrollo funcional para el factor humano a la búsqueda de un desarrollo estratégico. Para ello se requiere trascender del dominio y la subordinación jerárquica, burocrática, plutocrática o formas más dinámicas como la heterarquía, el empoderamiento, la autogestión o la holonarquía a una instancia consensual democrática. Dando lugar de esta manera a una organización, denominada como coalición, en la que no existe relación jerárquica ya que está autogestionada pero en el que cada miembro posee unas responsabilidades y dispone de poder de decisión sobre los recursos que controla y por tanto la retribución o contrapartida se determina ex post, en función de los resultados del grupo (Salas, 1996).

La coalición, plantea dos grandes problemas de diseño organizativo que la gestión de los recursos humanos ha de resolver: la coordinación y los incentivos. La coordinación es necesaria debido a la existencia de interdependencias entre las decisiones de los distintos agentes y esto existe compartir la información necesaria que permita a cada miembro anticipar las decisiones o acciones de los demás o establecer ex ante las rutinas o reglas de decisión.

La cultura se puede considerar como un mecanismo que restringe la conducta de sus miembros (O'Reilly, 1989) y que facilita la coordinación (Kreeps, 1990) en el momento en el que trasmite a los interesados cuál será la línea de conducta a seguir cuando se tengan que tomar decisiones en aspectos no previstos. Cremer (1993), precisa cuáles son los mecanismos a través de los cuales la cultura mejora la coordinación y establece los dos siguientes: el lenguaje común, que facilita la comunicación; y el establecimiento de reglas de conducta para que cada miembro pueda predecir el comportamiento de los demás y ajustar el suyo. En la misma dirección, Kreeps (1990) insiste en la utilización de la cultura como mecanismo de coordinación sobre todo cuando la conducta individual puede dar lugar a múltiples equilibrios eficientes.

Además, existe evidencia en que el estilo directivo y la cultura empresarial son aspectos intimamente relacionados con sistema de gestión de recursos humanos y cabe argumentar que sólo a través de la coherencia entre ellos se pueden generar ventajas competitivas sostenibles a largo plazo (Ordiz, 2000). Esta idea también la encontramos en los trabajos de Ogboma y Harris (2000) y Hemey (1998) cuando argumentan respectivamente, que la forma en que el estilo de liderazgo influye en el rendimiento está mediatizada por la cultura empresarial y proponen a la cultura empresarial como requisito para el éxito de un determinado estilo de liderazgo.

De todo ello, se desprende la siguiente proposición:

P1: Una disminución de la autoridad formal en las empresas ha de ser sustituida por una cultura fuerte orientada hacia las relaciones interpersonales que mejore la colaboración y el compromiso entre ellos y con la organización.

Repercusiones en la gestión de recursos humanos: las prácticas de Alto Compromiso

La gestión por alto compromiso (Lawler, 1986, Walton, 1985 y Word y Albanese, 1995) también ha sido descrita como prácticas de alto rendimiento (Huselid, 1995) y también es conocido como modelo soft de gestión de recursos humanos (Guest, 1987, Turss et al, 1997). Pero básicamente, se trata de un planteamiento de gestión de recursos humanos orientado hacia el compromiso con los empleados y que implica la participación activa de éstos en la toma de decisiones, proporcionándole los recursos y el apoyo organizativo necesario para ello (R, E y Valle).

Aunque la literatura es muy rica en este tipo de prácticas (Arthur, 1994; Kofman, y Senge, 1993, Delery y Huselid, 1996; Ichniowski, Shaw y Prennushi, 1997)), el problema se plantea a la hora de determinar qué prácticas concretas de recursos humanos son las que mejoran y sirven para gestionar el compromiso, ya que los estudios no muestran unanimidad al respecto. Para determinar las prácticas de alto compromiso, algunos autores aconsejan en primer lugar medir el grado de concepción que sobre los recursos humanos tiene la parte de los directivos (Compromiso con los directivos) o dicho en términos de Eisenberger et al (1986), lo que se tiene que observar y medir es el apoyo organizativo percibido por el empleado.

Donde sí encontramos unanimidad es que todas ellas enfatizan la autonomía de los trabajadores sobre su trabajo (Arthur, 1994) favoreciendo de esta manera la experimentación y promoviendo la comunicación interna y con ella la coordinación de los diferentes miembros de la organización (Truss, et al, 1997). Los principales argumentos que se han establecido para la incorporación de estas prácticas de alto compromiso han sido dos: permite a la organización que sea más efectiva (Lawler, 1986) y aumenta la aprobación social de este modelo en contraposición al estilo Taylorista tradicional basado en el control estricto y la subordinación de los empleados (Shashkin, 1984).

De manera que podemos afirmar que las prácticas de alto compromiso están relacionadas de forma positiva con la disminución del uso de la autoridad formal por parte de las empresas, lo cual nos permite plantear la siguiente proposición:

P2: A menor uso de la autoridad formal, las empresas utilizan prácticas de alto compromiso para gestionar a sus recursos humanos y consiguen mayores resultados.

METODOLOGÍA

Este artículo presenta algunos aspectos del estudio de caso como método de investigación en las ciencias administrativas. Se sustenta, en el método como forma de generar teorías sobre fenómenos organizacionales de causalidad compleja. La aplicación correcta de esta herramienta legitima la investigación e invita al uso de sus resultados; facilitando la conexión entre el mundo académico y el industrial. “La racionalidad de las tareas administrativas es una racionalidad práctica que utiliza instrumentos técnicos y estima con prudencia su validez y factibilidad, teniendo en mente las circunstancias culturales e históricas concretas y, sobre todo, la personalidad de quienes componen la firma. De allí que el método del caso aparezca como un procedimiento extremadamente apropiado para su enseñanza.” (Crespo, 2000)

Los casos de investigación adoptan, en general, una perspectiva integradora. Un estudio de caso es, según la definición de Yin (1994), “una investigación empírica que estudia un fenómeno contemporáneo dentro de su contexto de la vida real, especialmente cuando los límites entre el fenómeno y su contexto no son claramente evidentes. (...) Una investigación de estudio de caso trata exitosamente con una situación técnicamente distintiva en la cual hay muchas más variables de interés que datos observacionales; y, como resultado, se basa en múltiples fuentes de evidencia, con datos que deben converger en un estilo de triangulación; y, también como resultado, se beneficia del desarrollo previo de proposiciones teóricas que guían la recolección y el análisis de datos.”

Popper escribió que el método del caso como los estudios estadísticos y otros enfoques cuantitativos buscan desarrollar teorías con consecuencias verificables empíricamente, el método del caso propone la generalización y la inferencia hacia la teoría y no hacia otros casos, busca introducir dentro del caso datos cuantitativos que permitan consolidar los hallazgos cualitativos.

Mitchell (1983) justifica este camino, pues la inferencia lógica es epistemológicamente bastante independiente de la inferencia estadística. En términos de los cánones de la inferencia estadística, el analista puede suponer que la misma relación existe entre las mismas características en la población madre. Sin embargo, la inferencia desde la muestra en relación con la población madre se realiza simplemente sobre la variación concomitante de las dos características. En la inferencia lógica (que algunos llaman científica o causal), el investigador postula o descubre relaciones entre características, en el marco de un esquema conceptual explicativo. La relevancia del caso y su generalización no proviene, entonces, del lado estadístico, sino del lado lógico, las características del estudio de caso se extienden a otros casos por la fortaleza del razonamiento explicativo.

Un diseño de investigación se compone de cinco componentes, Yin (1994): 1- las preguntas del estudio, 2- sus proposiciones, si existieran, 3- su unidad de análisis (pueden ser varias), 4- la lógica que vincula los datos con las proposiciones y 5- los criterios para interpretar los hallazgos.

Las proposiciones orientan sobre los objetos que deben ser examinados en el estudio; desmenuzan las preguntas de tipo cómo y por qué para determinar qué se debe estudiar. A partir de las preguntas de investigación se buscan datos sistemáticamente para extraer conclusiones. Las preguntas, los datos, y las conclusiones están vinculados lógicamente entre sí por el diseño del caso.

Algunos autores como Dyer (1991) se inclinan por el estudio de un solo caso y citan para avalar su posición ejemplos de casos clásicos, como Street Corner Society, que mostrarían la importancia de concentrarse en el estudio a fondo de un único caso. Otros Eisenhardt (1989) sostienen en cambio que es posible obtener recursos para casos múltiples; de hecho, hay ejemplos de casos múltiples ya clásicos, como Crozier (1964). Smith (1990) relata que, en su experiencia, a medida que cada caso progresa a través de entrevistas los datos se van adecuando a un patrón, en otras palabras, una teoría va emergiendo y los datos sucesivos se hacen predecibles a partir de la teoría.

El caso de análisis: SEMCO.

SEMCO es una compañía que ha despertado un inusitado interés en todo el mundo, por las prácticas novedosas en la administración de sus recursos en especial el Humano que la han llevado a convertirse en la más grande compañía manufacturera marina y de maquinaria procesadora de alimentos del Brasil, trata a sus 800 empleados como adultos responsables. Creada en 1953 por un ingeniero de origen Austriaco llamado Antonio Curt Semler. Centra sus actividades productivas en cinco fábricas que producen un rango de productos sofisticados, incluyendo bombas marinas, scanners digitales, lavadoras comerciales de platos, filtros para camión, y equipo de mezcla para cualquier cosa desde chicle hasta combustible para cohetes. Entre sus clientes principales se encuentran Alcoa, Saab y General Motors. Ha construido varias fábricas de galletas para Nabisco, Nestlé y United Biscuits. Los competidores multinacionales son, entre otros, AMF, Worthington Industries, Mitsubishi Heavy Industries y Carrier.

El fundador pasó la dirección a su hijo Ricardo Semler, quien tuvo que lidiar con tiempos difíciles para la economía de su país y el devenir de su empresa. Al parecer los problemas de salud derivados del estrés colocaron a Ricardo en una posición decisivamente pasiva, lo que lo llevó a aceptar las propuestas autogestionarias de sus trabajadores. Consiguiendo en primera instancia, evitar el despido masivo y ligar su remuneración a los beneficios de la empresa, a la vez que conseguían reducir el sueldo de los directivos, posteriormente se organizaron en pequeñas unidades coordinadas de no más de 200 trabajadores, bajo un reducido staff e torno a su propietario y un Consejero Delegado (quien rotaba cada seis meses). Pero sin duda lo más interesante en este desarrollo es cada individuo puede fijar su salario, sus horas de trabajo, concentrados en decisiones democráticas, y con divisiones de gran autonomía, que se concretan en un pequeño manual de supervivencia, que la llevado a ser una compañía poco ortodoxa que produce mucho dinero evitando las decisiones, las reglas, la autoridad ejecutiva. Todos tienen acceso a los libros de la compañía y donde la totalidad de los trabajadores vota sobre las decisiones corporativas importantes.

Asociaciones de Administración, sindicatos y la prensa repetidamente la han señalado como la mejor compañía para trabajar en Brasil. Ya no se promocionan puestos de trabajo, sin embargo se reciben hasta 300 solicitudes para cada posición disponible.

SEMCO posee tres valores fundamentales en los cuales basa unos 30 programas administrativos. Estos valores, la democracia, la participación de utilidades, y la información, funcionan en un círculo complicado, cada uno dependiendo de los otros dos. La estructura corporativa, las libertades de los

empleados, las relaciones con el sindicato, las limitaciones en el tamaño de la fábrica, todos son producto del compromiso con estos principios.

El primero de los tres valores de SEMCO es la democracia, o el compromiso del empleado. En forma clara, los trabajadores controlan sus condiciones de trabajo así están más contentos que aquellos que no lo hacen. Implementar el compromiso del empleado es un asunto tan complejo, tan difícil y, comúnmente, tan frustrante, que es más fácil hablar de ello que hacerlo. SEMCO encontró cuatro grandes obstáculos para la administración participativa efectiva: el tamaño, la jerarquía, la falta de motivación, y la ignorancia. En una unidad inmensa de producción, la gente se siente pequeña, desconocida, e incapaz de influenciar la forma en que se hace el trabajo o la utilidad final obtenida.

La pirámide organizacional es la causa de muchos daños en las compañías, porque el viaje es demasiado largo desde la base. Las pirámides hacen énfasis en el poder, promueven la inseguridad, distorsionan las comunicaciones, le ponen trabas a la interacción, y hacen muy difícil que la gente que planea y la gente que ejecuta se muevan en la misma dirección. Entonces SEMCO diseñó un círculo organizacional. Su mayor ventaja es que reduce los niveles de administración a tres - un nivel corporativo, y dos niveles operacionales en las unidades de manufactura.

Consta de tres círculos concéntricos. Un círculo central pequeño que consta de cinco personas que integran los movimientos de la compañía. El segundo, un círculo más grande, contiene los jefes de ocho divisiones - los llamados socios. Finalmente, un tercero, un círculo enorme que contiene a todos los demás empleados. La mayoría de ellos son los que se llaman asociados; son los encargados de la investigación, el diseño, las ventas y el trabajo de manufactura y no tienen a nadie que les reporte regularmente. Pero algunos de ellos son un equipo permanente o temporal, cuya función es liderar y se denominan coordinadores. Ningún coordinador se reporta a otro coordinador, esa característica del sistema es la que garantiza la reducción en los estratos administrativos.

No se selecciona o promueve nadie hasta que no ha sido entrevistado y aceptado por todos sus futuros subordinados. Dos veces al año, los subordinados evalúan a los administradores. También dos veces al año todos en la compañía diligencian en forma anónima un cuestionario sobre la credibilidad de la compañía y la competencia de la alta administración. Entre otras cosas, se les pregunta a los empleados qué cosas los harían renunciar o entrar en paro.

Se insiste en tomar decisiones importantes en forma colegiada, y ciertas decisiones se toman luego de un voto general en la compañía, lo que convoca permanentemente a una administración participativa. Otras formas de combatir la jerarquía, es dar a los empleados control sobre sus propias vidas. En una palabra, se contratan adultos y luego se tratan como adultos. El sentido común es una táctica más riesgosa porque exige responsabilidad personal.

SEMCO no tiene reglas sobre el vestido. La idea de que la apariencia personal es importante en un trabajo cualquier trabajo es una tontería. Una compañía que necesita vestidos de negocios para probar su seriedad probablemente no tiene una prueba más significativa.

Se fomenta y se insiste en la rotación de puestos cada dos a cinco años para evitar la desmotivación. Del lado más experimental, se tiene un programa para personas que reciben adiestramiento a nivel de ingreso llamado Perdidos en el Espacio por medio del cual se seleccionan un par de personas cada año que no tienen descripción de cargo alguna. Los cuida un padrino y durante un año pueden hacer lo que

quieran, mientras intenten al menos 12 áreas o unidades diferentes. Por la misma lógica que rige los otros programas para empleados, se han eliminado los relojes. Los empleados van y vienen de acuerdo con sus propios horarios, aún en el piso de la fábrica. Cuando se introdujo el horario flexible, se decidió realizar reuniones de seguimiento regulares para definir los problemas y decidir cómo manejar los abusos y las interrupciones del trabajo. Esto sucedió hace años, y todavía no se realiza la primera de estas reuniones. Se forman grupos, pero éstos encuentran sus propios líderes. Y esto no es falta de estructura, es sólo falta de una estructura impuesta desde arriba.

En el caso de SEMCO, cada división cuenta con un programa de participación de utilidades individual. Dos veces al año se calcula el 23% de la utilidad posterior a los impuestos sobre el estado de ingresos de cada división y le damos un cheque a tres empleados que han sido elegidos por quienes trabajan en esa división. Estos tres trabajadores invierten el dinero hasta que cada unidad puede reunirse y decidir por simple mayoría de votos lo que desean hacer con él. En la mayoría de las unidades, se ha decidido una distribución por igual. Si la unidad tiene 150 trabajadores, se divide el total por 150 y se le entrega a cada uno su parte. Así de simple. Quien barre el piso recibe igual que el socio de la división.

Son muchas las cosas que contribuyen a un exitoso programa de participación de utilidades: bajo nivel de cambio de empleados, pago competitivo, ausencia de paternalismo, negativa a otorgar premios de consolación cuando las utilidades bajan, distribución frecuente (trimestral o semestral) de utilidades y muchas oportunidades para que los empleados cuestionen las decisiones de la administración que afectan las futuras utilidades. Pero nada es más importante que aquellas estadísticas vitales reportes frecuentes, cortos, francos sobre cómo se desempeña la compañía. Transparencia total. Sin tretas, sin simplificaciones.

Todos los empleados de SEMCO asisten a clases para aprender a leer y entender las cifras, y uno de sus sindicatos es el que dicta las clases. Cada mes, cada empleado recibe una hoja de balance, un análisis de pérdidas y ganancias, y un estado de flujo de caja de su división. Los informes contienen unos 70 ítems (más, incidentalmente, de los que utilizan para manejar la compañía, pero no se quiere que nadie piense que se trata de retener información). El mostrar las cifras reales siempre tendrá consecuencias positivas a largo plazo.

Lo que importa en los presupuestos como en los informes es que las cifras sean pocas e importantes y que la gente las entienda con aproximación. Y esto es todo. La participación da a la gente control sobre su trabajo; la participación de utilidades les da una razón para desempeñarse mejor; la información les dice lo que funciona y lo que no funciona.

Variables de Medida

Utilización de la autoridad formal:

- Número de niveles jerárquicos o de responsabilidad
- Lenguaje utilizado: Subordinado versus Compañero
- Normas y directrices generales: centradas en el poder o en la responsabilidad
- Centros de decisión: uno o múltiples
- Toma de decisión: individual o colectiva

Variables de medición apoyo organizativo percibido por los empleados:

- Se ponen en marcha acciones para identificar necesidades de recursos e información de todo el personal de la empresa
- La dirección comunica y reconoce formalmente los logros de sus colaboradores
- La empresa comunica formalmente su política y estrategia a todos sus empleados
- Directivos y supervisores permiten a los empleados tener una alta autonomía y autocontrol sobre sus actuaciones

Prácticas de recursos humanos de alto compromiso

- Contratación selectiva: se buscan individuos que se adecuen a la organización y a su cultura o no.
- Contrataciones fijas: uso de contratos indefinidos, enmarcado en una política de empleo estable o contratos temporales
- Formación intensiva: Altas oportunidades de formación ofrecidas a los empleados o no
- Formación genérica: formación orientada a la polivalencia que permite a los empleados desarrollar diferentes funciones y tareas o formación específica
- Promoción cualitativa: uso de criterios de promoción basados en actitudes que respalden la cultura organizativa o promoción cuantitativa
- Evaluación cualitativa: uso de criterios de evaluación basados en actitudes que respaldan la cultura organizativa o evaluación cuantitativa
- Retribución basada en el individuo: salario base determinado por los conocimientos de los individuos y su flexibilidad para realizar múltiples tareas o basado en el puesto de trabajo
- Nivel de retribución medio –alto: niveles retributivos por encima o en la media del mercado, buscando equidad externa
- Retribución a largo plazo: vinculación de los incentivos salariales al logro de objetivos a medio y largo plazo
- Incentivos colectivos: utilización del rendimiento colectivo (equipos de trabajo, empresa) como criterio para el reparto de incentivos salariales o incentivos individuales.

Variables de medición de resultados (mejor mostrar su evolución si tenemos todos los datos)

- Se aprecia una mejora de los resultados financieros
- Mejora la cuota de mercado
- Mejora de las ganancias como porcentaje de las ventas
- Incremento de ventas por empleado
- Rendimiento en el puesto de trabajo
- Resolución de problemas de alta calidad
- Niveles de rotación y absentismo

CONCLUSIONES

Hoy día el concepto de autoridad, empieza a tener ciertas limitaciones, ya que los procedimientos para la toma de decisiones se han bajado a niveles más bajos de la corporación. El sistema jerárquico que anteriormente se utilizaba ha dado pie a un sistema en el que los empleados son responsables de sus propias acciones, y el liderazgo viene de los equipos de trabajo y ya no sólo de una persona como ocurría anteriormente.

La autoridad formal tradicional no resulta efectiva, ya que las órdenes pueden ser desobedecidas, como

pueden ser obedecidas cuando están equivocadas y las consecuencias de estas distintas posibilidades. La autoridad descansa en la aceptación (o no) del consentimiento y aprobación de los subordinados, no existe en realidad el concepto de legitimación de autoridad sino que es algo muy sencillo: las personas subordinadas simplemente eligen entre distintas alternativas respecto de obedecer o no obedecer. Es importante que la estructura organizacional contribuya a crear una situación en la que el administrador pueda dirigir con mayor eficacia. En este sentido, la organización es una técnica para fomentar el liderazgo. Si la asignación de autoridad y los arreglos estructurales crean una situación en la que exista la tendencia a que los jefes de departamentos sean considerados como líderes y en el cual se les ayude en sus tareas de liderazgo la estructuración organizacional habrá cumplido una tarea esencial.

En ésta perspectiva se postula implícitamente una oposición entre las Relaciones heterárquicas (identificadas con las que ocurren en las redes) y las jerárquicas (asociadas con las cadenas de autoridad), estas últimas aparecen como algo nocivo que debe desterrarse o como la expresión de una forma organizacional inferior o un tanto inadecuadas para enfrentar las exigencias de la economía mundial y las sociedades económicas contemporáneas. Todos los miembros de una organización tienen autoridad para tomar decisiones y llevar a cabo acciones que afectan al futuro de la organización, uno de los aportes de los nuevos conceptos de autoridad se centran en la revolución de las técnicas para tomar decisiones, ya que no corresponde a los sujetos organizacionales, sino más bien a dinámicas por fuera de las estructuras jerárquicas.

Podría haber circunstancias en las que un jefe de equipo tiene sentido, pero otras en las que es evidente que no lo tiene. Es más, a veces, si hay jefe el rendimiento decrece, porque baja la motivación. Se debe ser responsable ante uno mismo y no ante el jefe, en este sentido hay un reconocimiento de autonomía de la fuerza laboral y la claridad de los objetos contratados, que van más allá de la subordinación. Habrá quien argumente que se necesiten líderes y que la dirección general debe serlo. La pregunta que debe hacerse seguidamente, es cuántas direcciones generales son líderes de sus equipos, esta ausencia se simplifica mediante la estructura jerárquica, la delegación y la imposición subordinal.

Estas premisas conllevan a pensar que las empresas modernas o contemporáneas ya están lejos de requerir ambientes jerárquicos, porque las personas, y las organizaciones han evolucionado cognitivamente y competitivamente, incluso ni requiera nuevas formas de gobierno, sino mejores formas de Dirección. En este sentido, los nuevos modelos y prácticas simplificadoras deben tener por objeto la disminución de la complejidad del mundo organizacional, intentando ser congruentes con los procesos del mundo real y pertinentes para los objetivos de unos y otros; en fomentar la capacidad de aprendizaje interactivo dinámico respecto de distintos procesos y formas de interdependencia causales, atribuciones de responsabilidad y capacidad de actuar, así como posibilidades de coordinación en un entorno complejo y turbulento. Se mejora esta capacidad cuando los agentes pueden pasar de uno a otro de los distintos modos de buen gobierno para dar respuestas más eficaces a la turbulencia interna o externa; en elaborar métodos de coordinación de acciones entre diferentes fuerzas sociales con identidades, intereses y sistemas de significados diferentes, en distintos horizontes espaciotemporales y en diferentes ámbitos de intervención. Depende de la utilización auto-reflexiva de la auto-organización para sostener el intercambio, la negociación, o la solidaridad, así como de la índole específica de los problemas de coordinación que suscite el actuar a distintas escalas y en distintos horizontes temporales, y determinar una visión común del mundo y de un sistema que establezca las orientaciones, las expectativas y las normas de comportamiento de los principales agentes. Con ello se puede llevar a cabo un análisis y una evaluación sistemáticos de los problemas y las posibilidades, la disponibilidad y las necesidades de recursos y el marco necesario para el cumplimiento constante de la coordinación tanto positiva como

negativa.

Otras conclusiones

El ser humano debe ser reconocido en su capacidad total no sólo en lo funcional; coordinación y dirección no son iguales a autoridad; la estructura organizacional, puede ser adaptada a estructuras contingentes en función del conocimiento (profesional, empírico o formal, informal) y no a la autoridad; las relaciones jerárquicas (proponen muchos miembros con poder y autoridad, y también lo son en el ejercicio) disminuyen la efectividad de las organizaciones; la autoridad y el poder no son ejes dinamizadores de la organización, no son esenciales; no es la autoridad un elemento que lleva permanentemente a reaccionar en forma negativa a las organizaciones (despidos, procesos disciplinarios, ausentismo, rotación); porque no considerar las empresas como un solo cuerpo, donde todos los colectivos tengan los mismos objetivos, no es eso la misión y la visión de las organizaciones; las organizaciones pequeñas y grandes, tendrán el mismo tenor de aplicación y función de la autoridad, o simplemente se debe afirmar que no requieren de ella; las nuevas teorías organizacionales tienden a expresar la autonomía, sin embargo la incapacidad de quienes la dirigen, sólo encuentran en las jerarquías, la dominación, la subordinación y la autoridad, su capacidad de accionar.; el no tener pensamientos rígidos y estructuras jerárquicas, no significa que las cosas estén desordenadas; la autoridad, solo representa un principio de organización y nada más; la educación en la confianza será uno de los valores más importantes de la sociedad y una clase de éxito en el futuro. Es un verdadero diferencial para sobrevivir en la gestión de nuevas empresas; los golpes se distribuyen a lo largo de la organización; la pérdida del poder y la autoridad es un síntoma de miedo.

El disidente, restaura la dignidad del empleado, evita el deterioro de las calidades físicas, intelectuales, emocionales y su autonomía, y definitivamente evita el status quo de las compañías; si se asume que la autoridad está en la jerarquía, no debería existir diferencia entre líderes y jefes; el ser humano es un maximizador de su utilidad individual, depende de sus recursos y de su producción

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